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English Language Teacher Motivation in Sri Lankan Public Schools

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Abstract—Drawing on in-depth qualitative data from fifty-four surveys and five interviews, this study investigated aspects of motivation and demotivation among Sri Lankan English language teachers. The participants included a convenience sample of English teachers currently employed in public schools. The results of the study revealed that students themselves, the act of teaching students, and the prestigious social position for English teachers in Sri Lanka are main motivators for teachers. The main demotivators for the participants included limited facilities for teaching and learning in schools, inefficiency of school administration and zonal education offices, difficulties in obtaining teacher transfers, the discrepancy between the English curriculum and students' English proficiency, and the poor relationship between colleagues. Overall results of the study indicate that teacher demotivation is a significant issue in Sri Lankan public schools which needs the immediate attention of the country's education policy designers and management.

Index Terms—motivation, demotivation, English teachers, public schools, Sri Lanka

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Teacher motivation is a construct which has received significant attention in mainstream education during the last few decades. Recent studies on teacher motivation in education have explored different reasons for new teachers to join the profession, factors that motivate and demotivate teachers, the impact of teacher motivation on their teaching, the relationship between teacher motivation and student motivation, and the measures by which teacher motivation can be increased in different working scenarios (e.g., Addison & Brundrett, 2008; Dinham & Scott, 2000; Pelletier, Levesque, & Legault, 2002; Roth, Assor, Maymon, & Kaplan, 2007; Smithers & Robinson, 2003).

In Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, teacher motivation is currently viewed as a variable which has a strong impact on learner motivation (Gardner, 2007). In addition to teaching language, ESL/EFL teachers are expected to increase learners' intrinsic motivation by employing different motivational strategies in instruction (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008, p. 52). However, the extent to which teachers are able to motivate their students depends on how motivated teachers themselves are (Atkinson, 2000; Bernaus, Wilson, & Gardner, 2009; Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). As Bernaus et al. (2009) concluded regarding learner motivation, "teacher motivation is the most important variable because if teachers are not motivated the whole notion of strategy use is lost" (p. 29).

Despite the significance attached to it in mainstream education, teacher motivation still remains a highly overlooked area of research in SLA and TESOL (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 157). Except for a handful of studies by Pennington and her colleagues since the 1990s, Doyle and Kim (1999), Connie (2000), Tiziava (2003), and Bernaus et al. (2009), the number of reported studies on teacher motivation in SLA/TESOL is extremely limited. Consequently, this prevents us from precisely understanding what motivates and demotivates ESL/EFL teachers, how their (lack of) motivation affects their teaching practices in classrooms, and what impact teacher motivation has on learner motivation and language achievement. These are all significant questions in many second and foreign language scenarios in the world. This is why Dörnyei (2001), stressing the significance of teacher motivation in SLA and education, states that "far more research is needed to do this important issue justice" (p. 157). A survey of literature of the last ten years shows that this statement is still true and possibly more applicable to TESOL than to mainstream education.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Motivators and Demotivators for Teachers

Dinham and Scott (2000), in a survey study involving 2000 teachers in Australia, New Zealand, and England, report that teachers are often motivated by "matters intrinsic to the role of teaching" while their demotivation is mainly caused by "matters extrinsic to the task of teaching" (p. 390). This has been a common finding in many other studies as well (Spear et al., 2000; Addison et al., 2008). According to Dinham & Scott (2000), common intrinsic motivators for teachers include student achievement, helping students modify their attitudes and behavior, positive relationship with students and others, self-growth, mastery of professional skills, and feeling part of a collegial supportive environment. Meanwhile, major demotivators include the nature and the pace of educational change, teacher workload, the community's poor opinion of teachers, the negative image of the teachers portrayed in the media, and lack of support services for teachers (p. 389). In their review of teacher motivation studies conducted in the contexts of England and

Wales after 1989, Spear et al. (2000) identified the common intrinsic rewards of teaching to be working with children, developing warm personal relationships with students, the intellectual challenge of teaching, autonomy, and independence. The major demotivators for teachers are poor pay, work overload, and perceptions of how teachers are viewed by society (p. 4). In a study of factors affecting motivation and demotivation of primary teachers in England, Addison and Brundrett (2008) argued that teacher motivation is mostly related to intrinsic issues such as positive responses from children, their progress, a sense of achievement from a completed and enjoyable task, and having supportive colleagues. Meanwhile, principal demotivators are poor responses from children, working long hours, and workload (p. 91).

Even though teachers in many contexts in the world are intrinsically motivated, there are a large “number of detrimental factors that systematically undermine and erode the intrinsic character of teacher motivation” (Dörnyei, 2000, p. 165). According to Dörnyei, teacher demotivation is often associated with five main factors: *stressful nature of work*, *inhibition of teacher autonomy*, *insufficient self-efficacy*, *content repetitiveness*, and *inadequate career structure* (p. 165). Among these, “teacher stress” is a teacher’s experience of “unpleasant negative emotions, such as anger, anxiety, tension, frustration or depression resulting from some aspect of their work as a teacher” (Kyriacou, 2001, p. 28). It is a common concept that has been studied in existing research in relation to teacher demotivation. Based on a number of studies on teachers in different contexts, Kyriacou (2001) states that “teaching is one of the high stress professions” (p. 29) in many countries. For instance, in Kyriacou and Chien’s (2004) study of 203 primary teachers in Taiwan, 26% of the teachers reported that being a teacher was “very or extremely stressful” (p. 88). As it has been found, teacher stress often results from factors such as bureaucratic pressure, lack of adequate facilities, low salaries and constant alertness needed in working with children or young adults, teaching pupils who lack motivation, maintaining discipline, coping with change, being evaluated by others, and role conflict and ambiguity (Dörnyei, 2001; Kyriacou, 2001). The high rate of teacher stress not only weakens the intrinsic motivation of teachers (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 167) but also results in a high rate of teacher burn out (Nagel & Brown, 2003, p. 255).

According to Dörnyei, the second source of teacher demotivation is restricted teacher autonomy. Autonomy has been defined as “experiencing oneself as the origin of one’s behavior” (Deci et al., 1997, p. 69; 2008). In the profession of teaching, nationwide standardized tests, national curricular and increasing administration demands often restrict teacher autonomy (Dörnyei, 2001, p.167). In their study involving 254 teachers in Quebec, Canada, Pelletier et al. (2002) reported three kinds of “pressure” that can restrict teacher autonomy: i) teachers’ perception that they are responsible for their students’ behaviors or students’ performing up to standard, ii) teachers’ perception that they have to conform to colleagues’ teaching methods or involvement in school activities, iii) teachers’ perception that they had limited freedom in determining the course curriculum or that they had to cover a specific curriculum determined by school’s administration. They also found that when teacher autonomy is restricted (when they are less self-determined), teachers become more controlling with their students (p. 194). Roth et al. (2007) found evidence for the fact that autonomous motivation of teachers often promotes learner autonomy in classrooms (p. 771).

Insufficient self-efficacy is the third demotivator for many teachers around the world (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 167). Self-efficacy is “teachers’ beliefs in their ability to motivate and promote learning, affect the types of learning environments they create and the level of academic progress their students achieve” (Bandura, 1993, p. 117). One reason why teachers often lack self-efficacy is due to the traditional approach to teacher training which puts more emphasis on subject matter training at the expense of practical skills of teaching needed to manage a classroom (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 168). As a result, teachers’ doubts regarding pedagogical skills along with insufficient content knowledge can cause low teacher efficacy in many contexts (Redmon, 2007, p. 4).

Just like low efficacy, teacher demotivation can also be caused by a lack of intellectual challenge in teaching that some teachers suffer when they teach the same subject or the same level of students for years (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 169). This makes teachers often say that “they are discouraged by work that promises the same responsibilities on the first and last days of their careers” (Johnson, 1986, p. 69). However, one objective of career ladder plans for teachers in many countries is to provide teachers with different responsibilities like administration, curriculum designing, teacher training and material development so that they are motivated by different responsibilities that they are expected to take on during different phases of their careers. But as Dörnyei (2001) reports, such opportunities are also very limited for teachers in comparison to other professionals. This *inadequate career structure* often demotivates teachers because teaching offers a “closed contingent path,” especially for teachers who do not want to join management (p. 169). For such teachers, repetitive classroom procedures can be a monotonous experience.

Despite this, some countries have taken measures to reduce the impact of this situation in different ways. For instance, in Sri Lanka teachers are offered a promotion scheme which allows them to move from grade III (lowest grade in teaching) to grade I (highest grade in teaching) based on their higher studies and experience. Accordingly, they can also apply to be teacher trainers, material writers, national exam evaluators, and so on. However, the major benefit in the scheme is monetary awards. To what extent these monetary awards can motivate teachers has also been debated in literature. Though Spear et al. (2000), Smithers and Robinson (2003), and Addison and Brundrett (2008) identified poor pay as a demotivator for teachers, Michaelowa (2002) claims that with regard to teacher motivation, “the role of salaries does not seem to be as important as many people believe” (p. 18). Even in the study on job satisfaction among American teachers by the National Center for Educational Statistics (1997), “teacher satisfaction showed a weak

relationship with salary and benefits” (p. 9). Instead, “teachers were more satisfied in a supportive, safe and autonomous environment” (p. 32).

B. Teacher Motivation in Developing Countries

In mainstream education, recent studies on teacher motivation are mostly reported from developing countries. For instance, the Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO), Department for International Development (DFID), Global Campaign for Education (GCE), and United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) have conducted a series of comprehensive studies on teacher motivation in many developing countries, especially in South Asia and some parts of Africa. Most of these studies reveal the existence of a crisis in teacher motivation in many developing countries (see specifically, DFID 2007, GCE 2005), which is taken to account for poor quality in education.

For instance, VSO (2002), based on a comprehensive study of teacher motivation in Zambia, Malawi and Papua New Guinea, concludes that “in many developing countries, the teaching force is demoralized and fractured” (VSO, 2002, p. 1). As the report further states, the teaching profession in these countries “is characterized by high attrition rates, constant turn over, lack of confidence and varying levels of professional commitment” (p. 1). Also, GCE (2005), in their review of recent literature on teachers’ issues in developing countries, claim that in those countries, “teacher motivation and morale remain in a chronic state of decline” (GCE, 2005, p. 1). The most recent of the studies, *Teacher Motivation of Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia* by DFID (2007), also confirms the findings of the previous studies, claiming that in developing countries, “most schooling systems are faced with what amounts to a teacher motivation crisis” (DFID, 2007, p. 25). As these studies report, teacher demotivation in these countries is mostly caused by limited opportunities for teacher training and professional development, lack of support from school administration, decline in teacher status in society, poor salaries and incentives, constant changes of school curricular, low teacher efficacy, and poor working and living conditions. These demotivators also result in high levels of teacher absenteeism, teacher transfers between schools, migration of qualified teachers to developed countries, and teachers leaving the profession to take up other jobs (p. 7). I will refer to the findings of these studies in the discussion section.

Among the South Asian countries where teacher motivation has been recognized as undergoing a “crisis,” Sri Lanka has received very little attention from researchers over the last two decades. This is confirmed by the fact that no international journal has reported any studies on teacher motivation in Sri Lanka, during the last ten years. Even in the studies conducted in the region by international organizations (DFID, 2007; GCE, 2005; VSO, 2002), Sri Lanka has not been included. However, there is enough evidence to believe that the decline in teacher motivation, like in many other developing countries, is a significant issue in the Sri Lankan education system too. One source of such evidence comes from a recent World Bank (2006) report which states that in Sri Lanka, “teacher status, motivation and work attitudes have deteriorated over the past few years and the importance of remotivating and improving the attitudes of teachers should be a national priority” (p. 60).

Also, it is clear that Sri Lanka shares many socio-political and economic issues with other countries of the South Asian region. The common issues that all these countries share led them to establish the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) in 1985 to help each other in their common issues. So, if teacher motivation is a crisis in other neighboring countries in South Asia with similar economies, social structures, and education systems, it is likely that it is an issue in Sri Lanka too. However, to identify and understand the real nature of this “crisis” and its impact on the country’s education system, more empirical investigation is needed.

III. THE PRESENT STUDY

In this vein, the purpose of this study was to investigate aspects of teacher motivation/demotivation among English language teachers in Sri Lanka’s public school system, in light of work motivation theories and also considering research methodology from previous teacher motivation studies in different contexts.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were English teachers currently employed in the public school system of Sri Lanka. A convenience sample of five English teachers, three females and two males, took part in qualitative interviews. In age they ranged from 36 to 43 years. All the participants were teachers specially trained at teacher training colleges in the country to teach English as a Second Language (ESL) in public schools. The five interview participants will be referred to in the results and discussion sections by the pseudonyms *Piyal*, *Sajith*, *Malani*, *Nelum* and *Devika*.

The second source of data in the study was a qualitative survey. A convenience sample of 83 teachers who attended a weekend external degree program in Colombo in early 2010 volunteered to participate in the survey. However, only 54 of the 83 volunteers completed and returned their surveys, making the response rate approximately 65%. The majority of the survey participants was female (81.5%). The percentage of males in the sample was 18.5%. The participants ranged from 26 to 56 years old. The mean age reported was 36.55 years. The participants also varied greatly in terms of their teaching experience. The majority of teachers (33) had ten to twenty years of teaching experience. Ten teachers in

the sample had three to five years of teaching experience, and seven teachers had five to ten years of teaching experience. Four participants had more than twenty years of teaching experience.

B. Instruments and Procedure: Interviews

The first source of data in this study was interviews. A total of five interviews were conducted between November 2009 and April 2010. In conducting the interviews, we used a semi-structured interview format taking into account the findings of previous teacher motivation research in different contexts (Connie, 2000; Hayes, 2009; Spear et al., 2000; Wadsworth, 2001; Watt et al., 2008). While the participation in the interviews was completely voluntary, the participants' consent was obtained to audio-record them. During the interviews, the participants were allowed to use either English or Sinhala, their first language. However, all participants used mostly English to share their experiences and opinions.

At the beginning of each interview, the interviewee was requested to provide a brief introduction of him- or herself. This mostly included basic information like age, place of work, years of teaching experience, the number of schools that they have worked at, and the classes that they teach at current schools. After that the interview mostly included open-ended questions to find out what motivates and demotivates the participants in their day-to-day experiences as teachers. In addition, they also described why they became teachers, why they elected to teach English, what a typical working day of a teacher is like, and how they spend time after work and during weekends. The interviewer also occasionally paraphrased and/or summarized the statements by the participants to ensure accuracy. Each interview lasted from 45 to 60 minutes and was also audio-recorded.

C. Qualitative Survey

The survey instrument used for the data collection in this study was developed by the researcher in light of three previous studies on teacher motivation in different settings: Connie (2001), Kitching et al. (2009), and Tiziava (2003). It consisted of three sections. The eight questions of the first section were intended to gather basic demographic data about the informants: age, years of teaching experience, educational qualifications, and so on. The second section consisted of four questions to find out different reasons why the participants entered the teaching profession and chose to teach English. Finally, the third section consisted of two questions to find out what motivates and demotivates the participants when they function as English teachers in public schools: Both sections two and three gathered data through open-ended questions and free writing.

D. Data Analysis: Interviews

The process of data analysis started with the transcription of interviews, yielding 34 pages of transcribed text. At this stage, the researcher also translated into English any remarks that the participants made in their first language. Both the transcription and translation (when needed) of all five interviews were done by the researcher himself over a period of three weeks. In this process, attempts were made to identify possible themes and patterns, because in qualitative research, data analysis is an "iterative process, not a linear process following the collection of data" (Lichtman, 2010, p. 193).

During and after the transcription of the interviews, the researcher used the method of *content analysis* to identify themes and patterns in the interview data. Qualitative content analysis is "an approach of empirical, methodological and controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytic rules and step by step models, without rash quantification" (Mayring, 2000, p. 2, see also Kondraki, Wellman, & Amundson, 2002). Also, it is a method that provides "protocols for efficient analysis of large data sets with textual components" (Sonpar & Golden-Dibble, 2007, p. 800).

This study adopted the method of deductive qualitative content analysis. As it has been elaborated in the literature review, many studies on teacher motivation have been reported from both developed and developing countries during the last two decades. Even though teacher motivation remains an overlooked area of research in Sri Lanka, it was assumed that the research findings on the construct in similar settings could guide the coding process of the interview data of this study: "deductive content analysis is often used in cases where the researcher wishes to retest existing data in a new context" (Elo & Kyngas, 2007, p. 111). Hence, based on the results of the previous teacher motivation studies by Crooks (1997), Connie (2001), Tiziava (2003), Adelabu (2005), Bennell et al. (2005), Ramachandran et al. (2007), and Kitching et al. (2009), the researcher developed a list of ten codes to analyze the interview data. Table 1 shows the codes and their definitions.

TABLE 1
CODE NAMES AND DEFINITIONS

Code	Definitions
Students	student performance and behavior
School administration	issues related to principal or other administrative staff
Curriculum & pedagogy	issues related to curriculum and teaching methods
Parental involvement	availability, quality and content of materials
Teacher autonomy	teacher freedom to make decisions in teaching
Professional development	issues related to teacher education and training
Colleagues	issues related to coworkers
Work conditions	facilities, class size, and school location
Teacher pay and workload	salary, incentives, teacher responsibilities
Textbooks and teaching materials	parents' help and interest in children's education

Existing literature on teacher motivation provides evidence that teacher motivation is commonly related to these codes. Thus, these were used as initial codes to identify the themes in the interview data. During this stage, the researcher's focus was to find out whether the interview data contained any evidence for the existing codes. Whenever any evidence was found, the researcher assigned a code from the list. The process was repeated several times to ensure accuracy. After that, all the transcripts were read carefully once again to make sure that all points are coded. Any concepts that could not be coded at this stage were identified and marked separately. If they did not represent a category already existing, a new code was assigned. The rationale behind doing so was that there could be new codes and themes emerging from the data itself which could be either specific to the Sri Lankan context or ESL or EFL teachers. Thus, the following new codes were inductively derived from the interview data of this study:

TABLE 2
CODE NAMES AND DEFINITIONS

Code	Definitions
Students' attitudes towards English	how students perceive English and ESL teachers
Social status of English teachers	the way English teachers are perceived by others

Therefore, a total of 12 codes was used for data analysis. Once the initial coding was completed, the researcher started organizing those codes into related categories. At this stage, some codes were identified as major topics, while several others were organized under a few major topics (Lichtman, 2010, p. 199). The process was repeated several times to do away with any redundancies on the list, as well as to ensure that any significant topics related to teacher motivation are not neglected. This process yielded five major topics or themes as related to teacher motivation: *students, teaching, administration, professional development* and *social & contextual influences*. These themes are elaborated on in the results section.

E. Survey

In analyzing the general results from the 54 surveys, the researcher used a quantitative (frequency) analysis. In addition, the questions of the survey about common teacher motivators and demotivators were analyzed through the method of inductive content analysis. In analyzing these questions (two questions in the survey), the researcher identified 16 codes with regard to motivators and 23 codes with regard to demotivators. Later those codes were categorized under three major topics: *students, teaching, and administration*. A number of other miscellaneous codes which could not be included in any of these three categories were listed under a separate category called *other*.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Teacher Motivation

This study revealed a variety of factors that motivate and demotivate Sri Lankan English teachers in public schools. To begin with, the study revealed three common motivators for teachers: students, teaching, and the position of English in the country which gives teachers high social prestige. In the survey results, the most common category of motivators for the participants was related to students: students' performance and success, being with students, student motivation, students' recognition and appreciation of teachers, and students' positive attitude towards English. The following graph (Figure 1) provides a detailed view of survey participants' responses in this regard:

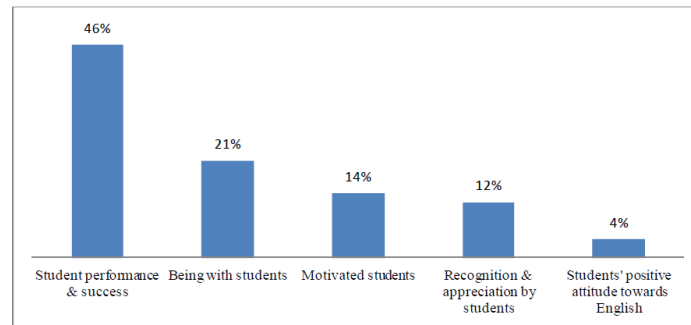


Figure 1- Students as a motivator

Out of the 73 motivators reported in the survey, 56% of them were related to one of the above-mentioned aspects involving students. This implies that these participants, like many other teachers in the world, mostly derive their motivation in the job from their students. The interview data also strongly supported the above findings when all five participants recognized students as their main source of motivation. For instance, Piyal and Sajith recognized students' performance as the most satisfying aspect of teaching. Nelum and Devika also supported this finding in their interview answers. However, Malani stated that she also derives motivation from students' admiration of her teaching. This was also found in some of the survey data.

The second most common motivator for the teachers in the study was the act of teaching. In the survey, it accounted for 17% of all motivators reported by the participants. This had confirmation in the interview data when the participants revealed how the act of teaching leads to their satisfaction in the job. For instance, Piyal said:

I am personally happy because when we teach students they learn something. They become knowledgeable and they become good people.[...] Students' performance is the only satisfaction that we can have.

The finding of this study that participants in the survey as well as in interviews mostly derive their motivation from their students and the act of teaching has strong echoes in teacher motivation research in many other contexts too. For instance, in their study of teachers in Australia, New Zealand, and England, Dinham and Scott (2000) reported that most of the teachers in their study were motivated by "matters intrinsic to the role of teaching" (p. 390). This was also confirmed by Wadsworth's (2001) study of public and private school teachers in the USA, Tiziava's (2003) study of EFL teachers in Greece, and Addison et al's. (2008) study of primary teachers in England. Teacher motivation research by VSO (2002), GCE (2005), and DFID (2007) found this as a common feature in developing countries too. Thus, the results of this study affirm a common finding in teacher motivation research around the world: regardless of the context in which they teach, most teachers in the world derive their motivation from their students and teaching.

However, this study also revealed one additional factor that motivates English teachers in Sri Lanka: the position of English in the country. As the study revealed, the position of English in the country gives a prestigious social position for English teachers in Sri Lanka. For instance, Malani, who has been an English teacher for thirteen years, mentioned in her interview that English teachers receive a special treatment in society which makes her feel proud of herself. In Malani's view, the respect that English teachers receive in society places them in a demanding position even when it comes to marriage: "Even in marriages, it matters. People prefer to marry English teachers because of the social status, because of English." The fact that English teachers receive more respect and prestige in Sri Lankan society than other teachers frequently emerged in other interviews too. A few participants in the survey had also written statements like "English teachers are the most recognized group among teachers," "An English teacher gets more social recognition than any other teacher," and "English teachers have a better place in society."

Nelum, in her interview, accounting for the reason for this position of English teachers in the country, said: "English [has] a social prestige. People who can speak it are seen differently in society." Many research studies on the position of English in Sri Lanka have also found enough evidence for Nelum's statement above. As Fernando (1997) elaborates in her study of *English and Sinhala Bilingualism in Sri Lanka*, English, ever since it was brought to the country by the British, has always been associated with social prestige in Sri Lankan society. As a result, its speakers have always received higher social recognition and advantages in the country, especially when it comes to employment. As she further says, "English still has a grudgingly recognized but decided social, cultural and economic value" in Sri Lanka (p. 348). In a recent study, quoting a former Minister of Education in Sri Lanka, Gunesekara (2005) writes:

In the case of social disparity, the real gulf in Sri Lankan society is not based on religion, ethnicity, money or caste: it is based on language. The gap between those who know English and those who don't know English denotes the gap between the haves and the have nots. (p. 34)

Because of this position of English in the country, it is quite natural that English teachers receive more respect and prestige than other teachers in Sri Lankan society. This seems to motivate them very much. Despite this, what Sajith revealed in his interview about the position of teachers in the country also deserves significant attention. In his view, there is a gradual decline in teacher status in the country: "Compared to the past, we don't have a proper place today." Here, he mostly talked about the declining status for teachers in general, which is also a common theme in teacher motivation research in developing countries. For instance, DFID (2007), in their study of teachers in Sub-Saharan

Africa and South Asia, identifies declining teacher status as a feature of the teaching profession in the developing world. VSO (2002) found the same trend in Zambia, Malawi and Papua New Guinea : “Teachers in all three case study countries reported feeling that the community did not value them as they had done in the past” (p. 36). As mentioned in the introduction, a recent World Bank report (2006) commented on the declining teacher status as a major issue in Sri Lanka too. However, the results of the study show a different trend with regard to the English teachers in public schools. Despite the declining status in the country for teachers in general, English teachers still receive high social recognition in Sri Lanka mainly because of the position of English in the country.

B. Teacher Demotivation

Even though a great deal of research suggests that teachers in many contexts derive motivation from intrinsic rewards of teaching, there are a large “number of detrimental factors that systematically undermine and erode the intrinsic character of teacher motivation (Dörnyei, 2000, p. 165). Dinham and Scott (2000) in their study of teachers in Australia reported that teacher demotivation is mainly caused by “matters extrinsic to the task of teaching” (p. 364). This also has echoes in many other studies, especially in the developing countries. Some of these studies include Adelabu (2005) in Nigeria, Bennell et al. (2005) in Tanzania, Khan (2005) in Pakistan, and Ramachandran et al. (2005) in India. In keeping with such findings, most participants of this study also reported many practical issues in teaching (mostly caused by limited facilities) and some issues with the administration as their main sources of demotivation.

Out of 78 demotivators reported by the teachers in the survey, 40 (51%) of them were related to practical issues in teaching. The most frequent demotivators related to teaching included limited facilities for teaching and learning in schools, overcrowded classes, textbooks that do not match student proficiency and issues in teaching methodology. The following graph shows the common demotivators that teachers had recorded in relation to teaching.

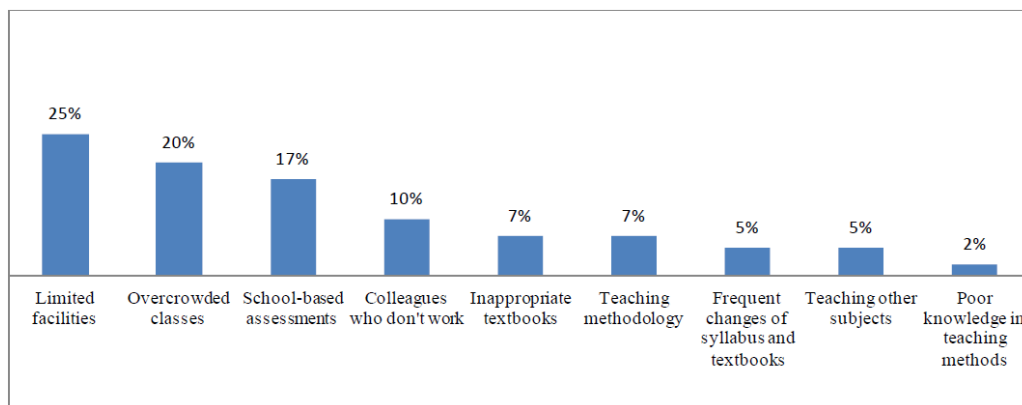


Figure 2- Demotivators related to teaching

Among these, limited facilities for teaching and learning in schools also frequently emerged as a theme in the interview data. All five participants identified limited facilities at schools as a factor that impinges on their work motivation. As Nelum revealed in her interview, what a teacher can do at school is often limited due to the inadequate facilities in classrooms. For instance, she mentioned that ESL teachers cannot teach listening because of the lack of cassette players in some schools. Meanwhile Devika, describing her first experience as a teacher in a remote school, explained how disappointed she was with the facilities of the school. She compared her first school to “a small dilapidated hut in a tea state.” Piyal also expressed his disappointment with regard to the facilities in schools, even to the point of not having place for teachers to prepare their lessons.

It was obvious from both survey and interview data that limited facilities in schools along with overcrowded classes mostly demotivate teachers in Sri Lankan schools. This, as most studies reveal, is a common factor that affects teachers in developing countries. For instance, the studies by VSO (2002), GCE (2005), and DFID (2007) frequently found this as a demotivator for teachers in their case study countries. This is reportedly worse in remote schools in many countries. Even in this study, teachers’ reluctance to work in rural schools implies that the situation in Sri Lanka is not far different from the rest of the developing countries.

Even though the survey participants identified writing school-based assessment as a demotivator for them, this was not supported by any of the interview participants. However, writing and conducting school-based assessment is a new responsibility given to ESL teachers with recent education reforms. Under these reforms teachers are expected to conduct several assessments per year, which could be time-consuming, mainly because of the overcrowded classes in many schools: “It takes a lot of time and there is no time to get ready for next day lessons.”

The other most common category of demotivators reported in the survey was issues related to education administration in the country, which was mentioned in 26% of the answers, in contrast to 51% of issues related to teaching. The common themes that emerged in the survey in this regard were limited support from school administration, responsibilities related to extra-curricular activities and the inefficiency in the zonal education offices (an office in charge of the administration of an education zone consisting of several schools) in the country.

These themes were also frequently supported by the interview participants. For instance, Devika, while commenting on the support that teachers receive from school administration, used the words “corrupted” and “politicized” to describe it. Piyal indicated his frustration with school administration and admitted that many teachers are critical of the system. Meanwhile, others stated that some principals do not have a positive attitude towards English and do not sufficiently help English teachers perform their duties. Many survey participants had also reported similar responses regarding school administration. For instance, one respondent wrote “most of the time administration tends to provide [fewer] facilities to [the] teaching-learning process. Even the resources, computer lab, library are not allowed to be used whenever students need them. They always try to confine language teaching to classroom.”

In addition to the school administration, the participants also made several comments about zonal education offices which are responsible for many administration matters concerning teachers in the country including their salary, incentives and leave. As mostly revealed by the interview data, the inefficiency of the zonal offices often demotivates teachers. For instance, Malani stated that the inefficiency of zonal offices is so frustrating that she even “feels like giving up teaching.” Devika also made a similar comment when she said, “There are some officers in Zonal education offices. They are not functioning well. Actually it is hard to get a job done. We have to go several times.” Nelum stated in her interview that she had to go to the zonal office 13 times to get her overseas leave approved. These responses of the participants imply how demotivating the inefficiency of zonal offices could be for teachers who mostly rely on those offices for many services. However, the unhappiness of the teachers with school administration and regional offices in this study is also a common finding in many other developing countries. For instance, Ramachandran et al. (2005) report it as one of the seven major issues related to teacher demotivation in India. VSO (2002), in their study of teachers in three African countries, also found teacher grievances to be mostly associated with services that they receive from administration like salaries and allowances. DFID (2007) confirmed this finding in their study in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. As they report, the majority of teachers in all twelve countries had expressed their displeasure over school administration (p. 10).

Even though most findings of this study were often consistent with the results of teacher motivation research in other developing countries, the survey results on teachers’ pay produced a significantly different finding. According to many teacher motivation studies in the developing countries, one main demotivator for teachers is poor salaries and incentives (DFID, 2000; VSO, 2002). But in our survey, the majority of the participants did not identify salary as a demotivator for them. Only two participants identified salary as a demotivator (3.7%). Interestingly, two participants had also identified the salary that they currently receive as a motivator for them. But the interview data yielded contradictory evidence when four participants commented on salary as a demotivator for them. For instance, Devika, being asked what demotivates her most in the teaching profession, said, “Salary. The salary is insufficient.” Sajith also saw poor teacher pay as a demotivator for a new teacher to join teaching. Malani stated that teachers receive a very small salary compared to a worker in the private sector of the country: “Actually it is not enough. When we compare it with a private sector worker, we feel disappointed with what we are getting.”

Despite this data from the interviews, the fact that many teachers in the survey did not identify salary as a demotivator for them also deserves significant attention. Though this does not resemble the findings of many other developing countries with regard to teacher pay (DFID, 2007; VSO, 2002), the study by Ramachandran et al., (2005), in India also reported a similar finding about teacher salaries. In their sample, “nearly all the teachers were happy with their salaries” (p. 13). Meanwhile, it has also been found in some teacher motivation research that salary does not have a huge impact on the motivation of teachers (Michaelowa, 2002). As she says, “the role of salaries does not seem to be as important as many people believe” (p. 18). Even though poor teacher salary emerged as a theme in four interviews of this study, it was obvious that two of the participants talked about it only when the interviewer asked whether salary had an impact on their motivation. Otherwise, they mostly talked about other factors as their motivators and demotivators. These results of the study imply that teacher pay as a demotivator is not as strong as other common demotivators for Sri Lankan ESL teachers. This could be mainly because, as Nelum pointed out in her interview, teachers in public schools receive a reasonable salary in Sri Lanka: “I think we are getting a reasonable salary.” The average salary of a public school teacher in the country roughly equals the salary of other employees in the public sector: a policeman, nurse, or clerk.

As many participants revealed in the interviews, several issues related to the English curriculum in public schools also demotivate ESL teachers in the country. A common consensus among the interview participants was that the current national curriculum on English does not match the proficiency level of the students, especially in rural schools. Apparently, this often makes teaching English in remote schools a difficult task for teachers. This difficulty also causes teacher demotivation. Nelum, sharing her experience in teaching English at a remote school, explained that she had to teach very basic English even in grade five when she was expected to teach a standard textbook. Sajith added that English teachers in remote schools have to spend extra time simplifying textbooks which do not match students’ proficiency levels. Devika also admitted that the English curriculum, though interesting, is “really tough” for students in remote schools.

This mismatch between the curriculum expectations and the students’ English proficiency, as some participants revealed in their interviews, is aggravated by the passive responses of students in classroom. Three of the interview participants also identified students’ lack of interest in their studies and their negative attitude towards English as

demotivators for them. Piyal, for instance, stated that it is difficult to make some students realize the value of learning English: "Some students do not care." Sajith also has noticed a lack of interest in his students in remote schools for English, which for him is demotivating. According to Piyal, students' lack of interest in English can be frustrating and annoying for an English teacher, especially when students do not do homework.

Even in the survey, 14% of the demotivators recorded by the participants were related to students' lack of motivation, limited proficiency in English, and their negative attitude towards English. But Devika and Malani's experiences with their students produced contradictory evidence to the above data in the interviews as well as the survey. Malani among them had observed a positive attitude towards English among her students: "Students like English, even in the rural areas." Devika, who had also seen a positive attitude in her students, believes that the teacher is a strong determinant of learner motivation: "A child is really motivated by a teacher, especially in things like English." However, studies in other contexts have also recorded student disinterest in studies as a demotivator for teachers. For instance, Addison and Brundrett (2008) in their study of primary teachers in England found "children behaving badly or showing lack of interest" as the most common demotivator for the teachers (p. 86). This is not surprising because most teachers reportedly derive their motivation from their students and the act of teaching. If students do not show a positive attitude towards the subject that they learn or are not motivated enough, it is quite natural that teachers get demotivated.

Even though both interview and survey results revealed several issues related to the curriculum and student disinterest in studies as demotivators for teachers, most of the interview participants are motivated by the fact they have the freedom to select teaching methods according to their students' proficiency. Piyal in the interview revealed this, saying, "We have to use our own methods because of the standard of students, needs of students. We have the liberty to use our methods." Because of this "liberty," the participants were found to use their preferred methods for teaching English in classrooms. For instance, while Sajith uses an eclectic method for teaching, Devika even uses students' L1 when they have difficulty in understanding. Malani also appreciates the fact that she can use her own methods of teaching: "I have the freedom. While keeping with the curriculum, I can teach the way I want." These responses of the participants imply that they are motivated by the freedom that they enjoy to select their own teaching methods.

However, the freedom that the participants of this study recognized as a motivator for them is not experienced by many teachers in other contexts. This is obvious from the fact that many studies on teacher motivation in different contexts reveal restricted teacher autonomy as a common inhibitor of teachers' motivation (Dörnyei; 2001). As Pelletier et al. (2002) report in their study of teachers in Canada, three kinds of pressures in teaching can restrict teacher autonomy: teachers' perception that they are responsible for their students' behaviors or students' performing up to standard, teachers' perception that they have to conform to colleagues' teaching methods or involvement in school activities, and teachers' perception that they had limited freedom in determining the course curriculum or that they had to cover a specific curriculum determined by school's administration (p. 193).

Even though the interview participants in this study stated that they have freedom to use their preferred methods of teaching, apparently they also suffer from restricted teacher autonomy when they are expected to teach a national curriculum and textbook designed by the NIE (National Institute of Education). As it was also stated earlier, teaching this curriculum and textbook in remote schools is a difficult task because of students' limited proficiency in English. The pressure that a teacher feels in such a scenario is implied when Devika says: "Anyway we have to follow the syllabus. That's the greatest burden. Students get nothing. Students get nothing. But we have to rush through the syllabus." Hence, the participants' freedom to select their methods of teaching does not imply that they have immense autonomy in teaching in public schools. Rather their use of different methods to teach English mostly implies teachers' desperate attempts to reach their students somehow or other when the curriculum and textbooks do not match students' proficiency levels in English.

Three other common demotivators revealed in the study were poor relationships between colleagues, the lack of parental involvement in student education, and limited opportunities for professional development that the English teachers have in the country. Four participants in the interviews talked about the poor relationship between colleagues as a demotivator for them. For instance, Piyal stated in his interview that there is not a "good rapport" even between teachers who teach the same subject in schools. Meanwhile, Devika commented on the lack of teamwork by English teachers in schools as a demotivating factor for her. This was also echoed by Sajith and Nelum in their interviews. However, this finding in the interview data was not strongly supported by the data in the survey because only four participants had reported "colleagues who don't work hard" as a demotivator for them. Similar to this, the lack of parental involvement in students' education was also not identified by the survey participants as a demotivator for them. But in the interview data it emerged as a frequent subtheme. As the participants revealed, parents' involvement in students' education motivates teachers, while their non-participation demotivates them. As Piyal and Nelum have observed, parents' support in students' education is very limited in rural schools. This is also supported by Nelum's statement that parents "do not know what's happening in school." This, according to Nelum, is mostly because of parents' limited education. Malani and Piyal have observed the same trend in urban schools too. As Malani stated, parents' involvement "decreases" by the time students go to upper grades. Finally, with regard to the theme of professional development for English teachers in the country, the participants expressed contrasting views. While Sajith, Piyal, Malani and Nelum identified available opportunities for professional development as a motivator for them, while

Devika and many survey participants stated that the unavailability of enough opportunities in the country demotivates them.

VI. CONCLUSION

The results of this study mostly support the findings of previous studies on teacher motivation in both developed and developing countries. As in many other contexts, the participants of this study also derive their intrinsic motivation mainly from students and teaching. However, this study revealed that a significant number of teachers are also motivated by the position of English in the country which earns them a prestigious position in society. The significance of this finding mainly lies in the fact that most teacher motivation studies in developing countries and some studies in developed countries instead indicate declining teacher status in society as a demotivator for teachers. Meanwhile, considering the results of our study, the main demotivators for English teachers in Sri Lankan public schools include limited facilities for teaching and learning, inefficiency in school administration and regional offices, difficulty in obtaining teacher transfers, poor relationships between colleagues, the mismatch between student proficiency and English curriculum in schools, and limited parental involvement in students' education. Our results also suggest that some motivators like the prestigious social position for English teachers in the country encourage new teachers to join the profession, while some demotivators like difficulties in obtaining transfers make teachers want to leave the profession sometime after joining it.

In conclusion, the findings of the study imply that teacher demotivation is a significant issue in the country's public school system which needs the immediate attention of the education policy designers of the country. The failure to take immediate action may further increase teacher dissatisfaction in the job, which could eventually result in poor education outcomes for students in public schools.

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Non-native EFL Teacher Trainees' Attitude towards the Recruitment of NESTs and Teacher Collaboration in Language Classrooms

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Abstract—Teacher collaboration is a key feature of effective professional development and is a necessary element for improved student achievement and ongoing school success. This study investigated pre-service Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs)' attitude towards the recruitment of Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs) and the collaboration with NESTs in EFL classrooms. The results show that most participants are not against the presence of NESTs as their teaching partners, but see qualification as the key criterion in recruiting NESTs. Even though the participants believe that team teaching with NESTs is beneficial to English learners, they are concerned about unequal partnerships and communication problems with NESTs. The results suggest that teacher educators need to take greater responsibilities to engage pre-service teachers in team teaching to support pre-service teachers' professional lives.

Index Terms—teacher collaboration, team teaching, professional development, English teacher education

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers' attitude is an important concept in understanding teachers' thought processes, foreseeing teachers' classroom practices, and planning teacher education programs (Richardson, 1996). It also strongly determines the way teachers teach, the way they develop as teachers and their reaction to educational changes (Beijaard *et al.*, 2004). In particular, for pre-service teachers, initial teacher training is an important time for them to begin to construct a teacher image and identity that would support and sustain them in their future profession (Timostsuk & Ugaste, 2010). Focusing on pre-service NNESTs' attitude toward team teaching with NESTs, this study investigated pre-service NNESTs' (1) response to the government's NESTs-hiring policy, (2) belief about the benefits of team teaching with NESTs, and (3) concerns about team teaching with NESTs. The findings to the proposed questions should provide a better understanding about pre-service NNESTs' attitude towards collaboration with NESTs. Since teacher collaboration plays a significant role in teacher professional development, student achievement and school success, the paper will be of particular interest to English teacher educators and policymakers in countries where NESTs-NNESTs team teaching is implemented.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In the past decade, researchers have reviewed professional development for teachers and reported consensus in their summary of key features for effective professional development (Crawford *et al.*, 2008; Desimone, 2009; Wayne *et al.*, 2008). These key features include: content focus, coherence, duration, active learning, and collective participation. Professional development that is ongoing, subject-specific, and collaborative allows teachers to practice their new skills and provide a mechanism to debrief and gather new information (Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010; Servage, 2008). Collaborative practice is regarded as central to professional development because teachers learn most effectively when learning is collaborative and collegial (Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009). Teacher collaboration is a "powerful format of teacher learning" (Desimone, 2009, p.184). It provides further opportunities for teachers to establish networks of relationships through which they may reflectively share their practices, revisit beliefs on teaching and learning and co-construct knowledge (Achinstein, 2002; Chan & Pang, 2006; Clement & Vandenberghe, 2000). Teacher collaboration is thus regarded as a necessary element for effective teaching practice, improved student achievement and ongoing school success (DelliCarpini, 2008; Guiney, 2001).

Since teacher collaboration is regarded as necessary for teacher learning and student achievement, an important matter to consider is how collaborative efforts are presented and implemented. Historically, collaborative approaches are presented through co-teaching. Cook and Friend (1995) define co-teaching as having four components, including two educators working together, instruction delivery by both teachers, a heterogeneous group of students, and a single classroom. These components are incorporated into several co-teaching models that have been developed, including team teaching (Hang & Rabren, 2009). Team teaching can be described as a practice in which two or more teachers cooperatively plan, instruct, and evaluate one or more groups in an appropriate instructional space and given length of time, so as to take advantage of the unique competencies of the team members (Buckley, 2000; Friend & Cook, 2010).

As representative forms of collaborative approaches, co-teaching and team teaching are akin to natural allies, providing support to teachers and students.

Research on teacher collaboration in English Language Teaching (ELT) has been carried out in international contexts (e.g., Arkoudis, 2003, 2006; Creese, 2005, 2006; Davison, 2006; Gardner, 2006; York-Barr *et al.*, 2007), and one central argument in the discussion of teacher collaboration in ELT is the belief that the collaboration between native English speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) might make a unique contribution to English language education. This belief has been shown in a number of projects carried out around the world, in particular in some well-known programs in certain relatively wealthy Asian Pacific countries, such as the JET Program (Japan Exchange and Teaching Program) in Japan, the EPIK (English Program in Korea) in Korea, the NET Scheme (Native-speaking English Teacher Scheme) in Hong Kong (China), and the FETRP (Foreign English Teachers Recruitment Program) in Taiwan. These programs have become part of the central governments' language education policies in these countries. The majority of the NESTs recruited via these programs are expected to conduct team teaching with local English teachers at public primary and secondary schools.

In the NESTs-NNESTs context, the idea that a NEST and a NNEST should work together by building on each other's strengths is based on the assumption that some roles may be better taken on by the NEST rather than the NNEST, and vice versa (Tajino & Tajino, 2000). Given that an ideal English language teaching environment is one in which NESTs and NNESTs can complement each other in maximizing their strengths and minimizing their weaknesses, it seems that the concept of team teaching can successfully build an ideal ELT environment for learners (Medgyes, 1992). Nevertheless, regardless of the benefits team teaching can bring to English learners and local NNESTs (e.g., Buckley, 2000; Carless, 2002, 2006; Carless & Walker, 2006), literature looking into the administration of NESTs-NNESTs team teaching suggest that this collaborative teaching model has significant impact on local NNESTs. First of all, the presence of NESTs is often perceived as a threat by local English teachers, which eventually results in an unwelcoming atmosphere among non-native English teachers towards the government-hired NESTs (Boyle, 1997; Lung, 1999; Niederhauser, 1995). In addition, team teaching with NESTs often makes local English teachers doubt their own English competence. Many local non-native English teachers are reluctant to engage in team teaching with NESTs because they feel uneasy about their competence in English (Browne & Wada, 1998; Carless, 2004; Reiko & Lee, 2001). Furthermore, team teaching creates an imbalance of power in the relationship between NESTs and local English teachers (Carless, 2002; Fujimoto-Adamson, 2010; Kumabe, 1996; Mahoney, 2004; McConnell, 2000). Lastly, the administration of team teaching often puts local English teachers through a series of struggle about conflicting teaching objectives (Carless, 2004, 2006).

NESTs-NNESTs team teaching has drawn extensive discussion. However, nearly all of the studies focused on in-service NNESTs. There is little understanding about pre-service NNESTs' attitude towards collaborating with NESTs. To find out how pre-service NNESTs' view their professional roles and revamp teacher training education, there is a need to understand these teachers' attitude towards collaborating with NESTs. In addition, most studies were conducted in the JET Program, the EPIK and the NET Scheme contexts, three relatively larger, well-documented and longstanding programs. To present a panoramic picture of NESTs-NNESTs team teaching in ELT classrooms, this study targeted the FETRP, a smaller and more recent NESTs-hiring program launched by the Taiwanese government less than a decade ago.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were recruited from the English language departments at 2 normal universities and 3 universities of education located in northern, central, and eastern Taiwan in the spring and summer of 2007. Since these universities are the major sources of public primary and secondary English teachers in Taiwan, students enrolled in these universities are committed and expected to become prospective elementary and secondary school English teachers in Taiwan. All the participating universities had NESTs as teaching staff at the time this study was conducted. In Taiwan, the frequency and accessibility of contact with NESTs vary significantly, greatly depending on the areas in which the institutions are located. In addition, the entrance requirements of and the courses offered by the English departments in different normal universities and universities of education vary from one to another. Choosing participants from different institutions located in different areas instead of single, specific university might help reduce any effect caused by geography and premises. The participants were selected according to three criteria. First, the participants must be Taiwanese English teacher trainees who are enrolled in the English departments of normal universities or universities of education in Taiwan. Second, the participants must have completed at least two years of their training programs because students who have undergone at least two years training programs should be more suitable to provide the information this study is targeting as compared to pre-service teachers who have just began the training program. Third, the participants must have had the experience of being taught by NESTs in their history of learning English so that they can understand and respond to the NEST-NNESTs issues concerned in this study.

Out of 270 copies of the closed-ended questionnaire distributed in the first phase of data collection, 260 surveys were returned, yielding a response rate of 96.3%. The high return rate is a strong indication that the sample represents the target community. Of the 260 questionnaires, 2 were deemed invalid due to the failure of completing a half of the

questions applied to the questionnaire. Out of the final 258 respondents, 128 (49.6%) of the respondents are pre-service secondary English teachers, and 130 (50.4%) are pre-service elementary English teachers. The even distribution in the number of the respondents preparing to become secondary and elementary English teachers provides a balance of perspectives held by these two groups of pre-service teachers. In line with the demography of pre-service English teachers in Taiwan, of which about 90% of the student teachers are female, 219 (84.9%) of the respondents in this study are female and 39 (15.1%) are male. At the end of the questionnaire, there is a question seeking the participants' willingness to take part in a subsequent interview. Participants who showed interest in taking part in the interview were asked to leave their names and contact number and/or email address on the questionnaire. Participants who completed the questionnaires and agreed to contribute further data were considered as potential interview participants for data collection in the second phase. In order to reduce any effects resulting from geography, the author eventually recruited 35 pre-service English teachers as interview participants, including 9 male and 26 female from 5 different universities located in 4 different counties in Taiwan.

B. Data Collection and Analysis

Data collection was divided into two phases. In the first phase of data collection where the close-ended questionnaire is used, four documents including: (1) an inquiry letter (written in English) addressing the purpose of conducting this study; (2) a plain language statement (written in both English and Mandarin); (3) a copy of the questionnaire and interview questions (written in English); and (4) an institutional consent form (written in English) were first sent to the authorities of the concerned departments of the institutions to seek permission to conduct this study. At the meetings with the students, the author gave an oral introduction of the purpose of this study, distributed the consent forms to the students, and answered the queries raised by the students. The participating students were asked to fill out and return the questionnaires on the spot. In the second phase, individual interviews were used to collect data from the participants. The arrangement of the interviews, such as time, location and methods, was mutually discussed and agreed upon by the author and interview participants. More than two-thirds of the interviews were conducted in a face-to-face setting using the seminar rooms in the departments to which the students belonged. Others were conducted through telephone mainly because the participants thought it was more convenient for them. All the interviews were conducted in Mandarin on the assumption that the participants would be able to express their feelings and perspectives more clearly through the use of their mother tongue. All the interviews were audio-taped for transcription purposes. For data processing and analysis, a codebook was assembled to carry out the data coding of the completed questionnaires for computer analysis, including the coding frames (e.g., question items and their responding values and labels) and coding instructions regarding valid and missing data. Statistical analyses such as calculating the means and standard deviations were conducted. As to the qualitative data, since the interviews were conducted in Mandarin and audio-recorded, the content of the interviews were transcribed by the author in Mandarin first. Then the transcription was analyzed using the NVivo 7 computer program. The author first established the major themes according to the topics of the interviews. After that, the author identified the relevant content in the transcription and categorized them into these themes. Information regarding the issues of this study were identified and translated into English for the purpose of reporting.

IV. FINDINGS

A. Response to the NESTs-hiring Policy

Regarding the government's NESTs-hiring policy, most participants are not against the recruitment, but see qualification as the key criterion in recruiting NESTs. The vast majority (88.0%) of the participants either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the idea that the Taiwanese government should hire NESTs to teach English at schools even if they have no teaching certificates, while only 5.4% either agreed or strongly agreed (Item 1, Table 1). In the interviews, many participants talked about qualification as the prerequisite in the NESTs recruitment policy from the perspective of fairness (Theme 1, Table 2). Edward and Fiona, for example, argue that the NESTs they may engage in team teaching with must be qualified teachers because local Taiwanese English teachers are qualified English teachers. The criteria used to recruit local English teachers must be applied to the recruitment of NESTs:

Edward: The NEST with whom I team teaching must be a qualified teacher. It is unfair if I am a qualified teacher and the NEST is an unqualified teacher... We [Taiwanese English teacher trainees] now have to be certificated teachers in order to become public school teachers. Nowadays the certificate is a piece of evidence proving you are a good teacher, and the same criterion should be applied to those NESTs.

Fiona: I think it is very important that the NEST I might cooperate with is a qualified teacher. We [Taiwanese English teacher trainees] ourselves are qualified teachers. It doesn't make sense to allow NESTs who have not teaching certificates to come to Taiwan and teach with us just because they can speak English.

Some other participants see NESTs' qualification as necessary because they think unqualified NESTs will not benefit students (Theme 2, Table 2). They believe that team teaching with qualified NESTs would not only save them considerable time in communicating with NESTs, but also improve the result of team teaching. The following quotes are representative of this perspective:

Wendy: I think there might be many communication problems between NESTs and me if they are uncertified teachers or have no idea about English teaching. They might not know anything about this field and might plan the

classes carelessly. If we can't communicate effectively or cooperate well, students might feel confused and don't know where to follow.

Kate: I would care whether the NEST I cooperate with is a qualified teacher or not. I might have to spend a lot of time on communicating with the NEST if he/she is an unqualified teacher. If the NEST is qualified, I might not have to spend that much time on communication, and the quality of communication would be better. A qualified NEST definitely knows how to teach, and I also know how to teach. It would be beneficial to students if we can combine what the NEST learns in his/her home country and what I learn in Taiwan, and apply it to the team teaching class.

B. Belief about the Benefits of Team Teaching with NESTs

The survey shows that the majority of the participants (73.6%) believe that it is beneficial to English learners if Taiwanese English teachers teach English together with NESTs in the classrooms, while 10.1% against the benefits of team teaching on students' learning (Item 2, Table 1). In discussing the benefits of team teaching with NESTs, Dorothy mentioned that *'I think team teaching is beneficial to students. NESTs can complement our [Taiwanese English teachers'] weaknesses and we can complement theirs'*. Another participant Andy also said that *'NESTs and Taiwanese English teachers have their respective advantages and disadvantages. They can complement each other, which is a good thing to students'*. The perspective is shared by a great number of participants (Theme 3, Table 2). Some participants further pointed out that the most significant advantage that NESTs could bring to the team teaching classes is their strength in phonology:

Bruce: I think it is definitely beneficial to students if Taiwanese English teachers teach English together with NESTs. After all, our [Taiwanese English teachers'] accent is different from that of NESTs. So I think it would be a good idea to have NESTs.

Christine: I think it [team teaching with NESTs] is beneficial to students. I personally think it is not easy for Taiwanese people to learn a foreign language. After all, English is their [NESTs'] mother tongue, not ours. Students would find there are so many things they can learn if they have a chance to see how NESTs pronounce or how NESTs use specific words.

In addition to the respective strength that both kinds of teachers can offer to students, a number of the participants are interested in the atmosphere and environment that team teaching creates for students and the new learning experience team teaching brings to students (Theme 4, Table 2). Petty mentioned that *'I think it's beneficial to students because we [Taiwanese English teachers and NESTs] will create an English environment. The environment will encourage students to express themselves in English. And I think that's pretty helpful to them'*. Many participants are also convinced that the presence of NESTs together with Taiwanese English teachers can bring students a 'whole-new' learning experience:

Kevin: The model [team teaching] is new to students and can motivate students to learn the language. They will find learning English is not only for exams but also for communication. In the short term, learning English is for exams. But in the long term, the purpose of learning English is to communicate with foreigners. Team teaching is a great help to students. English classes are no longer just exams, exams, and exams.

Helen: I think team teaching provides students with different learning experience. Two teachers working together can definitely offer students something exciting and special. Students may thus learn something different.

In addition to the benefits of team teaching to students' learning, many participants believe that team teaching with NESTs is beneficial to their professional development (Theme 5, Table 2). As English teachers, they believe that they can get more chances to improve their teaching by team teaching with NESTs:

Laura: I can fix up my weakness in teaching skills by watching the way NESTs teach. I can also improve my English proficiency by communicating with NESTs. And NESTs may learn grammar concepts which confuse them from me. I think this [team teaching with NESTs] is pretty good.

Christine: I would like to take a look at their [NESTs'] teaching methods and compare that with ours [Taiwanese English teachers' teaching methods]. I feel that their teaching methods are much open and flexible than ours. They normally allow students to learn or develop freely but propose questions whenever it is suitable. I would like to see how they manage classrooms and conduct teaching activities.

The participants' belief that team teaching with NESTs is beneficial to students' learning and their professional development also reflects on their willingness to carry out team teaching with NESTs. Less than half (49.3%) of the participants claimed that they looked forward to team teaching with Taiwanese English teachers (Item 3, Table 1). In contrast, as many as 63.6% of the participants either agreed or strongly agreed that they looked forward to team teaching with NESTs (Item 4, Table 1). The results suggest that the participants are more interested in team teaching when the teaching partners are NESTs rather than Taiwanese English teachers.

C. Concerns about Team Teaching with NESTs

In the interview, participants discussed their concerns about team teaching with NESTs, among which the most frequently mentioned concern is NESTs' dominance and NNESTs' marginalization in the classrooms (Theme 6, Table 2). Based on their observation or experience, a number of participants are afraid that in team taught classes, NESTs might take over the whole class and they might become teaching assistants, living translators, or servants who are only responsible for preparing teaching materials or running errands without actually being involved in the teaching of English. The following quotes are representative of this concern among the participants:

Harry: I have heard quite often that when NESTs who are hired by the government teach in the classrooms, they usually play the role of dominant teacher and become the only authority in the classrooms. It becomes very difficult to allocate the time and duty. To local Taiwanese teachers, they feel like their classes are taken over by the NESTs.

Emily: I have experience of observing a team teaching class and it was like the Taiwanese teacher was just a translator and the NEST dominated the class. The Taiwanese teacher just followed what the NEST said and assisted the NEST aside. The feeling is that the Taiwanese teacher was just a translator and there's actually no team teaching.

Laura: When NESTs teach in the classrooms, they show little respect to Taiwanese teachers who are allocated to team teaching with them. They even see Taiwanese teachers as teaching assistants and ask them to prepare teaching materials or run some errands. Team teaching is actually a lie because Taiwanese teachers seldom have chance to talk when NESTs teach on the platform. Basically, it is NESTs who dominate the classes. Taiwanese teachers are like assistants or servants.

Another major concern the participants had about team teaching with NESTs is communication problems with NESTs (Theme 7, Table 2). Many participants see the quality of communication with NESTs as a crucial factor in determining whether team teaching can be carried out successfully. Edward and Bruce, for example, believe that the success of team teaching depends on whether the two teachers can communicate effectively:

Edward: Communication before conducting team teaching is very important. I think it is necessary for two teachers to communicate well regarding the purpose of the lesson, the essence of teaching and the distribution of duties in advance if team teaching is applied.

Bruce: I think we [the NEST and I] might need to communicate a lot before we cooperate. It may become a big problem if we cannot get along with each other well. In that case, it would be really difficult to carry out team teaching. It is very important to cultivate our unspoken consensus beforehand.

To a number of participants, establishing effective communication with NESTs is not an easy job even though they are aware of its importance. They are worried about the conflicts and tensions which may result from their communication with NESTs because of the different personalities, different beliefs about teaching English, different cultural backgrounds and different professional training between NESTs and themselves. The following quotes are representative of their concern:

Jams: I feel that foreigners are quite stubborn. It seems that it's hard to persuade them to change their thought. I am quite worried about this. They might be very straight to me if they don't like my lesson plans. They might not change their feeling or opinion regarding my lesson plans.

Vera: I think more or less there would be communication problems. After all, we [The NEST and I] have different culture. The professional training we have taken might also be different from each other. It's possible that we have different opinion about teaching methods.

The participants' concerns about team teaching with NESTs also reflect their attitude towards conducting English classes without the presence of NESTs. As many as 44.9% of the participants either agreed or strongly agreed that they would prefer teaching English alone if they could choose, while 16.6% either disagreed or strongly disagreed (Item 5, Table 1). This finding suggests that given the choice of conducting English classes alone, nearly half of the participants would opt for individual teaching rather than team teaching with NESTs. With regard to this survey result, the interviews provide more detailed information. Many participants mentioned that they would prefer teaching alone even though they thought team teaching was also beneficial to students' learning. They opted for individual teaching simply because they thought that individual teaching would be a more 'effective' way of teaching English (Theme 8, Table 2):

Daniel: There are a lot of things need to be taken into account in team teaching, including the distribution of the duty and the timing of exchanging leading role and supporting role played respectively by the two teachers. It is hard to control the timing and tempo. I prefer teaching alone because I think it is more effective. Team teaching involves more jobs and takes more time to prepare the classes. I think it is a bit troublesome.

Theresa: Once upon a time we [Taiwanese English teacher trainees] went observing English teaching at a school. There were a NEST and a Taiwanese teacher team teaching together. I found that the NEST couldn't discover the students' confusion in the class. The teaching practice was actually dependent on the Taiwanese teachers' coordination...I was wondering why it took two English teachers to accomplish the class that actually could have been done by just one single Taiwanese teacher.

V. DISCUSSION

NNESTs can benefit professionally from collaboration with NESTs (Carless & Walker, 2006). Moreover, English learners and teachers themselves can benefit more from team teaching classes if team teaching participants are well-trained ELT practitioners (Carless, 2006). In this study most participants are not against the policy of recruiting qualified NESTs and show a great extent of interest and willingness to engage in team teaching with NESTs. These findings reveal the participants' positive attitude towards collaborating with NESTs as "the other kind" of English teachers in the classrooms, contrary to findings in previous studies. The participants' extended contact with NESTs in universities and their personal experience in learning English with NESTs could have helped the participants to develop a positive attitude towards team teaching with NESTs. However, although the concept of team teaching is some 40 years old, many still consider it a "new" methodology, and a fairly "threatening" one at that (Marilyn, 2010). In team

taught classes, giving up control of what used to be a solo classroom venture requires mutual trust between team teachers. In this study, team teaching with NESTs seems to be a threatening approach to the participants because it marginalizes their professional roles in the classrooms. Similar concern among NNESTs has been reported in the literature. Being affected by the influential ideology of Confucianism, a typical classroom practice in many countries in Asia is teacher-centered with students acting as obedient and silent recipients. Teachers normally perceive themselves as the only source of knowledge and authority in the classrooms. This might explain the participant's concerns regarding losing their authority to NESTs in team taught classes.

The success of team teaching is largely depends on the effectiveness of communication between team teachers. To a great number of participants, the conflicts and tensions which result from the communication process with NESTs seem to be inevitable due to the difference in personalities, cultural background and professional training between NESTs and themselves. Similar concerns have also been reported in the literature. Arguably, in countries where high-stakes tests are widely used, traditional English teaching practices feature intensive drillings and learning by rote. Communicative English teaching carried out by NESTs in team taught classes is often in conflict with grammar and reading-based preparation for examinations. This might explain why nearly half of the participants would prefer teaching alone if they could choose. This finding corresponds to the findings in the literature, with the observation that many NNESTs either conduct all or none of their supposedly team taught lessons. For English teachers in many EFL or educational contexts, they tend to work largely in isolation (Lee, 2011). The notion of team teaching is sometimes perceived as a foreign product by NNESTs, who believe that "there should be one chef in the kitchen, one authority" (Carless, 2004, p.10). This deeply-rooted educational philosophy might contribute to the participants' hesitation towards collaborative teaching.

The findings of this study have several implications on teacher education and teacher educators. First, a shift in the conception of preparing teachers from individual and isolated way to collaborative and collective model is needed. Teacher education is all about modeling (McHatton & Daniel, 2008). Since teacher collaboration departs significantly from the traditional "one teacher per classroom" model, it is not reasonable to expect teachers to understand and implement it without specific instruction in the pertinent knowledge and skills (Friend *et al.*, 2010). Teacher educators are prompted to think more holistically and attend not only to the development of instructional competence but to professional dispositions and skills for collaborating with others in instructional planning and assessment and the actual implementation of various co-teaching approaches. This can be done by first providing teachers with in-depth training in collaborative teaching at the pre-service level (Cramer *et al.*, 2010; Cochran-Smith, 2004; Darling-Hammond, 2006; LeCornu, 2005). For example, Gaytan (2010) provides the theoretical framework for team teaching and a description of instructional strategies to accommodate a team teaching approach. These strategies include joint engagement in progressive and extensive planning of all aspects of the course, joint attendance and teaching in all class meetings, and debate-infused teaching. These strategies are necessary for instructors to successfully adjust their teaching methods for team teaching. Training courses focusing on the discussion of these aspects could enhance pre-service teachers' understanding about the complexity and application of such a concept.

Second, team teaching is based on the idea that a team of instructors is collectively planning and executing classroom instruction (Booth *et al.*, 2003). A fundamental requirement of team teaching is to *have a direction for the course* (Conn, 2010, p.88). However, it takes time for team partners to share the missions and understand the goals, and it is expected to see varying levels of resistance from team members. Collaborative skills such as collegial enquiry and reflection are needed to resolve conflicts (Clouder *et al.*, 2006; Pedder & MacBeath, 2008), and engaging in collaborative learning seems to be a promising way to develop these collaborative skills (Chai & Tan, 2009; Laurillard, 2009). Team teaching may be most effective when it is "team learning" (Tajino & Tajino, 2000), in which team teachers are encouraged to engage jointly in information exchange, consultation, and transfer of responsibilities. In her review on collaborative learning, Cohen (1994) concluded that complex, ill-structured and open-ended learning tasks stimulate collaboration between learners. These kinds of tasks allow learners to suggest multiple solutions in different ways because they often require learners to make judgments and express personal beliefs and opinions, stimulating both reflection and discussions (Goel, 1992; Jonassen, 2000). On the contrary, there are researchers who argue that learning tasks which allow a high level of learner participation, interaction, communication and collaboration require a certain level of structure. The more the goals, milestones, and roles that are set out, the more learners will participate in discussions and collaborative work (Dillenbourg, 2002; Lockhorst *et al.*, 2010). Engaging in these kinds of tasks, whether ill-structured or well-structured ones, would allow team teachers to surface some of their greatest challenges, creating networks of support for problematic situations in their team teaching partnerships, which helps team teachers to reach dynamic levels of collaboration (Pawan & Orloff, 2011). Teacher training programs at pre-service level can use these tasks as access points to support teacher collaboration.

Lastly, it is important that while pre-service teachers begin to develop a conceptual understanding of team teaching, they need to have opportunities to experience how team teaching actually work during this critical time. It is noted that paired field placements can lead to increased dialogue about teaching and learning and have the potential to help pre-service teachers nurture and develop skills of collaboration (Gardiner & Robinson, 2009). Training programs should provide pre-service teachers with such kind of opportunities to practice team teaching in real classroom settings through

partnerships between teacher training institutes and schools in order to help pre-service teachers engage in collaborative approaches and explore how team teaching can best serve pedagogy.

This study provides preliminary information regarding pre-service NNESTs' attitude towards collaborating with NESTs. However, NEST-NNEST team teaching is a highly challenging approach to teaching which involves complex issues in its application in classrooms. The questions used in the survey appear to be simplistic or terse. The findings of this study have brought to light a number of issues that future research could investigate. One issue that could be followed up on is the comparison of the results gained from in-service English teachers and pre-service English teachers. Any difference that is to be found in the group of practicing teachers will point to the need for studies on the nature of this change and its reasons. Also, an investigation of how team teaching actually works in the classroom through classroom observation would provide a closer look at the impact of this collaborative teaching model on NESTs' and NNESTs' teaching practices.

VI. CONCLUSION

Involvement in professional development through teacher collaboration provides opportunities to develop teacher leadership, enhance student learning, and promote school success (Borko, 2004; Dove & Honigsfeld, 2010). In light of the continued emphasis on teacher development through collaborative approaches and processes, it is crucial for policy makers, school administrators, teacher educators, and teachers themselves to work together to promote sustainable efforts to support teacher collaboration. This study investigated pre-service NNESTs' attitude towards the recruitment of NESTs and teacher collaboration in the classrooms. The results show that the participants are not against the policy of recruiting NESTs and are willing to engage in team teaching with NESTs. However, team teaching with NESTs seems to be threatening to the participants because it marginalizes their professional roles. Given the complexity of collaborative approaches to teaching, pre-service teachers need to gain a greater understanding of how to collaborate effectively with NESTs as equal partners. Engaging teachers in collaboration at the pre-service level may yield improved results when these teachers eventually take part in collaborative teaching at the in-service level (McHatton & Daniel, 2008). The exposure to a collaborative approach at the pre-service level would provide an opportunity to address misconceptions about students with differing academic abilities and needs, and allow for structured experiences with corresponding debriefing sessions. It would also help to address the roles and responsibilities of team teachers working together to ensure academic success for learners. Producing teachers who are competent and confident in their capability to operate in a collaborative setting will have a positive impact on teachers' professional development and students' learning. It is incumbent upon teacher educators to equip pre-service teachers with the methods and procedures involved in collaborative approaches in order to support teachers' professional lives.

APPENDIX

TABLE 1:
RESPONSE TO THE SURVEY QUESTIONS

Question item	SD	D	N	A	SA	Mean# (SD)
1 The Taiwanese government should hire NESTs even though they have no teaching certificates	131 (50.8%)	96 (37.2%)	17 (6.6%)	11 (4.3%)	3 (1.1%)	1.68 (0.86)
2 It is beneficial to English learners if Taiwanese English teachers teach English together with NESTs	1 (0.4%)	25 (9.7%)	42 (16.3%)	137 (53.1%)	53 (20.5%)	3.84 (0.88)
3 I look forward to team teaching with Taiwanese English teachers	5 (1.9%)	40 (15.5%)	86 (33.3%)	109 (42.2%)	18 (7.1%)	3.37 (0.90)
4 I look forward to team teaching with NESTs	4 (1.5%)	20 (7.8%)	70 (27.1%)	132 (51.2%)	32 (12.4%)	3.65 (0.85)
5 If I could choose, I would prefer teaching English alone	5 (1.9%)	38 (14.7%)	99 (38.4%)	85 (32.9%)	31 (12.0%)	3.38 (0.94)

Note: *N=256, two participants missed the item concerned. #1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=neither agree, nor disagree, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree. The higher the mean, the more the respondents agreed with the statement.

TABLE 2:
MAIN THEMES FROM THE INTERVIEW ANALYSIS

	Theme
1	NESTs must be qualified teachers from the perspective of fairness.
2	NESTs must be qualified teachers from the perspective of team teaching effect.
3	NESTs-NNESTs team teaching is beneficial to students because both kinds of teachers can complement each other.
4	NESTs-NNESTs team teaching is beneficial to students because it creates positive learning atmosphere and environment for students and brings students a new learning experience.
5	NESTs-NNESTs team teaching is beneficial to teachers' professional development.
6	Concern about NESTs' dominance and NNESTs' marginalization in team taught classes.
7	Concern about communication problems with NESTs in team teaching partnerships.
8	Teaching alone would be a more 'effective' way of teaching English than team teaching with NESTs.

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Default Diminutives: Evidence from Modern Standard Arabic

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Abstract—Different approaches to inflectional morphology converge on the notion that default inflection is computed through a combinatorial mechanism. The current study explores the mechanism of defaultness which makes an inquiry for the emergence of the diminutive plural inflection as a default form taking the suffix *-aat* in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). The findings of this study showed that there is a role displayed by the "canonical root" in the formation of this default form thus the wide application of the default inflection results from the fact that the default inflection applies to mental variables which are abstract labels 'VERB or NOUN' (Berent 1999, Kim et al 1991, 1994 and Marcus et al 1995). Further, this study replicated previous studies on English and Hebrew (Berent: 1999) in maintaining the insensitivity of defaultness to similarity effects.

Index Terms—default, canonical root, similarity effects, diminutives, sound feminine plural

I. INTRODUCTION

Investigations on inflectional morphology have been the subject of much debate between the associative accounts of cognition presented by Rumelhart & McClelland (1986), McWhinny & Leinbach (1991), Plunkett & Marchmann (1993) Stemberger (1998); and Bybee (1995) and the symbolic accounts stated by Pinker and Prince (1988), Marcus et al (1992), Marcus et al (1995) Clahsen (1996); and Pinker (1998). Both theories converge on the proposal that irregular inflection is achieved by associative memory, while the difference between them is in their treatment of regular default inflection. According to the associative–single mechanism model, both regular and irregular forms are processed in the associative memory, hence explicable by associations between specific token and type frequencies. Bybee (1995) also provides accounts for this proposal in the schema model of inflection treatment. On the other hand, proponents of the symbolic model attribute the default regular inflection to a symbolic combinatorial process working over variables which lack canonical roots. The current study examines these accounts of inflectional morphology using evidence from the diminutive forms observed in Modern Standard Arabic (hence MSA). In this study, we will argue that the plural of the diminutive forms in MSA is expected to provide evidence on the architecture of the MSA lexicon in terms of the defaultness representation.

II. THE PLURAL SYSTEM IN MSA

There are two distinct classes of plural inflection observed in MSA: the sound plurals and broken plurals. The sound plurals are formed in a concatenative mechanism by adding either the suffix *-aat* to the singular form to make the sound feminine plural (e.g. *maktaba/maktab-aa* 'a library/libraries') or the suffix *-uun* to the singular form to make the sound masculine plural (e.g. *saaʔiq/saaʔig-uun* 'a driver/drivers'). McCarthy and Prince (1990, p. 212) state that the sound feminine plural is systematically found with the following: proper names; transparently derived nouns or adjectives such as participles, deverbals, and diminutives, noncanonical or unassimilated loans (*keibil /keibl-aa* 'a cable/cables'); and the names of the letters of the alphabet which are mostly noncanonical. On the other hand, broken plurals are formed by a hierarchical non-concatenative process. McCarthy & Prince (1990) also provide evidence that the broken plural usually has the same consonants (root) as the singular form but vowels are inserted between the consonants in accordance with a strict pattern or template For example, the singular *kur.si* 'a chair' *CVC.CV* word maps to the plural *ka.raa.si* 'chairs'; the plural template in this case being *CaCaaCi*. Wright (1995) indicates that Arabic contains 31 broken plural templates and these broken plural templates constitute the major process of plural formation in Arabic.

III. DEFAULTNESS IN MSA

The mechanism of defaultness to be investigated in this research makes inquiry for the emergence of the diminutive plural inflection as a default form taking the suffix *-aat* in MSA and the role displayed by the notion "canonical root" in the formation of this default form. Marcus (1998 & 1999) Pinker and Prince (1988) in their accounts of the symbolic model made clear that the wide application of the default inflection results from the fact that the regular inflection applies to mental variables which are abstract labels 'VERB or NOUN'. Marcus (1995) views 'defaultness' as an operation which applies not to particular sets of stored items or to their frequent patterns, but to any item whatsoever, as long as it is not listed in the lexical memory. This item may be unfamiliar, dissimilar to familiar items or computationally inaccessible because of noise in memory or because of the way the data in memory is structured. Corbett (1994), on the other hand, deals with defaults rather than "markedness" since defaults are language specific, while "marked" is universal. Based upon our assumptions, the notion of "defaultness" is an indispensable mechanism to account for the lexical status of the nominal system (i.e. diminutive forms) in MSA.

Berent (1999) Kim et al (1991 & 1994) and Marcus et al (1995) provide ample evidence that the regular inflection as a default (the sound feminine with the suffix *-aat* in our case) can be observed with the inflection which is assigned to borrowings, names, and denominals in English and Hebrew, all of which fail to trigger default irregular patterns as a stored association, because these default forms lack a canonical root. Prasada and Pinker (1993) show that according to the symbolic account, default inflection could also apply to non-words that are dissimilar to English forms, hence are unlikely to activate stored irregular tokens. In terms of the irregular inflection, this account has the same application observed with the distribution asymmetry account. This account is motivated by the argument that the irregular forms are tightly bounded, and thus new words take similar inflection to these clustered ones and if blocked the default regular inflection is applied.

Moreover, the purpose of this research is to articulate the following predictions. The symbolic account can be maintained to deal with the plural forms of diminutive forms to define 'defaultness' in MSA. The symbolic approach assumes a single-default rule system for the grammar, which follows from an exclusive reliance on the 'elsewhere' principle. The current research aims at exploring the representation of the default system of the diminutives in the plural forms of the Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). This representation is expected to account for the status of the derived forms (the diminutive forms in our case) that take the sound feminine marker *-aat* to denote the plural inflection as a default form due to the lack of the canonical root (more articulation on the notion of *canonical root* account to be introduced in the body of this research). Our analysis would take into account the fact that the emergence of the default forms with the diminutive forms is not subject to similarity effects.

A. The Sound Feminine Default in MSA: Diminutives

The category of derived nouns includes diminutives and derivatives or participles, which are formed from other words by rules of morphological derivation. For instance, the existence of a verbal noun presupposes the existence of a verb from which it is derived. Derived nouns in MSA -diminutives in particular- have the property of having a default inflection in the plural. According to the data displayed below, our assumption is that the diminutive forms take the sound feminine plural (*-aat*) due to the fact that these forms -when derived- have no canonical root; hence they have no access to the lexicon of MSA and thus fall into the "elsewhere" category or outside the phonological space.

Ratliffe (1998) and Wright (1995) indicate that a diminutive form like what is shown in data set (1) in MSA is formed from a noun by inserting the short vowel *u* after the initial consonant; the diphthongized sound *ay* after the second consonant and the long vowel *ee* after the third if the word has a quadrilateral root. For example, Wright (1995) and Khoulooghli (1992) provide data on the collective noun *waraq* 'paper' and its plural *waraqat* 'pieces of paper', we have *wuraygaat* 'little pieces of paper', for instance. The singular word, *juz?* 'a part' has the iambic broken plural? *ajzaa?* 'parts' whereas its diminutive *juzay?* 'a molecule' has the sound-feminine plural *juzay?-aat* 'molecules'.

Diminutives in MSA provide converging evidence on the existence of the symbolic mechanism, which calls for the default inflection if access to the lexical memory is blocked. Thus, this default inflection process works for diminutives as new derived forms in the language. Every noun in MSA has a diminutive form and this derived form is sound-feminine plural inflected regardless of the plural inflection of the non-diminutive form-

In the data in (1), we notice that the nouns in the non-diminutive form may take a broken plural form (for example *nahr /?anhaar* 'a river/riverss'), while the same nouns in the diminutive form all have the sound feminine inflection. Another supporting example can be seen with the noun *jaba/jibaa* 'a mountain/mountains', the plural of its diminutive form *jubayl* is *jubay-laata* with the suffix *-aat* across the board added in the plural.

DATA SET (1):
 NOUNS TAKING NON DEFAULT PLURAL FOR NON-DIMINUTIVE FORMS WHILE THEIR DIMINUTIVE FORMS ARE DEFAULT INFLECTED WITH THE –AAT SUFFIX

Noun (nondiminutive Forms)	Plural (nondefault)	Diminutive	Pluralized Diminutive	Gloss
nahr	?anhaar	nuhayr	nuhayr-aat	'a river'
ghuSn	?aghsaan	ghusayin	ghusayin-aat	'a branch'
manzil	manaazil	munayzil	munayzil-aat	'a house'
lugmah	lugam	lugaymeh	lugaym-aat	'a piece of food'
thi?b	thi?aab	Thu?ayb	thu?ayb-aat	'a wolf'
saqf	?asguf/suguuf	sugayif	sugayf-aat	'a ceiling'
rajul	rijaal	rujayl	rujayl-aat	'a man'
daar	duur	duwayrah	duwayr-aat	'a house'
baab	?abwaab	buwayb	buweb-aat	'a door'
naab	?anyaab/nabaat	nuwayb	nuwyb-aat	'a fang'
thawb	thyaab	thwayb	thweb-aat	'a dress'
Halum	?aHlaam	Hulaym	Hulaym-aat	'a dream'
Hajar	?aHjaar	Hujayr	Hujayr-aat	'a stone'
gamar	?agmaar	guamayr	guamayr-aat	'the moon'
ragheef	?arghifeh/reghfeh	rughayf	rughayf-aat	'a loaf'
zawraq	zawaarig	zwayrig-aat	zwerig-	'a boat'
Hamuud	?aHmideh/Humdaan	Humayd	Humayd-aat	'a pillar'
burkaan	baraakeen	buraykeen	buraykeen-aat	'a volcano'
Hasfour	Hasafeer	Husayfeer	Husayfeer-aat	'a bird'
galam	?aglaam	gulaym	gulaym-aat	'a pen/pencil'
dirham	daraahim	durayhim	durayhim-aat	'a coin'
miftaah	mafaateeh	mufayteeh	mufayteeh-aat	'a key'
mandeel	manadeel	munaydeel	munaydeel-aat	'a scarf'
barmeel	barameel	buraymeel	buraymeel-aat	'a barrel'
shams	shumuus	shumaysah	shumays-aat	'the sunn'
Nakhlah	nakheel/ nakhl	nukhaylah	nukhayl-aat	'a tree palm'
Sanduug	Sanadeeq	Sunaydeeq	Sunaydeeq-aat	'a box'
kalb	kilaab	kulayb	kulab-aat	'a dog'
yad	?aydi/?ayaadi	yudayah	yuday-aat	'a hand'
jamal	jimaal	jumayl	jumayl-aat	'a camel'
gandee	ganadeel	gunaydeel	gunaydeel-aat	'a candle'
misbaaH	maSaabeeH	muSaybeeh	muSaybeeH-aat	'a light'
girtaas	garaatees	guraytees	guraytees-aat	'stationary'
nimir	mumuur	numayr	numayr-aat	'a tiger'
dub	dubab(h)	dubayb	dubayb-aat	'a bear'
minbar	manaabir	munaybeer	munaybeer-aat	'a speech place'
maHrath	maHaarith	muHayrith	muHayrith-aat	'a gallery'
Faanuus	fawaanees	fwaynees	fwaynees-aat	'a light'
jundu	janaadib	junaydeeb	junaydeeb-aat	'a hopper'

In data set (1), there is evidence supporting the predictions proposed by the symbolic accounts that the derived forms-diminutives in particular- all have the sound feminine default form with the combinatorial suffix –aat added to the diminutive to derive the plural form.

B. The Canonical Root Account

According to the data provided in (1), the emergence of the default inflection for the diminutive forms is marked with the suffix –aat. This default representation is accounted for in terms of the notion of the canonical root. Canonical root can be of considerable importance in the generality of the default inflection to words that have no access to the memory such as borrowings, denominals, names, diminutives, etc. So, the default inflection with –aat is assigned to diminutives which fail to trigger stored associations due to their lack of the canonical root. Marcus (1995) defines the canonical root as “address or distinct identity as a word in the language; a part-of-speech category, subcategory features (e.g., transitive or intransitive for verbs, count or mass for nouns); a semantic representation and phonological representations”. A canonical root has the implication that words cannot be represented in the mental lexicon as random collections of information, one of the prominent features of the ‘canonical root’ is that it has a representation format for these words. McCarthy and Prince (1990) draw attention to the fact that the phonological representation must conform to a canonical template for words in the language. In MSA, canonical roots are marked by their inflection in the plural. For example, the two-syllable words ending with the feminine marker –a take the sound feminine plural (For instance the word *majalla/ majall-aat* ‘a magazine/magazines’). On the other hand, MSA presents instances of noncanonical root words like diminutives. For example, the word singular masculine noun *mandeel* ‘a scarf’ has the broken plural *manadeel* ‘scarves’ while its derived diminutive form *munaydeel* ‘a small scarf’ is default sound feminine inflected as *munaydeel-aat* ‘small scarves’. These noncanonical words may be assigned any plural form due to the lack of access of these categories to their canonical root in the lexicon. In this case, no lexical access exists between the derived word and

any mental representation; as a result, the sound feminine default comes into play as a default inflection for these derived forms.

IV. SIMILARITY EFFECTS AND DEFAULTNESS

In this section, we discuss how the similarity effects are modulated by the defaultness of the nouns of diminutive inflection. Both the symbolic and associative hypotheses converge in their view of irregular nondefault inflection as an associative process. Hence, both accounts predict that irregular nondefault inflection should be sensitive to the similarity of the target to its base. Berent (1999) states that while the default inflection is a combinatorial process; it is insensitive to similarity effects. The dissimilarity between the two views concerns regular inflection. If regular inflection is achieved solely by the default mechanism, then it should be insensitive to similarity effects: targets that are highly similar to a regular base should be just as likely to agree with its inflection as highly dissimilar targets. The data in (2) and (3) below provide evidence that the singular diminutive forms are default inflected with the suffix *-aat* regardless of whether the singular nondiminutive form is inflected with the default marker *-aat* regularly or with the irregularly inflected singular form. In other words, the noun *kitaab* 'a book' for example is broken plural inflected as *kutub* 'books' and the noun *maṭaar* 'an airport' is sound feminine inflected as *maṭaar-aat* 'airports' while their diminutive forms *-kutayeb* and *muṭayer-* are both default inflected as *kutayb-aat* and *maṭar-aat* respectively. Thus, it is necessary to indicate that the plural of the diminutive form is insensitive similarity effects.

DATA SET (2):

NOUNS THAT ARE NOT SOUND FEMININE PLURAL INFLECTED BUT THEIR DIMINUTIVE COUNTERPARTS ARE

Noun	Plural onsound feminine	Diminutive form	Plural diminutive	Gloss
kitaab	kutub	kutayib	kutayib-aat	'a book'
xaatim	xawaatim	xuwaytim	xuwaytim-aat	'a ring'
jisim	?ajsam	jusayim	jusaym-aat	'a body'
juzu?	?jzaa?	juzay?	juzay?-aat	'a small part'
jabal	jibaal	jubayl	jubayl-aat	'a mountain'

DATA SET (3)

NOUNS AS WELL AS THEIR DIMINUTIVE COUNTERPARTS ARE SOUND FEMININE PLURAL INFLECTED

Noun	Regular Plural	Diminutive form	Plural diminutive	Gloss
maṭaar	maṭar-aat	muṭayr	mauṭayr-aat	'an airport'
jarraar	jarrar-aat	jurayreer	jurayreer-aat	'a tractor'
muḥarrrik	muḥarrrik-aat	muḥayreeek	muḥayreeek-aat	'an engine'
jawaaz	jawaz-aat	jwayz	jwayz-aat	'a passport'
shajarah	shajar-aat	shujayrah	shujayr-aat	'a tree'
thamarah	thamar-aat	thumayrah	thumayr-aat	'fruit'
gurfah	ghurf-aat	gurayfah	ghurayf-aat	'a room'
waraqah	?awr-aaq	wurayqah	wurayq-aat	'a piece of paper'
wardah	ward-aat	waraydah	wurayd-aat	'a rose'
baqarah	baqar-aat	buquayrah	buqayr-aat	'a cow'
tamrah	tamar-aat	tumayrah	tumayr-aat	'a piece of date'

In MSA, as shown in the data in (2 &3), the diminutive forms for both the nouns that have sound-feminine inflected plural (*jarraar/ jarrar-aat* 'a tractor') and the words that are non sound-feminine inflected plural (*jisim/?ajsam* 'a body') take the default form with the sound-feminine plural *-aat* in all cases of the diminutive derivation. Accordingly, there is no evidence showing similarity effects for the plural inflection of the diminutives of non sound-feminine plural inflected words. Evidence of similarity effects would be observed if the plural inflection of the non-sound feminine inflected nondiminutive forms would be a non sound feminine plural in the plural diminutive, while, on the other hand, the inflection of the sound feminine inflected form would be the default sound feminine plural for the diminutive form. The mapping between the singular and the plural form in this context would be evidence on similarity effects. In both cases, the default inflection applies generally, regardless of the similarity of the targets to stored tokens. Prasada and Pinker (1993) present evidence that the assignment of the default sound feminine plural inflection to non-words that are dissimilar to existing regular verbs does not differ from non-words that are highly similar to familiar regular verbs. Conversely, Kim et al. (1991& 1994) Marcus et al. (1995) argue that default inflection is observed for borrowings, names and denominals that are highly similar, or even identical to stored irregular words. These findings support the view that regular default inflection is achieved by the symbolic mechanism.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As far as we can tell, ever since Rumelhart, D.E. and McClelland, J.L. (1986), the representation of defaultness and the mechanism by which it comes into play have been under scrutiny. The questions that this study raised are how defaultness can be represented and in what domains this defaultness can be analyzed crosslinguistically.

The architecture of defaultness in MSA was shown to have a crosslinguistic characteristic. This conclusion was based upon the defaultness definition which refers to the application of the 'elsewhere rule pattern' on non-canonical forms.

Accordingly, the data taken from MSA offers evidence that the symbolic account is expected to account for the representation of the diminutive forms as having the default form when pluralized. The notion of the canonical root was introduced to account for the emergence of the default for the diminutives in MSA. Default forms are observed as an emergency inflection when lexical access is blocked due to the lack of the canonical root. In the present research, diminutives as new forms in the lexicon of MSA are proved to have no canonical root and thus have the default inflection in the plural with the suffix *-aat* attached to the singular form of the diminutive regardless of its nondiminutive plural form.

Moreover, insensitivity of defaultness to similarity effects is observed in the inflection of the diminutive forms in MSA. In the data above (2 & 3) the sound-feminine inflected singular nouns as well as the non sound-feminine inflected singular nouns take the default sound-feminine plural in the diminutive inflection. This type of default inflection confirms the notion of the absence of similarity factors between the sound feminine inflected forms taking the diminutive inflection and the nonsound feminine inflected forms taking the sound feminine default for the diminutive form in MSA. This insensitivity of default inflection -the sound feminine - to similarity effects replicates the English findings provided by Parasada and Pinker (1993) and Hebrew findings investigated by Berent et al (1999). Therefore; this default inflection is accounted for due to the fact that diminutives are categorized as separate entries from their root nouns.

These findings are compatible with the symbolic view in terms of two perspectives: First, the default sound feminine inflection in MSA has the productivity to be extended to any word that does not have a canonical root by a computational mechanism of adding the suffix *-aat* to the diminutive form. Second, no role of similarity effect is observed between the default sound feminine plural diminutives and their base non-feminine singulars.

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An Exploration of EFL Learners' Anxiety and E-learning Environments

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Abstract—The world is becoming more and more convenient, with high-tech equipment and computers being invented and applied in various ways. Multimedia materials in the English classroom play a novel role in language learning. At the same time, L2 learners who lack confidence and have low learning motivation suffer poor language performance. The motivation of this study is to assess multimedia instruction in the English classroom. In particular, it will examine the relationship between multimedia environments and English learning anxiety in EFL college students in Taiwan. A questionnaire was given to 124 students on an English course at Chung Shan Medical University. Statistical correlations and a T-test are used to analyze data in this study. The study conducted claims to identify and understand the relationship between multimedia techniques in language teaching and learners' language anxiety. Its results suggest that a multimedia environment can reduce student anxiety and provide a less stressful classroom environment. Put otherwise, multimedia tools enable English teachers to help students to both improve their English performance and lower their language anxiety. Hopefully, the findings of this study could help to reduce EFL college students' language anxiety and contribute to the awareness of language learners' anxiety.

Index Terms—language learning, language anxiety, college students, multimedia environments

I. INTRODUCTION

The communicative approach to language teaching emphasizes the use of language as a communication tool and hypothesizes that learners become proficient by using the language and not just by learning about the language. Learning English seems to be very difficult for native speakers of Chinese. L2 learners who lack confidence and have low learning motivation tend to perform poorly in the language learning process. Traditional Asian classrooms are a teacher-centered learning setting in which students are passive learners, rather than active learners. Interactions among students and teacher in which individuals share thoughts, ideas and support each others' viewpoints are rare situation in the traditional Taiwanese classroom. This traditional environment negatively influences learning ability by creating anxiety, frustration, depression or suspicion. In such an environment, students' 'affective filters' will screen out many meaningful language messages, thus reducing learners' learning performance. Aggressive emotion and participation, on the other hand, will make L2 learners function effectively.

Anxiety has been regarded as one of the most important negative factors influencing second language acquisition. Spielberger (1983) defines anxiety as "the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system." More simply, anxiety is associated with feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension, and worry (Scovel, 1978). Much research (e.g. Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Copes, 1986; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Young, 1991) has paid great attention to investigate the relationship between anxiety and achievement in different foreign languages learning. There are many potential sources of learners' anxiety in the foreign language classroom. As Young (1991) argues, two factors, personal and interpersonal anxieties, have been the most commonly addressed in related anxiety research.

In order to enhance students' learning motivation, scholars have been investigating the best teaching instruction methods for learning English. The efficacy of multimedia has drawn great attention to this issue and is presumed, under the assumption of adding an additional channel of media to transmit a message, to dramatically enhance communication and comprehension (Dwyer, 1978). Multimedia technology (such as TV, computers, networks, Youtube, E-mail, and interactive multimedia) aids the teaching technique of integrating real-life target language situations into the language classroom. In this particular environment, learners gradually develop their language skills by being exposed to genuine target language environments. Hartman (1961) indicated that the multiple-channel theory, involving at least two of the channels under consideration here, increases learners' language comprehension. In accordance with one of the most prominent theories of second language acquisition, Krashen (1985) proposed that learners can learn a large amount of language unconsciously where there is ample comprehensible input. In other words, language acquisition only takes place when comprehensible input is delivered sufficiently. In this respect, language teachers strive to employ a wide variety of teaching techniques to create authentic situations and to promote learners' language acquisition.

Nowadays the use of the multimedia materials is extensive and prevailing in education, as well as in recreation and communication. This new dimension involves the knowledge of foreign languages as a basic requirement (Tamburini, 1999). The implementation of multimedia teaching is also an innovative method in Taiwan, where teachers apply

multimedia such as audio, video, animation and interactivity in their class. These materials can give the impetus to previously passive students who might now be more attracted to learning and therefore pay more attention to classroom learning. The multimedia teaching approach emphasizes interaction between a teacher and students, unlike the traditional one-way teaching method. In order to increase students' motivation to learn English, computer software is used to enhance student stimulation. With these kinds of needs, there are more and more schools trying to integrate computers into their English language courses. With this in mind, the present study focuses on how the computer-assisted learning makes students enjoy the learning process and reduces their English anxiety.

In Taiwan, there was several research conducted in the filed of language anxiety among different groups. Language anxiety has been addressed from the differ perceptives from primary, junior/senior high and college students. However, this research suggested that few research studies have focused on language anxiety in EFL College students in multimedia environments.

Purpose of study

This study aims to investigate the correlation between EFL students' language anxiety and the use of multimedia instruction in English classrooms. This subject is investigated in order to find out how to best utilize the multimedia teaching method as a means to reducing language learning anxiety.

In order to carry out this analysis, this study aims to answer the following questions:

1. What is the level of EFL college students' language anxiety?
2. To what extent do students perceive that a multimedia environment can alleviate language anxiety?
3. Is there any significant difference between male and female language anxiety?
4. What forms of multimedia instruction are preferred by EFL students?

II. LITERATURE REVIEWS

A. *Definition of Multimedia*

Multimedia is the combination of various forms of media in an interactive manner. This is in contrast to a single media employed on its own. An educational example of multimedia is the use of computer-based training to integrate the course content with the implementation of multimedia. Computers with video, audio function have become a common equipment in students' learning activities, as well as in their leisure time. These have become major tools to help students to learn English in more interesting ways. Computer-assisted learning in particular is being adopted by more and more colleges in their English courses and students are even using it in independent English learning.

Regarding the use of CALL (Computer-assisted language learning), multimedia plays an important role, providing students with a bidirectional and individualized learning method. The multimedia teaching approach can integrate with various teaching elements, for example, Power Point files or Word Process files. In general, the functions of multimedia are that it can record, preserve and display information.

B. *The Studies of CALL*

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) can help students practice their linguistic skills. For example, some students are not very good at pronunciation or reading due to the lack of appropriate environments in which to practice. With CALL, such students can enhance their phonological ability and get more chance to immerse themselves in a foreign language environment. Torgesen (1995) found that the phonological awareness skills of those struggling with reading can be improved with computer-assisted training. Computers provide more chance for students to watch items as many times as they want (Torgesen,1995). Computer based learning practice can also enhance students' performance on reading and memory. Tsou et al. (2006) suggest that students using CALL can recall more content of a foreign language story, generate much more complex sentences, and demonstrate better language proficiency. Furthermore, it has been suggested that computer-assisted vocabulary learning using images can have positive dynamic effects on students' reactions and classroom participation (Chang et al., 2005).

CALL plays an important role in teaching that focuses on interaction, and individualized teaching. CALL can make up for the shortcomings of traditional one-way teaching methods, replacing it with two-way language teaching. The benefits of CALL are that it can combine text, sound effects and images in order to increase the diversity of teaching and to promote learning efficiency by inspiring students' learning desire. A previous study by Hwang (2010) highlights the advantages of CALL as follows:

1. CALL can increase the learning effect by facilitating the repetition of learning exercises.
2. CALL can make study more interesting, enhancing students' learning desire.
3. CALL can achieve the goal of applied English learning through simulated teaching content.
4. CALL provides assistance and lesson content that learners can help themselves to.

In other words, the CALL can increase the opportunities for interaction, individualize learning, generate immediate feedback, encourage students to learn actively and monitor students learning conditions easily.

Blake (1998) claims several beneficial effects of a well-designed CALL lesson. The lesson provide appropriate feedback, foster a communicative environment, offer branching, treat the subject matter in context, follow problem-solving or discovery producers, and allow the student autonomy or control. Underwood (1984) lists twelve premises for CALL. He also mentions the use of e-mail as a means of using networked computer to send messages between learners and instructors.

C. *Multiple-channel Learning Theories*

Hartman (1961) indicated that the multiple-channel theory, involving at least two of the channels under consideration here, increases learners' comprehension by providing interaction between any combination of the different available sensory channels. Dwyer (1978) refers to the multiple-channel theory as simultaneous presentation of stimuli through different sensory channels. Moore, Burton, and Mayers (1995) carried out a study and examined learners' ability to access aural and visual stimuli simultaneously and what amount of information could be processed. Their findings led them to the conclusion that the multiple-channel learning theory promotes learning. In a sense, developers and educators have captured the value of multiple-channel learning and have selected appropriate media for its application.

There is an abundance of research that supports the effectiveness of multi-channel learning. Hartman's (1961) research indicates that learning is enhanced when both audio and print means are employed simultaneously. However, he suggests that print alone should be employed by literate students studying complicated materials, whereas audio is beneficial when the material is simple or the subjects are illiterate. Moreover, Levie and Lentz (1982) contend that these two channels reinforce each other and enhance both recall and comprehension.

D. *Language Learning Anxiety*

Second language learning coming along with a particularly anxiety-provoking experience has several reasons. First, Young (1999) argued that when students are asked to deliver their thoughts or idea with a foreign language in which they have limited competence, their performance can be very threatening to their self-image. According to Horwitz et al. (1986) "performance in the L2 is likely to challenge an individual's self-concept as a competent communicator" and this might lead to "reticence, self-consciousness, fear or even panic." In accordance with this position, communication apprehension has been revealed to affect one's willingness to communicate in the L2 (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996; Yashima, 2002; Yashima, et al., 2004).

Secondly, Scovel (1978) states the affective factors deal with the emotional reactions and motivations of the learner as conducting the study on the effect of affective factors on language learning. He claims that one of the most affective variables in learning tasks is anxiety. Moreover, Scovel (1978) and Young (1991) agree that too much anxiety can have a debilitating effect on language learning. The facilitating or debilitating aspect of anxiety is difficult to measure in the language learner.

Horwitz et al. (1986) listed three elements of foreign language anxiety: (1) communication apprehension, (2) fear of negative evaluation, and (3) test anxiety. Communication apprehension results from the fear of the real or expected interactions with others. Fear of negative evaluation arises when a learners' need to make a positive social impression on others leads to a despondent mood. Test anxiety results from the experience of failure. Here the level of anxiety is proportionate to the excessive memory that accompanies the experience of failure (Aida, 1994).

According to Horwitz and Young (1991), there are two classification to explain language anxiety: (1) language anxiety may be the result of more general types of anxiety, such as test anxiety or the communication apprehension found in shy people; or (2) language anxiety may be a specific response to language learning. Thus factors unique to language learning cause some people to be nervous. To sum up, anxiety contributes to the affective filter of Krashen's Monitor Model.

E. *Krashen's Affective Filters Hypothesis*

Stephen Krashen (1985, 1999, 2005) proposed one of the most controversial theoretical perspectives in SLA. Krashen has addressed five hypotheses in learning process: the Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis, and the Affective Filter Hypothesis. According to Krashen (1985), learning a second language (L2) is very much like learning a first language (L1). No conscious effort needs to be made to focus on the language. If people are exposed to the target language by hearing or reading, the ability to speak and to write will come more or less at their own pace. In the field of L2 research much attention has been focused on the central role of acquisition of cognitive academic skills. The Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985) revealed that students learn new language which includes vocabulary, meaning, pronunciation and sentence structures already acquired and taught, coupled with language that is new. In other words, the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis is Krashen's explanation of how second language acquisition takes place, concerning with acquisition, not learning. According to this hypothesis, the L2 learner improves and progresses through the developmental stage of natural orders when one receives second language input that is one level beyond one's current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if a learner is at a stage I, then acquisition takes place when he / she is exposed to comprehensible input that is at level I+1. Consequently, their speech and grammar knowledge is automatically provided by input that is both comprehensible and of sufficient quantity. The ability to produce language is said to emerge naturally and need not be taught directly. In this regard, instructors can provide students with authentic, meaningful, comprehensible language that is not easily available to them so that their acquisitions take place automatically. The teaching implications are to supply the class time with abundant comprehensive input in order to activate learners' acquisition unconsciously.

In the Affective Filter Hypothesis, Krashen argues that there exists a "filter" or "mental block" that impedes L2 from "getting in". A low filter is associated with relaxation, confidence to take risks and a pleasant learning environment. When the anxiety level is high, the affective filter is high. It makes the learners unreceptive to language input and decreases language acquisition. Krashen further claims that the best acquisition will take place in an environment where anxiety-provoking is low and defensiveness absent, or, in Krashen's terms, in contexts where the "affective filter" is low. When learners sitting in a class are very nervous and anxious about the possibility of being called on, they may not pay

attention to what the teacher is saying and will benefit very little from being in class.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The subjects of this study were 124 freshman students at Chung Shan Medical University whose majors were not English. The study was carried out in the fall semester of 2010. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 20. Most of them had been studying English for about seven years.

B. Instrument

The questionnaire (see appendix), as the instrument of this study, was designed specifically for the present study and is composed of three parts. The first part of the questionnaire elicits basic demographic information, including gender and year in school. The second part of the questionnaire reproduces the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) that was designed by Horwitz, Horwitz, & Copes (1986). This part consists of 33 statements. The last part of this survey investigates students' perception of learning English in a multimedia environment. This part consists of 20 questions. For all but one of the questions in the third section, respondents are asked to rank their agreement with a statement on a 5-point Likert scale. Question 20 of part three is an open-ended question.

In order to ensure appropriateness of the questionnaire's content, it was first distributed to three experienced English teachers at a cooperating college to prevent the question items from containing ambiguity, irrelevance. In addition to this, a group of five students were distributed the questionnaire prior to the actual study. The results of the question items were investigated and validated in terms of internal reliability, test-retest reliability and construct validity. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for this instrument is 0.87.

C. Procedure

To begin with, the English classroom used by the subjects of this research is equipped with multimedia and computer equipment. During the 17-week semester, multimedia instruction, such as video watching, online English exercises, Youtube presentations, and powerpoint file presentations, were delivered and presented in English class. At the end of the 2010 fall semester, the non-English major freshmen were asked to fill out my questionnaire. This took about 40 minutes to complete and was administered during the students' regular English class. After the questionnaire scores were received, an SPSS statistical package was used to analyze them. A T-test was carried out in order to examine any difference between male and female levels of learning anxiety.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 and 2 show the results for EFL learners' English anxiety in the classroom. These results are derived from part II of the questionnaire, which was adopted from Horwitz's Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (1986). Table 1 presents the mean value for overall learner anxiety as 3.06. This is close to the average (M=3.00). This is inconsistent with previous research by Huang (2011), which reports a higher mean of overall language anxiety at 3.14. This indicated that the level of language anxiety in subjects was slightly lower than in Huang's research. The highest scores for anxiety related to item 10, "I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class" (M=3.52), whereas the lowest scores were for item 17, "I often feel like not going to my English class" (M=2.58).

TABLE 1.
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY

	N	Mean	SD
FLCAS (partII)	124	3.06	.513

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM ANXIETY SCALE

	Mean	SD
1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in English.	2.97	.94
2. I don't worry about making mistakes in English classes.	3.15	1.05
3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.	3.15	1.04
4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in English.	3.18	1.02
5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes.	2.90	.93
6. During English class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	2.60	.97
7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.	3.10	1.02
8. I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.	3.02	1.03
9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	3.45	1.16
10. I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.	3.52	.92
11. I don't understand why people get so upset over English class.	3.00	.96
12. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	3.37	1.05
13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	3.43	1.10
14. I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.	3.04	.99
15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	3.09	1.11
16. Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.	3.08	1.11
17. I often feel like not going to my English class.	2.58	.94
18. I feel confident when I speak in my English class.	3.31	.93
19. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	2.66	.96
20. I can feel my hear pounding when I am going to be called on in my English class.	3.09	.95
21. The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.	2.78	1.03
22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.	3.19	1.03
23. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	3.28	.97
24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	3.06	.93
25. English class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	2.83	1.00
26. I feel more tense and nervous in my English class than in my other classes.	2.72	1.14
27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	2.91	1.02
28. When I'm on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	2.86	.84
29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	3.16	1.08
30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak English.	2.95	.81
31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	2.84	1.10
32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English.	3.40	.94
33. I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	3.42	.91

The present study is also inconsistent with the findings of the average mean obtained in the previous studies by Na (2007), Chan and Wu (2004), who obtained 2.9 and 2.96 respectively. The findings showed that the tendency to feel foreign language anxiety on the part of the college students was obvious. Moreover, their level of anxiety is higher than that of elementary (M=2.9) and high school (M=2.96) students. Language teachers should sustain a good relationship with students in order to lower their anxiety and to facilitate their language learning. In other words, language teachers need to be aware of the existence of foreign language anxiety and to acknowledge that language classes can be treating for some students. To conquer the problem, language teachers should help create the learning environment less stressful.

The second question that this paper set out to answer “To what extent do the students perceive that a multimedia environment can alleviate language anxiety?” is addressed in part three of the questionnaire. This focuses on participants' perceptions of studying English in multimedia environments. Table 3 presents the five statements with which students most agreed. Interestingly, three out of five multimedia learning items that students viewed most positively can be easily facilitated by a computer. In other words, the flexibility and practicality of using computer-assisted language learning is feasible in the classroom. Interestingly, more than 50% of students like to work cooperatively with their group to carry out group presentations. Cooperative learning requires that students participate actively in the group and consult with each other.

TABLE3.
THE PERCENTAGES OF THE STRONGLY AGREE ON TOP FIVE QUESTION ITEMS ON PART III

	strongly agree	agree	Either agree or disagree	disagree	Strongly disagree	Mean
11. I like to learn English through songs.	34.7%	47.1%	10.7%	7.4%	0%	4.09
16. I think multimedia (i.e.: computers, DVD, Youtube, PPT) is a good teaching instruction to learn English.	26.7%	53.3%	14.2%	5.0%	.8%	4.00
5. Watching video in English class also interests me to learn English.	24.8%	52.1%	16.5%	5.0%	1.7%	3.93
1. I learn how to work with others from the group presentation in class.	9.0%	46.7%	37.7%	4.9%	.8%	3.84
6. I think English captions help me understand the conversation better	19.0%	52.1%	21.5%	6.6%	.8%	3.82

Table 4 shows the correlation between agreement with question 33, “I think multimedia instruction can reduce my English Learning Anxiety”, and with question 32, “I think multimedia instruction is a good teaching instruction to learn

English". The Cronbach's Alpha correlation coefficient showed there was a significant positive correlation between these two responses ($r = 0.439$, $p < .05$). This positive relationship suggests that participants believe that multimedia environments enhance their language learning.

TABLE 4.
CORRELATION BETWEEN LANGUAGE ANXIETY AND MULTIMEDIA ENVIRONMENTS

	N.	Mean	SD.
FLCAS	127	3.06	.513

$r = .439^*$
 $p < .05$

The results relevant to the third question considered by this study, which discusses the impact of gender on language anxiety, are presented in table 5. The T-test results suggest that there is not a significant difference between the levels of language anxiety in males and females. However, the level of learning anxiety of female students was a little higher than that of male students. The unequal numbers of females and males could lead to this result.

TABLE 5.
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STUDENTS' GENDER AND LANGUAGE ANXIETY

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
FLCAS (PartII)	Male	34	3.07	.47	.080
	Female	90	3.11	.39	.040

$t(124) = -.422$
 $df = 124$
 $sig. 2-tail = .67$

Further analysis focused on the difference between male and female responses to individual question items. The results of this analysis indicate that there is a significant difference between male and females responses to question 11 in part three. Female students show a greater interest in learning English through songs (see Table 6).

TABLE 6.
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALES RESPONSES TO QUESTION 11

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
I like to learn English through songs.	Male	34	3.82	.950	.165
	Female	90	4.18	.815	.087

$t(124) = 2.09$
 $df = 124$
 $sig. 2-tail = .038^*$
 $p < .005$

With regard to the research question 4, on students' preferences for multimedia instruction, 81.8% of students said they enjoy learning English through songs. Youtube is an accessible learning source that can be used to capture songs and motion. Students are interested in singing English songs and learning English at the same time.

DVD presentations are the next most popular, with 76.9% of participants indicating they would like to learn English through watching DVDs in the English classroom. More than 70% of the students in this study said that watching DVDs with captions improved their understanding of the DVD's content. Consistent with previous studies by Hwang (2007), the present research suggests that the use of L2 captioned videos as an instructional tool in the EFL classroom provides learners with rich authentic visual content and comprehensible input.

In class, all students should have access to multimedia equipment so that they don't need to face the teacher directly. Some students may feel nervous when they are learning a foreign language. Therefore, using multimedia teaching may reduce some students' learning anxiety. Multimedia teaching methods emphasize the fact that the best form of interaction between the teacher and the student is unlike the traditional one-way teaching method. In an electronic environment, it is much easier to create multimedia teaching settings that develop collaborative skills and interaction, and reduce the learner's level of anxiety.

V. CONCLUSION

Overall, the present study reveals that multimedia environments have a positive impact on language learning for EFL college students in Taiwan. The results of the study indicate that the participants believe that the best way to learn English is through computer-assisted learning environments. More specifically, there is a positive relationship between reduced learning anxiety and use of a multimedia environment. Computer-assisted language learning instruction creates a non-threatening, positive and relaxed English learning environment and tends to help reduce learners' language learning anxiety and to motivate their learning. Teachers could design less stressful activities for their courses in order to help students to overcome foreign language anxiety and to improve their English proficiency. In other words, teachers should make students understand that scores do not reflect true language ability, but are only one of the indicators in assessing their language learning.

College students are particularly anxious about losing face in front of teachers and peers, and are afraid of making mistakes while speaking. This leads to a negative attitude towards language learning. Female students prefer to learn English through songs. This learning method creates a relaxed and less stressful learning process.

To summarize, the findings of this study claim that English instructors can be more aware of students' psychological needs during the process of language acquisition. Moreover, they should provide proper multimedia instruction in the class in order to help overcome students' foreign language learning anxiety.

APPENDIX LANGUAGE LEARNING ANXIETY QUESTIONNAIRE

I. Background Information Questionnaire

- Academic Major: _____
 1. Gender: _____ male _____ female
 2. Age: _____ 18-20 _____ 21-23 _____ over 24
 3. When did you start to learn English?
 _____ Kindergarten _____ Primary school _____ Junior high school

II. English version of FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale)

Statements (1) through (33) describe how you feel about learning English. Please indicate whether you (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Neither Agree or disagree, (4) Agree, or (5) Strongly Agree. Please read each statement carefully, give your first reaction to each statement, and mark an answer for every statement.

Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Neither Agree or disagree, (4) Agree, or (5) Strongly Agree

- | | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I don't worry about making mistakes in language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. I am usually at ease during tests in my language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. In language class, I can get so nervous when I forget things I know. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. It would not be nervous speaking in the foreign language with native speakers. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. I often feel like not going to my language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. I always feel that the other students speak the language better than I do. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. Language class move so quickly I worry about getting left behind. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

III. Perceptions on Freshman English course with Multimedia Instruction

(1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Neither Agree or disagree, (4) Agree, or (5) Strongly Agree.

- | | | | | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. I learn how to work with others from the group presentation in class. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I improve my listening skills when the class is in the English environment. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. The website English learning sources such as CNN learning sources, esl-lab listening help my English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I enjoy listening to ESL-lab listening exercises because it improves my listening skills. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Watching video in English class also interests me to learn English. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I think English captions help me understand the conversation better. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. I think English captions hinder my understanding of the content. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

8. English captions can improve my listening skills.	1	2	3	4	5
9. English captions can improve my vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Making the English video is interesting and encourages your language learning.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I like to learn English through songs.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I like to learn English through reading novels.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I like to learn English through online learning websites.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I like to learn English through lectures by teachers.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I like to learn English through group tasks.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I think learning holidays help me understand more about foreign cultures.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I think Multimedia (i.e.: computers, DVD, Youtube, PPT...) is a good technique to learn English.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I think Multimedia will reduce my English learning anxiety.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I think English Passport (i.e.: English corner, CEPT....) improve my English skills	1	2	3	4	5
20. What are Multimedia instruction you like the most? _____					

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The Role of “Radical Change” in Medium of Instruction and Its Impact on Learning

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Abstract—English language as Medium of Instruction (MOI) plays the central role in the students’ learning at university level. Therefore, how well students would fare in academic achievement depends largely on their English language abilities. This study explores how much students are comfortable about learning in English language, and the relevant associated problems and constraints faced by them. For this retrospective study, a self made questionnaire was used to collect the data from 300 university students by using the stratified random sampling with proportional allocation. To confirm the chosen variables Confirmatory factor analysis is used and the Discriminant analysis is used to determine the most discriminating variable among the selected variables. The characteristics of different groups of students based on their Agreement, Disagreement and Neutral Opinion regarding MOI are explored by using Cluster analysis. It is argued that productive learning process utilizing English language does not only rely on the English language knowledge, but also on other factors such as students’ ability and talent, communication skills, supportive teachers and supportive home environment, motivation and the right attitude toward language, just to name a few. The findings revealed that the majority of the students had a positive attitude and were highly motivated towards the use of English as a MOI. The conclusion also indicated that, English medium background, supportive home environment, right learning strategies and English communication skills played an important role in enhancing the positive attitude and motivation to improve their academic performance and achievements.

Index Terms—medium of instruction (MOI), English language, discriminant analysis, cluster analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Generally, it is believed that a highly motivated student with the right attitude would always strive for excellence in the educational career. Learning is not only a process of communication and interaction between the teacher and students but it has foremost and broad role in learning process. Learners actively engage in the learning process through discussion, reading, writing, analysis and evaluation, rather than passively absorbing Instructions. To learn, students have to communicate, and it is a procedure through which information is exchanged among individuals, it demands a shared understanding of language. Language, being a tool of communication, allows people to convey ideas, facts and feelings to each other and express their communicative needs. There are more or less 5,000 languages in use in the world today. Every advanced country has its own national language.

It is tremendously important requirement to have full command on language in which a person is learning. Passing of knowledge, information and skills appropriately is possible only, when MOI is acceptable and is according to the mantel state of the learner. Often those who don’t have a grip on a particular language are excluded from conversations.

In the history and in present times MOI has been the blazing issue in many countries of the world. Like so many other countries, Pakistan is also a multilingual country. In addition to Urdu, being national language, which serves as the “link language” for all the provinces, there are other languages that are used as the MOI at country, provincial and regional academic levels. Though Urdu is the national language of the country, all official correspondence is made in English at educational institutes, banks, courts, industries etc. so status of English language can never be denied in the country. As a result in Pakistan MOI is an unresolved issue due to overwhelming of other local and native languages.

Although Urdu has accorded the status of the national language, but for international communication for any purpose it is not the medium. It is renowned as the dominating language in the world. The development of the world has been connected with the dominance of the English. In the whole world English is used by millions of native and non-native speakers. According to (Crystal, 2003), there are roughly 430 million Second language (L2) users and 330 million

Home/First language(L1) users of English language. Today English is a window on the world through which we view and keep in touch with all the modern developments in the arts, science, industry, medicine and other fields. It enables students to read original books by famous authors, scientists, doctors, engineers and specialist. It helps to get familiar with modern research, as its spreading on the Internet in recent year's shows (almost 80% of the world-wide-webs pages are now written in English). Not any other language offers such a wide scope for research and scientific studies.

There are number of possible factors that can affect the learning, when the MOI is a foreign language and as a result the academic performance of students in higher education. Due to broad and varying factors, this study complements the most important factors reviewed from literature. The factors that can affect learning in L2 depends on the learner's social and economic background, formal schooling in primary language and so on (Collier, 1988). If a student has an English medium background, he/she can manage English MOI easily in higher education as compare to a student who has less studied other subjects in English or not studied at all.

The home environment has an enormous influence on the student's psychological, emotional, social and economic state. Since the parents are the first socializing agents in an individual's life, so the language in which they communicate is the language which serves the individual for his/her whole life. Students with poor learning abilities in English language may obtain lower grades than those with better learning abilities. Communication skill is also a basic requirement; it includes writing, listening, reading and speaking abilities. To understand what the question requires and how to provide the best possible answer with respect to sentence structure and importance depends on this skill.

Other than adopting the suitable learning strategies, excelling in English language also requires that students have the right attitude toward the language and learning. To be interested in English language is vital as interest serves as the "pull" factor that propels other behaviors like finding extra information from other sources, making sure concepts are clear, and learning the necessary terminologies, to name a few.

Motivation is a sort of desire for learning. It is an inner condition which activates behavior and gives it proper direction; energizes and directs objective behavior. Motivation of the students is also very significant factor for learning in L2. Students mainly had a short-term goal of passing the courses only. The role of teacher is a fundamental factor in the success for learning in L2. The productive interaction with teachers is very essential.

It is a long held debate in Pakistan whether the MOI should be the universally renowned English or the regional language. Both the options have pros and cons. English is essential when an individual goes into professional life, regional language has an advantage of being easily understood, so helping the students grasp the right information and understand better. However, in higher education and especially the professional courses English medium is a necessity. It would not be considered proper that streams like, Medicine, Engineering, MBA or any technical course can be imparted in a regional language. Government, specifically the Department of Education, has recognized the fact that English is the international language, and has to be adopted as MOI in teaching because of the availability of resources and references in English. Failures among students to secure jobs after graduating are often linked to their inability to communicate effectively in English. It is often reminded that to successfully compete in today's globalized world, mastery of the English language is a necessity. Not having command on English language results in reducing students' level of self confidence. They feel hesitation in expressing their views and in making questions. They feel embarrassment because of having language deficiency. They have to struggle hard with gaining competence not only in the subject but also in the language. The understanding of textual material has been shown to be problematic for them and the readability of the text is difficult for them. Although they are aware that English can win them good jobs with rich salary if they are good in English, but the biggest factor is that in spite of studying English as a subject, they do not get exposure to situations where they can use English or they can observe how English is used by others. Their knowledge is in fact, restricted to writing an examination in English.

In Pakistan, very little systematic research has been published, considering MOI and to explore the characteristics of students who accept English as MOI. The findings not only provide factors that can affect the learning of university students regarding MOI. But also provide practical support to students for developing themselves and help the teachers in identifying their role. The research objectives are:

1. To identify and confirm the factors those are paramount for student's concept development in a second language.
2. To determine the most discriminating factor among those who accept and those who do not accept English as medium of instruction.
3. To explore the characteristics of the students who accept, do not accept or neutral about English as a medium of instruction.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The reviewed literature from the past studies conducted in different countries about the controversial issue of MOI, showed different factors that can effect the learning process and as a result the academic achievement of a student. Cotterall (1999) used factor analysis and identified factors which the literature suggests are important in successful language learning. Chamot and Dinary identified the strategies that effective learners use for reading and writing in a foreign language by focusing on high rated and low rated students. Talib (2009) highlighted that good learning outcome does not only rely on the teaching methodology but also on factors such as students' ability and talent, language proficiency, and the right attitude toward learning. Parveen, et al. (2007) claimed that learner should be familiar with

the medium of instruction for sound learning. Guzman (2006) analyzed the English language learning difficulties of students relative to their sociolinguistic competence, motivation and cultural factors GÖMLEKSİZ (2001) explored the factors in the second language acquisition process i.e. cognitive development, socio-economic and cultural background, ability to acquire a language, age and motivation of the learner. Cooper (1987) explored the effect of Second Language on Test Scores, Intelligence and Achievement and found that Economic background, did not affect students' performance. Jalaluddin, et al. (2009) and Berman and Cheng (2000) determined the Perceived difficulties in academic achievement with English language and argued that the inability to communicate in English has been one of the reasons of high unemployment rate, Environment not conducive to language learning further add to the problem. Chimbanga (2010) suggested that 'high-proficiency' students are able to select the main points and to combine them to form a coherent summary.

Wilkinson (2005) reported how language affected the teaching of content in English medium programme. Teachers make changes to instructional methods, allowing in some cases code switching because teaching through English demands more time so that terms and concepts can be explained. Vandal (2004) found that in Pakistan there was variation in the medium of instruction, majority follow the government prescribed Urdu language and a small number offer instructions in the English Language. Duxbury and Tsai (2010) identified that motivation, student beliefs, student personality, teacher interactions, student-background in the language, and cooperative learning influenced levels of foreign language anxiety among foreign language students at a university. Okan (2009), Vaezi (2008) and Obeidat (2005) explored that talented students were very enthusiastic about learning English they had very high motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English. They were more inclined towards bilingualism and interactively motivated to study second language and there was no significant differences in student's motivation related to sex, parent's proficiency and level of study. Wei (2007) examined the motivational pattern in relation to the anxiety of English learners. Fakeye (2010), Bidin, et al. (2009) and Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2009) claimed that there was a positive relationship between Students' Attitude and their academic achievement in English Language and revealed that most of students had positive attitudes towards the social value and educational status of English.

III. SURVEY METHODOLOGY

The population of the study consisted of the students of B.S (Hons) both natural and social sciences, those who had completed the first semester and are studying at University of Gujrat. Stratified random sampling has been applied, in order to ensure the adequate representation of each discipline in the sample. To determine the sample size of the study a table developed by Bartlett, et al. (2001) was used. Since the total population size is 1170 and the data is categorical so the sample size 'n' is taken as 25% of the population with 0.05 margin of error. By using the proportional allocation method a sample of 300 students is selected. Firstly, strata's are made with respect to the pure and general sciences and then each designed stratum is further stratified on the basis of departments. And finally these strata's are stratified according to the gender of students. 118 students are from natural science (50 males and 68 females) and 182 students from social science (105 males and 77 females). Self made questionnaire as a main instrument was employed, it consisted of two parts. First part was about demographic information and second part constituted the factors selecting through literature review and measured through total number of 67 questions and measured using the 5-point Likert Scale.

Descriptive statistics are carried out for all items involved in the study. Confirmatory factor analysis is used to confirm the factors. Discriminant analysis and Two-Step Cluster Analysis are used to fulfill the main objectives of the study. The cluster analysis is an exploratory data analysis tool aims at sorting different objects into groups in a way that the degree of association between two objects is maximal if they belong to the same group and minimal otherwise. The term cluster analysis does not identify a particular statistical method or model, as do Discriminant analysis and factor analysis. Often we don't have to make any assumptions about the underlying distribution of the data. There are numerous ways to sort cases into groups, Hierarchical cluster analysis, k-means cluster, and two-step cluster are the major types of clustering; in this study two-step cluster analysis is used. It provides a simple profile of individuals and also suggests how groups of units are determined such that units within groups are similar in some respect and unlike those from other groups.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In order to observe the study performance of students, the results of descriptive statistics are calculated for all variables but results of some of the important variables are discussed here. These results provide simple summaries about the sample and the measures.

A. Descriptive Analysis

Average marks of the respondent in English course (intermediate), out of 200 are 128.53 and its S.D is 26. Mean GPA of students is 3.06 out of 4.00 and Its S.D is 0.48 which shows that GPA of students is close to mean. 34.3% of the respondents belong to rural areas and 65.7% are from urban areas. 48.7% of the respondents had never studied in an English medium school at all, while 27.7% of the respondents had throughout studied in an English medium school. At

intermediate level 31.3% of the respondents studied in Urdu medium and 68.7% studied in an English medium. 39.3% of the respondents speak Urdu at home, 29% speak Punjabi and only 3% of them also speak English at home. 54.7% respondents can speak Urdu most fluently, 17.7% can speak Punjabi most fluently and only 11.3% can speak English fluently. These results indicate that students like English language but they do not have the exposure to this language as it is not their home language. It also shows that the tendency to use the mixture of English and Urdu is more as compare to use English separately. Total scores are computed by combining the variables within each factor into a single score that replaced the original with new composite variables, to be used for further analysis.

B. Factors that can Affect Learning, While MOI is English

Firstly, factors are chosen from the reviewed literature that can influence the learning of students in a second language e.g. Educational Background, Home Environment, Attitude, Motivation and so on. Confirmatory factor analysis has been applied for the conformation of these factors. All the selected variables in each factor are confirmed. Most of the factors are meeting the criteria of conformation, as shown in Table 4.1 and can be used for further analysis.

TABLE 4.1:
MEASURES OF GOODNESS OF FIT FOR ALL THE FACTORS THAT CAN AFFECT LEARNING

Recommended Factors	χ^2 /d.f	GFI	AGF _I	RMS _{EA}	Recommended Factors	χ^2 /d.f	GFI	AGF _I	RMS _{EA}
Minimum Criteria	≤ 5	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\leq .08$	Minimum Criteria	≤ 5	$\geq .90$	$\geq .90$	$\leq .08$
1.Educational Background	4.60	0.92	0.86	0.12	6.Class Performance	3.00	0.93	0.89	0.08
2.Home Environment	10.9	0.94	0.81	0.18	7.Attitude	7.00	0.88	0.78	0.15
3.Learning Strategies	2.29	0.98	0.95	0.07	8.Motivation	4.50	0.91	0.84	0.11
4.English Communication	2.89	0.98	0.94	0.08	9.Teacher's Role	2.68	0.97	0.94	0.07
5.Academic Performance	2.76	0.98	0.94	0.08					

C. Determination of Most Discriminating Factor

One of the objectives of the study is to determine the factor, which is playing the most significant role in differentiating among those who accept and those who do not accept English as MOI. To explore that most discriminating factor among the selected factors mentioned in Table 4.1, the technique of discriminant analysis has been applied.

The classification functions are used to assign cases to groups. The Discriminant model assigns the case to the group whose classification function obtains the highest score. All the coefficients of classification function are smaller for those who DO NOT ACCEPT English, as MOI. It suggests that students with less ability in all selected factors do not accept English as MOI. Box's M is 43.281 with F-value 1.131 and P-value 0.271, so it is not significant. Therefore, population covariance matrices are equal.

The test of equality of group means measure each selected factors potential before the model is created. Each test displays the results of a one-way ANOVA for the independent factors. According to the results in Table 4.2, every variable in Discriminant model is significant except Educational background. Wilks' lambda is another measure of a variable's potential. Smaller values indicate the variable is better at discriminating between groups. The table suggests that the motivation is best discriminator among those who accept and those who do not accept English as MOI, followed by the role of the teacher, academic performance, learning strategies and so on.

TABLE 4.2:
TESTS OF EQUALITY OF GROUP MEANS

	Wilks' Lambda	F	Sig.		Wilks' Lambda	F	Sig.
Educational Background	.993	1.438	.232	Class performance	.930	15.759	.000
Home environment	.965	7.517	.007	Motivation	.658	107.873	.000
Learning strategies	.817	46.517	.000	Teacher role	.782	58.027	.000
English communication skill	.929	15.785	.000	Academic performance	.802	51.443	.000

In addition to measures for checking the contribution of individual predictors to the Discriminant model, the Discriminant Analysis procedure provides the Eigen values and Wilks' lambda for seeing how well the Discriminant model as a whole fits the data. Wilks' lambda is 0.423, its smaller value indicate greater discriminatory ability of the function.

Value of Chi square is 175.571 with P-value 0.000; the small significance value indicates that the Discriminant function does better than chance at separating the groups of students. Eigen value is 1.365, supporting the model. Canonical Discriminant Functions reported the multivariate measures of overall model fit. Discriminant function is highly significant (.000) and displays a canonical correlation of .760. We can interpret it by squaring it. $(0.760)^2 = 0.5776$. Thus, 57.76 percent of the dependent variable can be accounted for by this model, which include 8 independent variables.

The classification Table A.1 shows the practical results of using the Discriminant model. Cells on the diagonal of the cross-classification are correct classifications. Cells off the diagonal of the cross classification are incorrect

classifications. Of the cases used to create the model, 49 of the 53 students who previously do not accept English as MOI are classified correctly. While 4 are classified incorrectly. 146 of the 157 who accept English as MOI are classified correctly. Overall, 92.9% of the cases are classified correctly. 89.2 percent of the cases not selected are correctly classified by the model.

D. Determination of Characteristics of Each Group of Student

The central objective of the study is identifying groups of individuals, whose characteristics are similar and they accept English as MOI but different from individuals in other groups who do not accept or neutral about MOI and thinks that MOI has no influence on their learning. To fulfill this objective the technique of two step cluster analysis is used. The process, by which the number of clusters is chosen, is summarized in Auto-clustering Table A.1. The clustering criterion (Bayesian information Criterion) is computed for each potential number of clusters. It suggests that the smallest BIC is 1995.313, for which the number of clusters is 3.

The cluster distribution indicates that out of 300 total cases, no cases were excluded from the analysis. 92 cases are assigned to the first cluster, 185 to the second, and 23 to the third. Number of individuals assigned to the second cluster has the highest percentage of 61.7%. Whereas, percentage of first cluster is 30.70 and third is 7.7%.

The Centroids are shown in Table A.2; it indicates the clusters separated by the factors. It shows the characteristics of the students in cluster 1 who thinks that MOI should be English. They have a very good educational and English medium background with mean 24.3478. Their home environment is supportive regarding English language with mean 18.00. Their learning strategies are better than the students in second and third clusters with mean 21.8696. Their English communication skills are higher than students in rest of the clusters with mean 20.6957. Their Class performance is good with mean 38.2826 and they do not face the language anxiety. They have a positive attitude about learning in English language with mean 35.7391. They have a very high motivation with mean 35.1413 as compare to the students in other clusters, who are neutral or do not accept English as a MOI. The role of their teachers is also very supportive and encouraging towards English language with mean 21.8913. Their overall academic performance is also very good with mean 11.4022.

The characteristics of the students in cluster 2, who are neutral about the MOI whether it should be English or Urdu reveals that they have a good educational background with mean 21.0108. Their home environment is supportive with mean 16.3027. Their learning strategies are good with mean 19.1189. Their English communication skills are also good with mean 19.7730. Their Class performance is good with mean 34.7405 and they do not face the language anxiety. Although they have a positive attitude about learning in English language with mean 30.8270 but it is less as compare to the students, who accepts English as a medium of instruction. They have a high motivation with mean 29.3243 but it is less as compare to the students in first clusters. The role of their teachers is also supportive and encouraging towards English language with mean 19.4162. Their overall academic performance is also good with mean 10.0811.

It also reveals the characteristics of the students in cluster 3, who do not accept English as a MOI. They do not have a good educational and English medium background with mean 12.6957. Their home environment is almost as supportive as of those in cluster 2, with mean 16.0870. Their learning strategies are not very good with mean 15.00. Their English communication skills are normal with mean 17.4783. Their Class performance is also not very good with mean 29.5652 and they have to face the language anxiety in classroom. They also have a positive attitude about learning in English language with mean 28.1739 but it is very less as compare to the students, who accepts English as a medium of instruction. Their level of motivation is very low with mean 20.6522 as compare to the students in first and second clusters. The role of their teachers is not as supportive and encouraging towards English language as of first and second cluster students, with mean 15.7391. Their overall academic performance is also not very good with mean 7.9565. Finally, it can be said that high accepters of English MOI are in first cluster, average accepters are in second cluster and the mean of all the independent variables is less than the average value for the third cluster.

To clarify the properties of the clusters the cluster frequency by the acceptance level is used. It indicates that Cluster 1 is comprised entirely of the students who accept English as a MOI with frequency 92. Clusters 2 contain only the students who are neutral about the MOI whether it should be English or not with frequency 185. Cluster 3 is comprised entirely of the students who do not accept English as a MOI with frequency 23.

1. Factor-wise Importance

The "by variable" importance chart for first cluster is shown in Fig. 4.1. The variables on the Y axis are in descending order of importance. Motivation is the most important variable for this cluster while attitude, educational background and role of teacher are also very important variables in this cluster. For determining the significance of each variable the dashed straight up lines mark the critical values. A variable to be significant, its t statistic must exceed the dashed line in either positive or negative way. The importance measures for all of the variables exceed the critical value in this chart except English communication skills, so we can conclude that all of the continuous variables except English communication skills contribute to the formation of the first cluster. It also indicates that for Cluster 1, all the variables takes larger than average values. These results confirm the trends observed by the Centroids results.

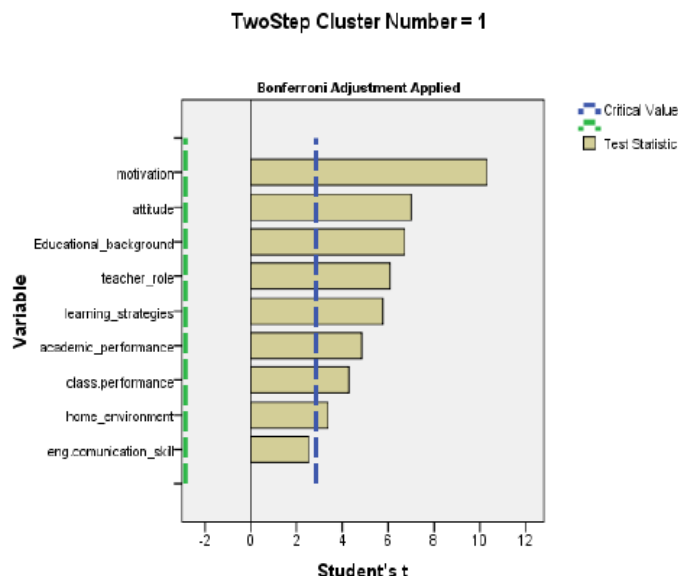


Fig. 4.1: By-variable importance chart for cluster no. 1

The "by variable" importance chart for second cluster is shown in Fig. 4.2. It indicates that Attitude is the most important variable for this cluster while motivation is also very important variables in this cluster. The importance measures for only the variables of attitude and motivation exceeds the critical value in it, so we can conclude that only these two continuous variables contribute to the formation of the second cluster. It also indicates that for Cluster 2, all the variables takes smaller than average values. These results confirm the trends observed by the Centroids results.

The "by variable" importance chart for third cluster is shown in Fig. 4.3. The variables on the Y axis are in downward order of importance. Motivation is the most important variable for this cluster while learning strategies, class performance, role of teacher and attitude are also very important variables in this cluster. The chart for Cluster 2 shows that home environment is not important to the formation of this cluster as it does not exceed the critical value. So we can conclude that all of the continuous variables except home environment contribute to the formation of the third cluster. It also indicates that for Cluster 3, all the variables takes smaller than average values. These results confirm the trends observed by the Centroids results.

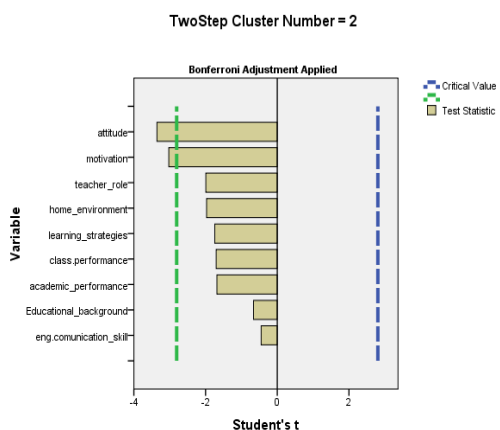


Fig.4.2: By-variable importance chart for cluster no. 2

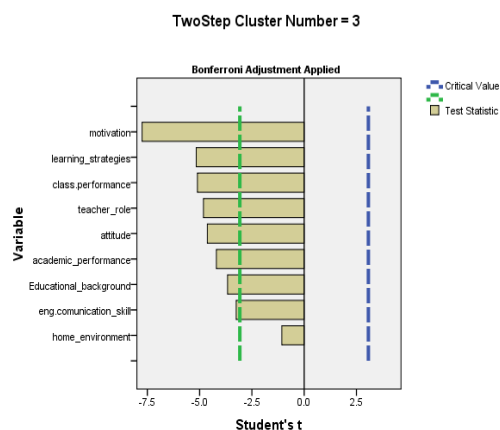


Fig.4.3: By-variable importance chart for cluster no. 3

Through these results we can conclude that students who thinks that MOI should be English, have a very good educational and English medium background, supportive home environment regarding English language, good learning strategies, English communication skills, Class performance and academic performance, and have a positive attitude and very high motivation. The role of their teachers is also very supportive and encouraging towards English language. While the students who are neutral about MOI, although they are good in studies but they lack in positive attitude towards English language and they are less motivated. On the other hand those who think that MOI should not be English are very few and they are not overall good students.

E. Conclusion

The study examined the effects of MOI on learning of students, when they are learning in a foreign language i.e. English. It also explores that which factor play an important role for measuring student's learning efficiency, and also explore the characteristics of the students who thinks that MOI should be English. The findings showed that almost half of the students think that by improving the speaking skill of English language, they can improve their overall learning in English. Three clusters of students are made by using Two Step Cluster Analysis, first cluster contains the characteristics of students who accept English as a MOI, they are highly motivated and have a positive attitude towards learning in English language and overall they are very good students. Second cluster consist of the characteristics of students who are neutral about MOI whether it should be English or the national language Urdu, although overall they are good students but they are less motivated and do not have a positive attitude towards learning in English language. The third cluster comprised of the characteristics of students does not accept English as a MOI, overall they are not very good students, they do not have a supportive home environment and English medium educational background, therefore they are not motivated and have a negative attitude towards learning in English language. The findings present a picture which confirms that the teacher, the class atmosphere, the educational background, as well as personal characteristics of the student i.e. their learning strategies, attitude and English communication skill will have an influence on the individual's learning. Discriminant analysis suggested that motivation is the most discriminating factor among the selected factors. Results also disclose that most of the students realize the tremendous potential, English language can bring to their learning. They will continue to use English language despite facing problems. Almost all of the students expressed their perception that learning in the English language is a good opportunity for them to be more successful in the future. They argue that teachers must always use English language during lectures to produce successful learning.

F. Limitations of the Study

Due to financial and time concerns only the students from the University of Gujrat have been included in the study as a respondent. Only the students from the second semester have been taken for observing the impact of language on students learning. Within restricted time frame it does not allow to use a large sample which is required for the reliability of the survey and generalizing findings and making inferences from a sample about the population.

G. Recommendations / Suggestions

A similar type of study can be conducted for longitudinally collected data, So that it can be observe how medium of instruction, impacts on learning with the passage of time. For high Academic Performance, the students need to improve their Learning Strategies, then their communication Skills which assists them in presentation skills, assignment writing and reading materials related to course. Educators should also motivate by encouraging them to learn English, frequently reminding them of the importance of mastering English; to attain their personal goals such as to further studies, travel abroad, prepare for the working in all over the world. This is due to the fact that some of the respondents are not aware of the purpose of learning English and learn it because it is required in the system. Finally, this study can be expected to pave the way for other exploratory studies on student's learning relative to their language learning.

APPENDIX

TABLE A.1:
CLASSIFICATION RESULTS

		Predicted Group Membership				
			Acceptance (Binned)	Don't Accept	Accept	Total
Cases Selected	Original	Count	Don't Accept	49	4	53
			Accept	11	146	157
	%		Don't Accept	92.5	7.5	100.0
			Accept	7.0	93.0	100.0
	Cross-validated ^a	Count	Don't Accept	49	4	53
			Accept	14	143	157
%		Don't Accept	92.5	7.5	100.0	
		Accept	8.9	91.1	100.0	
Cases Not Selected	Original	Count	Don't Accept	14	3	17
			Accept	4	44	48
	%	Don't Accept	82.4	17.6	100.0	
		Accept	8.3	91.7	100.0	

a. Cross validation is done only for those cases in the analysis. In cross validation, each case is classified by the functions derived from all cases other than that case.

b. 92.9% of selected original grouped cases correctly classified.

c. 89.2% of unselected original grouped cases correctly classified.

TABLE A.2:
AUTO CLUSTERING

Number of Clusters	Schwarz's Bayesian Criterion (BIC)	BIC Change	Ratio of BIC Changes	Ratio of Distance Measures
1	2495.565			
2	2089.273	-406.292	1.000	2.501
3	1995.313	-93.960	.231	2.177
4	2013.849	18.536	-.046	1.367
5	2058.040	44.191	-.109	1.361
6	2120.752	62.712	-.154	1.048
7	2185.828	65.076	-.160	1.011
8	2251.421	65.592	-.161	1.212
9	2325.490	74.069	-.182	1.038
10	2401.031	75.541	-.186	1.093
11	2479.861	78.830	-.194	1.025
12	2559.555	79.694	-.196	1.276
13	2646.678	87.123	-.214	1.017
14	2734.247	87.570	-.216	1.003
15	2821.897	87.649	-.216	1.165

TABLE A.3:
CENTROIDS

Mean	Cluster			Combined mean	Combined Std. Deviation
	1	2	3		
Educational background	24.3478	21.0108	12.6957	21.3967	7.89051
Home environment	18.0000	16.3027	16.0870	16.8067	3.51432
Learning strategies	21.8696	19.1189	15.0000	19.6467	4.39540
Eng communication skill	20.6957	19.7730	17.4783	19.8800	3.30990
Class performance	38.2826	34.7405	29.5652	35.4300	6.21884
Attitude	35.7391	30.8270	28.1739	32.1300	5.66274
Motivation	35.1413	29.3243	20.6522	30.4433	6.24742
Teacher role	21.8913	19.4162	15.7391	19.8933	3.67518
Academic performance	11.4022	10.0811	7.9565	10.3233	2.26034

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Humanistic Education: Concerns, Implications and Applications

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Abstract—Humanistic approach introduced by the ideas of Scholars like Erickson, Roger, and Maslow began to permeate the field of second language teaching and learning towards the end of 1970. According to Lei (2007) humanistic approach emphasizes the importance of the inner world of the learner and places the individual's thought, emotions and feelings at the forefront of all human development. Due to this new shift of focus, language education and pedagogy moved away from the previous behavioristic and mentalistic approaches, and as a result, a new kind of education known as humanistic education emerged. Consequently, significant changes occurred in all aspects of language education, that is, the traditional roles of teachers and learners were redefined and the previously authoritarian teaching practices were replaced by learner-centered classrooms. This paper is of two-fold. First, it is going to take a detailed look at the main principles and features of humanistic education, and second, it is aimed at discussing the implications and applications of humanistic education. Finally, it tries to clarify the new roles and responsibilities considered for language teachers to be able to fully engage the students in the learning process.

Index Terms—humanistic approach, humanistic education, implications, applications

I. INTRODUCTION

From 1970s, following the emergence of constructivist school of thought and the resulting social/interactionist view, the humanistic principles rooted in Erickson, Roger and Maslow's ideas began to permeate and influence the field of second language teaching and learning. Based on its theories, the receiver in education is considered first a human being, and then considered a learner. According to Wang (2005) "if a person cannot satisfy his basic needs physically and psychologically, he might fail to focus on his language learning whole-heartedly. Affect is not only the basic need of human body, but the condition and premise of the other physical and psychological activities". As said by Lei (2007), the Humanistic approach, on which humanistic education is based, emphasizes the importance of the inner world of the learner and places the individual's thought, feelings, and emotions at the forefront of all human development.

Aloni (2007) remarks that unlike the previously authoritarian educational traditions, which overlooked physical or psychological humiliation of unruly students, humanistic education is after all committed to a social and intellectual climate defending students against intellectual oppression, physical punishment, and dishonor. According to the humanistic stance which says that people's unique dignity remains in their creative imagination, critical reason, moral sensitivity, autonomous will and unique personality, it is crucial for humanistic education to prioritize the value of human dignity over any other economic, religious, nationalistic or ideological set of values (Aloni, 2007).

Moskovitz (1978, cited in Stevick, 1990) in quoting Combs claims that: Today there is a field of education experiencing attention, and its spread appears to be related to concern for personal development, self-acceptance, and acceptance by others, put differently, making students more and more human. Humanistic education is therefore interested in educating the whole person—the intellectual and also the emotional dimensions. It is most directly related to what is referred to as the 'third force', or humanistic psychology, and the human potential movement.

The goal of humanistic education, according to Maples (1979), moves beyond cognitive and intellectual education to let in the education of the whole person. It regards personal growth and the growth of creativity and to some extent the self-directed learning. The end of education is the same as the end of psychotherapy: making a fully functioning person. Receptiveness to experience, an existential path of living in which life is ongoing, flexible, adaptive process, and faith in the organism as the foundation for behavior are characteristics of the person who is able to learn and to conform to change (Maples, 1979).

Lei (2007) maintains that the humanistic education is characterized by learner-centeredness in which the aim is not merely developing the cognitive and linguistic capabilities of the learners but also paying attention to the learners' emotions and feelings.

Considering these points into account, obviously the humanistic education brought about significant changes in the field of language education: the roles of teachers and learners were redefined, learners' needs were given priority and language pedagogy went through crucial modifications. In order to clarify the points, this paper focuses, firstly on the main principles of the humanistic education and, secondly, discusses its important implications and applications through the following lines.

II. WHAT IS HUMANISTIC EDUCATION: RATIONALE AND PRINCIPLES

With regard to the rationale behind the humanistic education, according to Arnold (1998) the humanistic philosophy grew out of a reaction to the neurotic and mechanistic currents implicit in psychoanalysis and behaviorism and their description of human nature. Alder (1927) then Maslow (1943) paved the way in giving credence to a scientific approach to the role of higher human motives and values in understanding human behavior, rather than ascribing human behaviour to unconscious and irrational neuroses or the 'push and pull' of various contingencies of reinforcement (Arnold, 1998).

According to Gage and Berliner (1991, cited in Aloni, 2007) the humanistic psychology can be categorized into three main principles namely 'individual self worth', 'feelings are as important as facts', and 'personal, social and moral development becomes at least as important as academic development'. Regarding the first principle, Gage and Berliner (1991) remark that the emphasis upon the value of students rests on the awareness of their dignity and rights as unique human beings with each person being on a path of self-actualization. Secondly, a student's feelings and aspirations are respected with attention to the emotional side of learning, leading to the development of a student's positive self-concept and self-esteem, which in turn develops self-efficacy.

In reaction to the humanistic principles, some scholars argue that humanistic principles put extreme emphasis on students' emotions and forget the main focus of learning which is cognitive development. In replying to this criticism, Arnold (1998, p. 8) states that affect must be given to the already living cognitive concentration to optimize language learning: it is not a problem of lowering standards for students' cognitive development, but a question of realizing that it is beneficial for teachers to opt to focus at times on affective issues.

In Arnold's (1998) view, the humanistic education places much emphasis on creating a moral climate in the group. Davis cites that such an approach is based on Habermas (1984, 1990) who has made important contributions regarding the place of values in discourse procedures. Arnold advocates an approach similar to Habermas 'ideal speech situation' where participants are free from coercion and deception can weigh evidence objectively, are open to other perspectives, and can reflect critically on their own assumptions.

Moskowitz (1978, p. 11, cited in Stevick, 1990) comments that, in the process of language learning, youngsters, particularly, are exploring to find their identity and are in demand of self-acceptance. These youngsters complain of feelings of closing off and disengagement. In fact, what is called "humanistic" education is considered a concern for personal growth, self-acceptance, and also acceptance by others, put differently, making students more human. In Moskowitz' view, the humanistic education of which she speaks is most directly related to humanistic psychology, and the human potential movement.

As the very basic premise in humanistic approach, one may ask: what does it mean to be more human, or to realize one's potential? For Moskowitz (1978, cited in Stevick, 1990) there seem to be two major emphases. The first is on feelings. Humanistic education focuses on learning which is affected by how students feel about themselves. It is interested in educating the complete person. Moskowitz' second emphasis is on bringing out the uniqueness of each individual. To be self-actualizing is to function to one's fullest capacity. In this connection, Moskowitz quotes Rogers' conviction that one should get in touch with one's real self, the self that underlies surface behavior. (Moskowitz, 1978, p.12, cited in Stevick, 1990, p.24)

Except Moskovitz, other authors have talked about humanism and humanistic education. In fact, the glosses that other writers have provided for 'humanistic' have been briefer. For instance, Medgyes (1986) cites Moskowitz, and says:

In both the Humanistic-Psychological Approach and the Communicative Approach, learners are seen not so much as full-time linguistic objects at whom language teaching is aimed, but rather as human individuals whose personal dignity and integrity, and the complexity of whose ideas, thoughts, needs, and sentiments, should be respected. Foreign language teachers must contribute to the self-actualizing process. (p.109)

Rivers (1983) speaks of a humanistic approach that came to the fore during the era of progressive education under the leadership of John Dewey. She continues:

In the individualization movement of the 1970s, humanistic education continued its struggle for recognition of the primacy of the individual personality against deterministic behaviorist emphases. Though content is not neglected in a class that uses humanistic techniques, in an affective or humanistic approach, students are encouraged to talk about themselves, to be open with others, and to express their feelings. (pp. 23-24)

Rivers (1983) goes on to say that a person with this kind of education is "open to new ideas, open to trying the untried, yet not swept away by intermittent waves of fads and superficial enthusiasms, because there is an anchor of conviction that results from understanding beliefs one has made one's own. The foreign language teacher is essentially a humanist". (p. 23)

Brumfit (1984) likewise notes the emphasis on interpersonal relations and on fusion of the cognitive and the affective, and quotes from Maples a series of adjectives sometimes used by students in describing the personal feelings that have accompanied 'humanistic' education: 'sensitive', 'empathetic', 'loving', 'fair', and soon.

In summary, among the main premises underlying 'humanistic' education, Moskovitz (1978, cited in Johnson & Johnson, 1998) enumerates the following:

- A principal purpose of education is to provide learning and an environment that facilitate the achievement of the full potential of students.

- Personal growth as well as cognitive growth is a responsibility of the school. Therefore education should deal with both dimensions of humans—the cognitive or intellectual and the affective or emotional.

- For learning to be significant, feelings must be recognized and put to use.

- Significant learning is discovered for oneself.

- Human beings want to actualize their potential.

- Having healthy relationships with other classmates is more conducive to learning.

- Learning about oneself is a motivating factor in learning.

- Increasing one's self-esteem is a motivating factor in learning.

Finally to Moskovitz (1978, cited in Mishra, 2000),

"Affective education is effective education. It works on increasing skills in developing and maintaining good relationships, showing concern and support for others, and receiving these as well. It is a special type of interaction in itself, consisting of sharing, caring, acceptance, and sensitivity. It facilitates understanding, genuineness, support and interdependence. Humanistic education is a way of relating that emphasizes self-discovery, introspection, self-esteem, and getting in touch with the strengths and positive qualities of others and ourselves. It lets learning concern more for others and ourselves. Furthermore, humanistic education is fun". (p. 14)

Based on the main principles and characteristics of humanistic education mentioned above, one thing is evidently common across all various statements and that is the special attention given to the role of students' affect and emotions which, along with their cognitive and linguistic abilities, play a crucial role in the process of language learning and teaching. These principles shifted the focus from previous teacher-fronted classrooms and guided the education towards considering the learners as the key in the process. As a result of this new focus, significant changes occurred in all aspects of language education. In order to clarify the point, next sections are assigned to detailed descriptions of the main instructional implications and applications of the humanistic approach.

III. EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF HUMANISTIC EDUCATION

As Lei (2007) states, the humanistic approach as one of the mainstreams of contemporary educational theories and practices has influenced the second language pedagogy over the past two decades and has led to certain implications and applications both for language teachers and learners. Many scholars and authors, investigating humanistic education, have focused on this specific issue some of the important ones are discussed through the following lines.

One of the main goals of educational practices has been mentioned by many scholars to be encouraging the power of critical thinking in students. As to critical thinking, Richards et al (2005) define it as "a level of reading comprehension or discussion skills when the learner is able to question and evaluate what is read or heard" (p. 174). This implicates that in learning the students are actively engaged in a deeper processing. Respect should be paid to students as independent thinkers who are proficient at particular mental processes, such as analyzing, inferring, synthesizing and evaluating. Humanistic education giving priority to learners' psychological states can prepare optimal learning conditions and, as a result, foster critical thinking in the learners.

According to Brown (2007) in adjusting Rogers's notions to language learning/ teaching we need to make sure that learners realize themselves and communicate this self to others openly and non-defensively. Teachers who are regarded as facilitators should consequently provide the nurturing setting for learners to build their meanings in cooperation with others. When teachers rather programmatically expose students to knowledge, which they later on consume, they may make a climate of defensive learning in which most learners try to protect themselves from competition with fellow students, from failure, from criticism and possible punishment. Here, classroom activities and materials in language learning must consequently employ meaningful contexts of real communication with students working together in the process of becoming "people."

From the humanistic process perspective, Rogers (1961, 1983, cited in Zhang & Atkin, 2010, p. 122) advocates a student-centered approach. He underlines relevance, participation, negotiation, self-assessment, the centrality of the self-actualizing potential, and the reach for personal manifestation and creativity in fulfilling individual learning needs. The basic tenets determined in the humanistic learning process are that much important learning is gained by doing, and learning is eased when the student focuses on responsibly in the learning process.

O'Hara (2003, cited Zhang & Atkin, 2010), referring to Rogers's ideas, uses the term "transformative pedagogy" to show that in humanistic education the concentration is away from teaching and moves toward learning. The end of education is the expedition of change and learning. In fact, learning how to learn is more significant than being taught something from the "higher-up" viewpoint of a teacher who unilaterally decides what should be taught. Brown (2007)

regrets that many of our present standards in education, in proposing curricular goals and prescribing what shall be learned, deny persons' freedom and dignity.

In the light of humanistic philosophy, McKenna (1995) argues that the objective of education is to facilitate the development of the student to achieve self-actualization. Humanistic processes are described as a series of progressive changes which optimize the potential of the student towards the goal of inherent purposes, internal organization and infinite creativity.

The implications of a humanistic approach, as Huo (2006) states, have been also considered for the educational administration itself. The mainspring in such an organization is should be the motivation for growth and learning which is implicit in each person. The task of decision maker is so to fix up the organizational conditions and ways of operation that people can reach their own goals by fostering the jointly defined ends of the institution. The administration seeks to ease the ability of teachers and students to formulate and use their potential, via removing obstructions and making a climate of valuing, prizing, and trusting. Everyone takes part in the organizational process, sharing initiative, responsibility and authority. In-service training would be used to build up facilitative leaders—person who could listen, accept, understand, clarify, and communicate—who could assist individuals and groups grow.

From language learning aspect, Ely (1986) maintains that the variables of class participation and sociability are the possible major determinants of language proficiency. Ghaith and Diab (2008) reveal that language acquisition is determined by interaction among a number of student-related and contextual factors, and the using of humanistic method of teaching can increase students' motivation and class sociability. As it is obvious, all these statements attempt to articulate the central proposition that humanistic education have positive influences on students' learning competence.

Hamachek (1977, as cited in, Williams & Burden, 1997) provides certain useful examples of the kind of educational implications that follow from taking a Humanistic approach. First of all, every learning experience should be considered within the context of assisting the learners to grow a sense of personal identity and associating that to the realistic future goals; that is, learning should be personalized as much as possible. This is in keeping with the view that one significant task for the teacher is differentiation, i.e., identifying and attempting to meet the individual learner's needs within the context of the classroom group.

Emotional intelligence concerns the capacity for knowing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves and for dealing with emotions well in ourselves, and in our relationships. Emotional intelligence depicts abilities distinct from, but complementary to academic intelligence, the solely cognitive capacities measured by IQ. It is demonstrated that when teachers attend of the students' EQ, students will be more probable to take care of their own IQ. Consequently it's better for teachers to communicate freely and empathically with their students and urge them to do the same (Cited in Wang, 2005, p. 4).

The humanistic approach, as Stevick (1990) expresses, has also some implications for teacher education. A mix of the cognitive and the affective in education and a concern upon the interpersonal conditions for facilitating significant learning demand changes in the preparation of teachers. Teacher education presently emphasizes subject matter and methods of cognitive learning. To develop good interpersonal conditions, counseling learning or whole-person learning should be fostered and developed through teacher education programs. Stevick (1990) maintains that such a program of preparation would require many capable facilitators of small-group processes. Task-oriented groups of staff members should be formed to consider the question "How can this school help the whole person learn?" These groups should not be limited to cognitive discussions, but would focus upon the whole person. The groups would consist of volunteers who were willing to become involved experientially as well as cognitively. A probable outcome of such teacher-education programs would be "free-university" type of teacher-training institution in which the students would form their own curricula, participate in the facilitation of learning, and find other means of evaluation than grades (Stevick, 1990).

IV. APPLICATIONS OF HUMANISTIC EDUCATION IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Earl Stevick might be the most significant figure for humanistic approach. He (1980) remarks: "in a language course, success depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom". From humanistic approach, there come up three prominent methodologies---the silent way, suggestopedia and community language learning.

The silent way initiated from Gattengo (1972), and it means the teacher remains as silent as he can when the learners are engaged in learning, but the teacher still stays the firm controller of the class. Suggestopedia is established by Lozanov (1979) on the principle that people are able to learn more if their minds are clear of other things and likewise free of anxiety. Community language learning was founded by Curran (1972), on the basis of counseling, that is, the learners sit in a circle as a community and determine what they want to say. Based on Williams and Burden (1997), the three methodologies have a number of shared things. First, they are grounded more firmly on psychology rather than linguistics. Second, they all regard affective aspects of learning and language as important. Third, they are all interested in treating the learners as a complete person and with complete person involvement in the learning process. Fourth, they see the significance of a learning environment which minimizes anxiety and increases personal security.

Within the humanistic education, classroom activities occupy an integral part of instructional practices, so that special care has to be taken in their construction by teachers. Moskovitz (1978, cited in Johnson & Johnson, 1998) enumerates a number of features for activities within the humanistic classroom context among which are:

- They should accentuate the positive and avoid the negative focus.
- Low risk, i.e. non-personally threatening activities, should be used.
- Activities should give students the opportunity to verbalize before others something they like about themselves, since customarily we are meant to keep this to ourselves.
- They should encourage students to really look at their peers and focus on seeing the beauty of others.
- Linguistically, they should give students the opportunity to practice the language for expressing.
- Activities should be constructed in such a way to practice the vocabulary.

Hamachek (1977, cited in Williams & Burden, 1997) points out to the significance of humanistic approach in language teaching: "humanistic education starts with the idea that students are different, and it strives to help students become more like themselves and less like each other."

Teachers shall be real facilitators of learning and concentrate more on how to learn than what to learn, it means, they should provide students with fishing gear rather than fish. Underhill (1999) divides the teachers into three types: lecturers who only have the academic know-how of the topic; teachers who not only know the topic, but also are familiar with the methods and strategies of teaching this topic; and facilitators who, besides knowing the academic topic and ways, are also familiar with the psychological learning process and atmosphere. In reality only the last type best reflects humanistic approach. Underhill also proposes seven points which a teacher should pay attention to, if he wishes to be a real facilitator: 1) the way you listen; 2) the way you speak; 3) your use of power and authority; 4) your attention to the processes in the group; 5) noticing your own attitudes and beliefs; 6) redefining problems, seeing things differently; 7) your own inner state.

Teachers in humanistic classrooms had better create a community learning atmosphere where a sense of belonging pervades and, as was remarked earlier, this end is easily achievable via conducting learner-centered classes. In these classes, teachers are not the controllers but the actual facilitators. As cited in Wang (2005), within humanistic classrooms, the students' multiple perspectives are valued and their errors are admitted. Some of the cooperative activities, such as pair-work or group-work are good examples for this point, since in such activities, the students can best convey their ideas and the anxiety is much less. But, attention requires to be paid for the following issues in group-work: 1) exchange the members in every group from time to time, for freshness is frequently a significant factor to awaken students' interests in learning; 2) the slowest student and the best one should be denied being in the same group, since the slowest student can benefit nothing from such group except that his self-esteem diminishes. Before an excellent partner, the only thing he can do is to keep silent (Cited in Wang, 2005, p. 5).

As it has been emphasized, within the humanistic classroom, according to Arnold (1999, p. 123), new features are assigned to the teacher which, in turn, influences his/her relationship with the other participants of the language classroom. First of all, she/he is no more seen as a traditional "notion-dispenser" who privileges frontal lessons and maintains a complete control over the group, but rather as a supporter or facilitator of the learner's approach to the foreign language. In particular, she/he should be able to assist learners in their headway to autonomy and self-awareness through a skilful use of techniques and strategies. In this way, learners can become conscious and responsible for their own potential and be free to choose the learning style that is most appropriate and suitable to them.

The last aspect that should be considered in this context concerns the role of group dynamics and peer-work in the classroom. In traditional teaching approaches it was/is not particularly explored, whereas in the affective-humanistic ones it constitutes an extremely valid component for the benefit of learners. Indeed, through social interaction and negotiating of meaning among peers, cooperative language learning can facilitate and support most of their affective factors: reducing anxiety, increasing motivation, fostering the development of positive attitudes toward language learning, promoting self-esteem, as well as supporting different learning styles and encouraging perseverance in the difficult and confusing process of learning another language (Arnold, 1999, p. 227).

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This paper discussed the main principles and features of humanistic education and tried to take a detailed look at the educational implications and applications of this latest approach in the field of language teaching methodology. Humanistic approach is a language teaching method which emphasizes humanism as the most significant element in the teaching process. As the main proposition behind it, humanistic education seeks to emphasize that the affective aspects of language learning are as important as the cognitive aspects, and therefore the learner should be treated in some sense as a 'whole person', that is, every student in the classroom should first be looked at as a human, then a learner.

Therefore, teachers, paying attention to the students' affect and emotional states, should expect that the answers to language learning problems are more likely to come from psychology than from linguistics. Students' Psychological states can influence their language performance and learning practices either positively or negatively. Being happy in a certain day can enhance one's performance while being sad and distressed can frustrate the student to work efficiently. However, this fact is ignored by some teachers seeking to attribute the problem to cognitive or linguistic matters.

Rooted in constructivist social perspective, humanistic education tries to engage students in interactional practices. In this regard, as Arnold (1999) remarks the educator should be able to create social relations together with a positive atmosphere in the classroom, and organize cooperative language work, by enhancing the students' emotions and inner self. Finding a motivating force in learners but also in herself/himself should be a primary goal to the teacher in order to promote humanistic language teaching, which can influence the personal development of each participant in the classroom. Finally, teachers should also find some time to learn to think about their role and to reflect on what they are going to do in the classroom as well as on what is happening around them. Only if they are willing to explore their own emotional reactions to students along with their potential and power in the classroom, can they grow and develop both personally and professionally and, as a result, can foster the growth and development of the learners' knowledge as well (Arnold, 1999, p. 123-124)

One important point teachers should notice is that they should provide students with genuine and real challenge. If foreign language teaching is merely limited to the textbook, doubtlessly, it will result in failure. It may be advisable that teachers should bring some auxiliary materials holding some actual challenges. In that way, the students' interests are awakened and they will have a strong motivation to learn the language. Activities practicable for this aim include: class debate on a topic, role-playing, English speeches or songs contest, a class press conference and so on. In these activities, students are expected to do a lot of work, they require to collect materials, divide the task in the group, practice their oral English and simulate the native speakers. All these are real challenges to students, yet they have huge interests in doing this. By behaving so, students grow the ability of learning autonomy.

Humanistic teaching methodology like suggestopedia, as was noted earlier, makes use of a comforting environment for language learning. As a matter of fact, as a basic premise teachers have to use multiple entries in language teaching. In language teaching and learning, the environmental work is very crucial, so teachers are required to do their best to make a pleasurable atmosphere for the students by using the new teaching equipment. For instance, teachers can use music, art and action to create an interesting and a lively class. Today, multi-media have been often used in language teaching and have created beneficial effects.

Despite all the positive points of humanistic education, some teachers resist applying its principles in their classrooms. They think that in humanistic approach, the role of the teacher is diminished and this, in turn, lessens their power to manage and control the class. Such teachers think that a good teacher is merely a very knowledgeable high-prestige, and powerful one having all students afraid of him. However, humanistic education does not need teachers who are merely good academic ones, rather it prefers to take advantage of those teachers who not only know the academic topic and methods well, but also recognize and respect the psychological and emotional states of their students. So in language teaching, teachers should always bear the affective factors in their minds and put students in the first place, then they may achieve the success in language teaching. At last, according to Stevick (1990), the requirements of a humanistic language teaching are as follows:

- ▶ A firm command of the language being taught;
- ▶ A proper training in language teaching methodology;
- ▶ A proper understanding of teacher's emotional intelligence;
- ▶ A realistic understanding of learner's language needs; and
- ▶ An understanding of learner's cognitive and affective requirements, personality, etc.

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The Effect of Pre-reading Discussions on Word-guessing Ability of Iranian Pre-intermediate Freshmen University Students

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Abstract—The study reported here aimed at understanding whether pre-reading discussions affected readers' ability in guessing unknown words in the text. Forty male and female pre-intermediate freshmen university students (within the age range of 18 to 26) participated in the study. A quasi-experimental intact group design was pursued. The experimental and control groups completed four sets of quizzes comprising multiple choice items on unknown words of four reading texts to tap their guessing gains. The experimental group was involved in a pre-reading discussion on the topic of the readings before doing the quizzes, while no pre-reading discussion was used for the control group. Statistical analyses revealed that: a) during quizzes, one, two, and four, there were no significant differences between the experimental and the control groups; however, the mean scores of the experimental group were higher than the control group, implying a relative positive influence of the pre-reading discussions on guessing ability of the learners; b) during quiz three the difference between the groups proved to be significant. In general, the success rate of pre-reading discussions was not considerable, challenging a implications are discussed in the paper. uni-dimensional conception of the role of pre-reading discussion in word guessing ability of readers. Further findings and implications are discussed in the paper.

Index Terms—pre-reading discussion, guessing, Iranian context

I. INTRODUCTION

Utilizing an initial preparing phase such as pre-reading discussions would help the class in dealing with reading texts. Research assumes that reading is an interaction between textual information and prior knowledge of the reader. From previous research, it is hypothesized that topic familiarity would significantly affect both lexical inferencing and retention, yielding greater outcomes when subjects are more familiar with a particular topic (Pulido, 2007). Bengeleil and Paribakht (2004) contend, in the process of lexical inferencing, L2 readers' prior non-linguistic knowledge interacts with contextual cues in the text to help them guess the meanings of unfamiliar lexical items. Pre-reading discussions would prepare students for a reading task by providing them with the required subject matter familiarity and background information to assist them in the reading task by facilitating the lexical guessing process.

Pre-reading tasks have been predisposed to focus on preparing the readers for linguistic difficulties in a text, and for cultural or conceptual difficulties of the text. Pre-reading activities may not just compensate for second language reader's supposed linguistic or socio-cultural inadequacies; they may also help readers to be conscious about what they do, already know and think, i.e. to activate their existing schematic knowledge (Ajideh, 2003). Swaffer (1988) argues that schematic knowledge is more influential than word knowledge. She further claims that topic familiarity facilitates language recognition, recall of concepts, and inferential guessing.

Langer (1981) and Johnson (1982), in their studies of pre-reading activities, have demonstrated the facilitative effects of activating reader's prior knowledge as relevant to understanding of the new text. For them, pre-reading activities do not only prepare readers for the concepts that follow but also make the reading task easier and connecting the new concepts more meaningful to prior knowledge.

Pre-reading discussion can concentrate on a critical argument surrounding interpretation of a reading text. Plainly, discussion tasks elicit students' personal opinions or their expectations with respect to text content or point of view. For example, if students are to read a text about World War II, prior to reading, they can represent their expectations as to what facts will be highlighted and what perspective or political approach the article will express. Discussing these issues before being engaged with the reading provides focus in the texts. In this kind of activity, the teacher provides students with a topic for argument formed in terms of a specific question. Then each student makes an argument about the topic which may or may not stand as his or her own personal view (Knutson, 1997). Knutson stresses that "discussion of these arguments beforehand provides a focal point for reading" (p. 54).

According to Kaivanpanah and Alavi (2008), “inferencing is a reading strategy that fits into top-down and interactive models of reading because by using prior knowledge and assumptions readers move from general knowledge to the specific meanings texts express” (p. 175). Text comprehension involves inferential activity, i.e. during the process, both information from the text and from readers’ world knowledge are used to make meaningful representations (Hatdizaki, 2007). Since vocabulary is an influential component in the learning process, learners with different proficiency levels encounter situations where they understand only part of the written text or a sentence due to the fact that they do not know all the words. Encountering some unknown words might not block the overall understanding of the text, but will break down if too many words or the most essential ones are unknown (Soria, 2001). Soria maintains, using contextual cues, students draw on their knowledge of the world and the co-text to help them in word inferencing. Learners can be provided with the required knowledge base and familiarity with the subject matter of texts during whole class pre-reading discussions.

Haastrup (1991) gives a classification of knowledge sources used in lexical inferencing. His classification includes: intralingual, interlingual and contextual knowledge sources. Intralingual knowledge comprises knowledge of the target language syntax and target word phonology/orthography, morphology, lexis, word class, collocations, and semantics. Interlingual knowledge comprises knowledge of L1 and other languages. Contextual knowledge involves knowledge of text content or co-text, and knowledge of the world. Haastrup also distinguishes between holistic inferencing, and analytic processing. The former involves prediction on the basis of context, that is, drawing on world knowledge in the form of schematic or conceptual knowledge (p. 124), and the latter involves analytic processing, which is based on analysis of the linguistic features of the target word. Another taxonomy for knowledge sources is introduced by Paribakht and Wesche (1999) which consists of linguistic sources (knowledge of discourse, sentence-level grammar, word morphology, word associations, cognates, homonyms, and punctuation) and extralinguistic sources (topic and world knowledge). In both Haastrup, and Paribakht and Wesche’ classifications, topic and world knowledge are considered important factors useful for lexical guessing. Background knowledge of the subject of a passage plays a critical role in successful guessing (Na and Nation, 1985).

It seems that, pondering over the body of research done so far, pre-reading discussion and the direct role it might play in activating the learners’ schemata, as a result of which learners may have successful guess of unfamiliar word meanings, therefore, facilitating the reading fluency of language learners, has received much less elaborate exploration by researchers in the field of second language acquisition, SLA. Accordingly, the present study tried to push the current status of research on pre-reading discussions’ influence on students’ lexical guessing a step forward towards this goal. Also, the proposed task has not been sufficiently tackled in Iranian English language learning contexts; therefore, implementing a research to provide insights to illuminate its advantage seems necessary.

Accordingly, the objective of the present study was to explore the influence of pre-reading discussions on Iranian freshmen university students’ ability in contextually guessing the meanings of unknown words in reading their general English course book after the accomplishment of the pre-reading discussion task.

More precisely, this study sought to find answers to the following question:

Is there any relationship between pre-reading discussions and university freshmen students’ ability in guessing unfamiliar words from the reading context?

The following null-hypothesis was put forward for the above question to be tested at the probability level of 0.05:

There is no relationship between pre-reading discussions and university freshmen students’ ability in guessing unfamiliar words from the reading context.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study followed an intact group design. Two university classes who were doing their general English course were selected. Randomly one of the classes was assigned as the “treatment group” and the other as the “control group”. The study is a typical quasi-experimental one involving a comparison between two groups, the control and the treatment. This involves the comparisons between the word guessing gains across groups. The study was conducted during the autumn 2011 semester.

All participants were Iranian university freshmen students taking their general English course at Afagh private university in Urmia, West Azerbaijan. Semi-randomly assigned, the control group class subjects included Herbaceous Medicines major students and the treatment group participants were majoring at Horticulture. The study involved both males and females aged 18 to 26 years. The participants’ homogeneity in experimental and control groups was ensured using a modified version of PET (Preliminary English Test) as the proficiency and screening pre-test. Out of the 71 males and females students who participated in the study only 40 students could be considered for the study and statistical analyses. Participants who missed either the pre- or post-tests and more than two experiment quizzes were excluded from the study. Twenty students in each class were involved in the study. For the ease of administration, the PET test was adapted to cover only reading and vocabulary sections. The estimated reliability amounted to be $r=0.71$.

The course book for both groups was *Select Readings* (Pre-Intermediate Student Book) by Linda Lee and Erik Gunderson (2002), which was taught as the instructional material and used as a source of treatment. Four texts used in the experiment were adapted from four chapters of the *Select Readings* to manifest similar levels of linguistic complexity, topic familiarity, relatively equal difficulty, and to have a parallel discourse structure and appropriate for

students with relatively low reading skills. The first reading passage was on “studying in an English speaking country”; the second was on “building a successful business”; the third was on “a ghost story”; and the fourth passage was on “volunteering for a humanity organization”. One of the researchers was the course instructor for both the treatment and control groups.

Four quizzes were made ranging from 10 to 15 items each, intended to tap the word inferencing abilities of the readers. Quiz one included 10 target word items because of the relative shortness of its reading text. Obscure words which were considered to be unknown to pre-intermediate students were chosen from the reading texts as target lexical items. Since the homogeneity of the groups was substantiated by a pre-test, it proved sensible that the selected words were of the same level of familiarity for the participants. In each item, the word’s line number in the reading text was given so that the students could find the targeted words easily. There are four choices in each item, three alternatives to choose from (a, b, & c), and the fourth one, (d) was left blank for the students to write the word’s meaning in Farsi in case they could not choose from the given word choices. The participants were given roughly 10 minutes to complete each lexical guessing quiz. They were informed that there was not a negative score for their wrong responses, so they were asked not to leave any questions unanswered. In addition, the participants were not allowed to use dictionaries, nor were they allowed to ask for their partner’s help.

Pre-reading discussions were used in the treatment group. For this purpose, a set of pre-reading activities in the form of pre-reading questions were prepared to stimulate students’ participation in class discussions. For example, for “volunteering for a humanity organization” reading topic, the researcher in charge asked this pre-question: What do you think about the role of Habitat other than building houses for the poor? Two of the discussion procedures introduced by Richards and Schmidt (2002, p. 164) were also used in the present study; ‘reflective discussion’ and ‘guided discussion’ the aim of which were to activate the students background knowledge and provide the necessary prior information for students to ease the inferencing process for them. Furthermore, reading texts’ relevant pictures were displayed through a video projector to stimulate discussions. The topics discussed in the pre-reading discussion group (treatment group) included four topics of the four reading texts: *studying in an English speaking country*, *building a successful business*, *a ghost story*, and *volunteering for a humanity organization*. The readings topics were put on the board and the students were asked to present their ideas on the topic which were then written on the board. For example, the ideas presented for discussion on the topic of “studying in an English speaking country” involved: university, studying abroad, home-stay, transportation, accommodation, parents’ advice, British culture, nation’s impressions about different countries and cultures, and why it is important to learn English. The students also talked about the problems of accommodation and places where they would have preferred to live if they were to study in another country or city.

The study was conducted over a 15-session academic semester; however, the researchers could only use four sessions to carry out the study. The study’s instructional sessions were aligned with an ongoing university program. Every session lasted 90 minutes and the pre-reading discussions lasted about 30 to 45 minutes for each session of the treatment group. In the control group, however, as it is usual in most language classes, the teacher asked the students to read the reading text right away without any pre-reading discussions. Instead of answering comprehension questions which usually follow the reading, the participants in both groups were asked to answer the lexical guessing quiz items while reading the texts individually.

The homogeneity and comparability of the subjects in treatment and control groups at the beginning of the study were substantiated via an independent t-test which was carried on the scores gained from the PET pre-test. Furthermore, four independent t-test analyses were applied to compare the score gains of four word guessing quizzes to observe any significant differences between the treatment and control groups in terms of their word guessing ability.

III. RESULTS

Table 1 displays the PET pre-test results for the treatment and control groups. The estimated language proficiency mean and standard deviation of the participants in the treatment group amounted to 8.45, out of 25, and 2.978, respectively, and the estimated mean and standard deviation of the participants in the control group amounted to 6.95 and 4.036, respectively. An independent t-test was run to measure the difference in the pre-tests’ mean scores. The analysis showed that there was no significant difference between the treatment and control groups in terms of their language proficiency. In other words, the treatment and the control groups proved to be homogenous and comparable at the beginning of the study.

TABLE 1.
PRE-TEST DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Groups	No. of Students	Mean	Variance	Std. Dev.	Std. Err	DF	Mean Diff.	P-value
Treatment	20	8.45	8.866	2.978	0.666	38	0.962	0.4142
Control	20	7.48	18.319	4.280	0.957			

As it is mentioned above, there were 10 target word items for quiz one. So for the ease of analysis and calculation, the scores for this quiz were all also calculated out of 15 for each participant. Table 2 displays that for quiz one, the mean score of the treatment group (Mean=10.26, SD=3.004) is higher than the mean score of the control group

(Mean=10.05, SD=3.173); however, the difference between the groups in terms of lexical guessing gains is not statistically significant. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted for the first guessing quiz.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS FOR LEXICAL GUESSING QUIZ ONE

Groups	No. of Students	Mean	Variance	Std. Dev.	Std. Err	DF	Mean Diff.	P-value
Treatment	19	10.26	10.066	3.004	0.672	37	0.213	0.8305
Control	20	10.05	9.024	3.173	0.728			

For quiz two, as Table 3 shows, the difference between the groups in terms of lexical guessing gains is not statistically significant although the mean score of the treatment group (Mean=10, SD=2.749) is higher than the mean score of the control group (Mean=8.35, SD=2.390). Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted for the second guessing quiz too, although there is a trend for significance because the P-value is very near the alpha level.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS FOR LEXICAL GUESSING QUIZ TWO

Groups	No. of Students	Mean	Variance	Std. Dev.	Std. Err	DF	Mean Diff.	P-value
Treatment	18	10	7.556	2.749	0.631	37	1.650	0.0525
Control	20	8.35	5.713	2.390	0.534			

For quiz three, as Table 4 shows, the difference between the groups in terms of lexical guessing gains is statistically significant ($P \leq 0.05$) and the mean score of the treatment group (Mean=9.05, SD=2.877) is higher than the mean score of the control group (Mean=7.25, SD=2.613). Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected for the third guessing quiz.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS FOR LEXICAL GUESSING QUIZ THREE

Groups	No. of Students	Mean	Variance	Std. Dev.	Std. Err	DF	Mean Diff.	P-value
Treatment	19	9.05	8.275	2.877	0.660	37	1.803	0.0475
Control	20	7.25	6.829	2.613	0.584			

For quiz four, Table 5 shows that the difference between the groups in terms of lexical guessing gains is not statistically significant although the mean score of the treatment group (Mean=8.15, SD=2.889) is higher than the mean score of the control group (Mean=7.1, SD=3.401). Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted for the fourth guessing quiz.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTICS FOR LEXICAL GUESSING QUIZ FOUR

Groups	No. of Students	Mean	Variance	Std. Dev.	Std. Err	DF	Mean Diff.	P-value
Treatment	20	8.15	8.345	2.889	0.646	38	1.050	0.2993
Control	20	7.10	11.568	3.401	0.761			

IV. DISCUSSION

The mean score results of the four guessing quizzes showed that the treatment group participants performed relatively better than those in the control group in guessing the target words, although statistically significant relationships were not observed between pre-reading discussions and the participants' performance on lexical guessing quizzes one, two, and four, except for quiz three where the difference proved to be significant ($p \leq 0.05$). Findings of this research, though not very strong, somehow paved the way for accepting the belief that giving prior information through discussions in the pre-reading stage might have a relative positive impact on reading process and lexical guessing ability in particular.

Considering the relative outperformance on the part of the treatment group, the findings concur to some extent with those by Langer (1981) and Johnson (1982) regarding the fact that pre-reading activities such as pre-reading discussion and brain storming can increase students' interest and help them construct mental models for the incoming text. Langer and Johnson maintain that pre-reading discussions prepare readers for the concepts that follow and make the reading task easier and connect the new concepts more meaningfully to prior knowledge. Eskey (1988) believes that new information, new concepts, and new ideas can have meaning when they can be related to something the individual already knows. However, the results reported above are not consistent with the arguments previously made for using pre-reading activities such as pre-reading discussions (e.g., Bügel & Buunk, 1996; Alvermann, Smith, & Readence, 1985; Tudor, 1989; Richards, Li & Tang, 1995; Knutson, 1997; Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, & Gamoran, 2003; Widodo, 2009; Nation, 2009; Yusuf, 2011).

In the literature, there is a combination of factors that influence L2 readers' lexical inferencing; these include text-related and reader-related variables a combination of which affects lexical inferencing (Kaivanpanah and Alavi 2008). This study tried to examine the effect of a single variable i.e. providing prior information and activating background knowledge through pre-reading discussions on lexical guessing ability of students, which seems to be a uni-dimensional study about the lexical guessing ability of students. Reader-related and text-related factors such as vocabulary knowledge of the students could have dramatically influenced the results of the study. Qian's (2005) study showed that

a positive relationship existed between learners' vocabulary knowledge and their lexical inferencing ability. Furthermore, Kelly (1990) argues that when readers come across unknown words, they may be unable to make use of available contextual clues because when there exists a large number of unknown to known words, learners may be unable to use contextual clues for inferencing meaning, hence readers' vocabulary knowledge is an essential prerequisite for inferencing. The participants of this study who had an elementary level of language proficiency are not expected to have had a large vocabulary repertoire to ease the guessing task for them.

In addition, learners' language proficiency is a potential factor affecting the inferencing ability of the learners. Advanced L2 learners, Kaivanpanah and Alavi (2008) argue, tend to infer more because they know enough words; and using the sufficient and clear context created by the known words, they can infer the meaning of unknown words better. Since the participants involved in this study were of a pre-intermediate level of language proficiency, they could not benefit from the pre-reading discussions efficiently; therefore, the findings of the study seem to be in line with Aebersold and Field's (1997) who argue that lower level students may have the schemata but not the necessary linguistic skills in the second language to benefit them when guessing, so teachers have to introduce the relevant vocabulary during the discussion; otherwise, the schema may be activated but the L2 reading process may not be facilitated for the students. They note that although pre-reading activities, such as pre-reading discussions, are potentially beneficial, their usefulness is limited. Furthermore, Morrison's (1996) study showed that high-proficiency learners are more successful than low-proficiency learners at guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words correctly in reading texts; this may be due to the low-proficiency readers' limited lexical knowledge.

As a limitation of the present study, there were not enough sessions to see the long-term effect of pre-reading discussions on guessing. A greater number of pre-reading discussion sessions could have made the results of the study more generalizable and predictive. Similarly, a higher number of reading texts to apply pre-reading discussions is needed to study the effect of discussions.

V. CONCLUSION

The research survey which opened this study highlighted the role of pre-reading discussions in word guessing ability of an EFL population and the importance of pre-reading discussions in enhancing language achievement. The results provide evidence that pre-reading discussions may have a potential for enhancing the lexical guessing ability of students. The study offered a relative degree of empirical support to the theoretical considerations relating to the positive role of pre-reading activities, and pre-reading discussions in particular, in the students' lexical guessing ability outlined above and also to the use of pre-reading discussions in English language reading classes.

There are many factors which interact with each other to influence the reading process and lexical guessing in particular. These factors are both related to readers and texts. Nassaji (2003), for example, mentions that lexical inferencing depends on students' language and comprehension skills, the types of texts and tasks, the nature of the word, and a number of other learner-related differences. Its success involves the use of appropriate strategies and also the combination of those strategies with many other skills and knowledge sources both inside and outside the text. Therefore, a combination of these factors are supposed to be more efficient in facilitating the guessing task, although the use of pre-reading discussions which provide prior information to the students and activate their existing background knowledge to ease the connection between what they already know and the text content can be suggested to facilitate this inferencing process.

A great deal of information can be found by getting learners to introspect aloud while they guess from context. Information from such studies provides valuable illuminating data on students' guessing behaviors. Future research might include observation of classroom behavior, using a classroom observation scheme. Also verbal reports are a tool for the classroom teacher in getting readers to verify what they are doing while they are reading and guessing. Students' perceptions of the factors contributing to their behavior in class can also be elicited through structured interviews designed to elicit introspective comments from participants.

Replication with other populations is clearly called for before the conclusions given above could be maintained with confidence. Also, experimentation with a wider range of texts and words is clearly warranted. The L2 proficiency factor could be investigated further to assess more accurately how proficiency level interacts with the need of and the response to pre-reading discussions.

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Personality Traits, Motivation and Foreign Language Attainment

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Abstract—This paper reports on the results of a study of Chinese EFL learners' personality traits and motivation in relation to their contributions to achievement in English at the tertiary level. An 88-item survey involving 934 first-year undergraduate non-English majors revealed that: (1) the participants were generally moderately extroverted, moderately prone to become anxious and be influenced by social desirability. Nevertheless, the majority reported to be dependent and tender-minded; (2) the majority of the participants reported to be moderately motivated to learn English; (3) the personality traits were significantly related to all or many of the motivation measures; and (4) most of the personality and motivation scales were significantly correlated with the students' attainment in English, among which, language requirement, intrinsic motivation, psychoticism and lie were good predictors of the latter.

Index Terms—personality, motivation, foreign language attainment

I. INTRODUCTION

The interrelations of personality and SL/FL learning have been a particular focus for some years (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Verhoeven & Vermeer, 2002). As claimed by Dörnyei (2005, p. 29), personality factors are 'heavily implicated in the learning process in general and in SLA in particular'. Generally they can act as 'powerful modifying variables' (2005, p. 24) which 'shape the way people respond to their learning environment' (2005, p. 30). So has been motivation (Dörnyei, 2001, 2005; Gardner, 1985, Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Liu, 2007; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Situated in a Chinese EFL learning context, the present study aims to explore students' personality characteristics and motivation patterns with relation to their contributions to the learning of English.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Personality traits

Personality has long been a particular focus of interest in education because personality traits make a difference in how people learn and what they learn (McCaulley & Natter, 1974; Myres & Myres, 1980). Among numerous personality measures, the most commonly used in the field of language learning and teaching are the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) (Moody, 1988). The MBTI is designed to measure differences on four bi-polar scales: Extroversion-Introversion, Sensing-Intuition, Thinking-Feeling, and Judging-Perceiving (Moody, 1988). The 100-item EPQ was later reduced to include 48 items and measures four dimensions of a person's personality (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985): extroversion (E), neuroticism (N) (or emotionality), psychoticism (P) (or tough-mindedness). It also has a lie scale (L) to measure the extent to which respondents are influenced by social desirability in answering the questionnaire. An individual who scores high on extroversion (HE) is oriented towards the external world while an individual who is low on extroversion (LE) is withdrawn and more concerned with inner stages of mind. An individual who is high on neuroticism (HN) is more inclined to anxiety and fears. A person with a low score on neuroticism (LN) is psychologically well-balanced (or stable). A person who is high on psychoticism is relatively tough-minded, aggressive and cold, whereas, a person with a low score on the P scale tends to be dependent and tender-minded.

Eysenck and Eysenck predicted that 'it is generally true at all ages from about 13 or 14 upwards that introverts show superior academic attainment to extravert' (1985, p. 321). This prediction has been confirmed in educational psychology by a range of studies (Robinson, Gabriel & Katchan, 1994; Smart, Elton & Burnett, 1970). However, concerning SL/FL learning, mixed findings are revealed (Ely, 1986; Liu & Zhang, 2011; Smart et al., 1970; Strong, 1984). For example, Robinson et al.'s (1994) study revealed a strong correlation between extroversion and certain aspects of language attainment. Individuals with high neuroticism (N) and extroversion (HN/HE) scores did better on the oral tests than on

the written tests when compared with participants with high neuroticism and low extroversion scores (HN/LE). Measuring risk-taking and sociability as the functions of extroversion of 75 learners of Spanish at the tertiary level, Ely (1986) found no correlation between extroversion and class participation or Spanish proficiency.

Carrell, Prince and Astika (1996) administered the MBTI to 76 Indonesian learners of English at the tertiary level to study their personality types and their academic performance. They found that the participants were evenly divided between Extraverts and Introverts, but mostly belonged to Sensing-Thinking-Judging types. Few direct relationships between learners' type preferences and their language performance were exposed.

Moreover, students of different disciplines may display varying personality patterns. In Moody's (1988) study, 561 students at all levels of French, German and Spanish answered the MBTI. In addition, language students were compared with three specific groups: students of science, engineering, and business, hoping to find what kinds of teaching problems might be expected when a more diverse group of students enrolled for the same language course in the same classroom. It was found that students appeared in all sixteen personality categories and that language students favored strongly Intuition, Introversion, Thinking and Perception. On the scale of Extroversion and Introversion, students of language and engineering were around the same, but huge differences existed in comparing science with business. Introverts dominated in science but Extraverts were in the majority in business. In terms of learning, science students favored written drills and written tests while business students preferred spontaneous activities in group discussion and communicative activities. Language and engineering students liked Intuition while their business peers preferred Sensing.

Motivation

Motivation is considered subjected to variation depending on situational and other factors. Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model of language learning distinguishes integrative motivation (wishing to integrate into the target culture) from instrumental motivation (desiring academic or work-related achievements). Similar to this is intrinsic (coming from within the individual) and extrinsic (coming from outside the individual) motivation advanced by Deci and Ryan's (1985). Ehrman, Leaver and Oxford (2003, p. 320) suggest that 'a student's total motivation is most frequently a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation' and that it 'depends greatly on the context, people involved, and specific circumstances'. The link with other factors reflects the process model of motivation which sees motivation as a 'dynamic, ever-changing process' (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 66) as it interrelates with other variables such as personality, beliefs, attitudes and the learning setting. As such, these interrelations are crucial to an understanding of the individual language learner experience. Dörnyei (2005, p. 118) maintains that this paradigm shift on the 'doing-side of personality' has resulted in 'an increased convergence of the concepts of personality and motivation, as both are now seen as antecedents of behavior'.

Involving 170 university students who had studied French, Gardner, Lalonde and Moorcroft's (1985) study exposed that individuals with high levels of language aptitude were simply more able to incorporate the material as it was presented, that individuals with the more positive affective predispositions worked harder to acquire the material and that they were more interested in it, and that participants high on integrative motivation learned faster than those who were low, and the rate of learning was more rapid under visual/written conditions as compared with aural/oral ones. 134 young adult learners of English at beginning and intermediate levels participated in Dörnyei's (1990) study of the components of motivation in foreign-language learning. Analyses of the motivation questionnaire revealed that (1) instrumental motives significantly contributed to motivation in FLL contexts and were particularly efficient in energizing learning up to an intermediate level, and (2) integrative motivation was associated with a higher level of language attainment than was instrumental motivation.

In addition to research on the role of integrative/intrinsic and instrumental/extrinsic motivation in SL/FL learning, more motivation types are advanced during the process of motivation research (Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Gao, Zhao, Cheng & Zhou, 2003a, 2003b, 2004; Liu, 2007, 2009; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Yang, Liu & Wu, 2010). Based on the questionnaires distributed to 93 high school students, Belmechri and Hummel (1998) identified the following types of motivation: travel, understanding school (instrumental), friendship, understanding, and career (instrumental). Similarly, after analyzing 202 questionnaires filled by Chinese undergraduate non-English majors, Liu (2007) identified three motivation types—integrative, instrumental, and travel motivation and found that motivation was positively correlated with the students' English proficiency. Gao et al.'s (2003a, 2003b, 2004) extensive research involved 2,278 participants from 30 Chinese universities who answered a battery of self-developed questionnaire, which revealed that students with higher motivations of intrinsic interest, going abroad, individual development and information media made more efforts in their English learning, that the group "high" in social responsibility motivation made more efforts than the "middle" and "low" groups, and that students with higher immediate achievement motivation made less learning efforts. The research (2004) also uncovered seven motivation types: intrinsic interest, immediate achievement, learning situation, going abroad, social responsibility, individual development, and information medium, which were grouped into three categories—instrumental, cultural and situational by the researchers. More proficient EFL learners reported to have significantly more intrinsic interest; and less proficient EFL learners were significantly more driven by immediate achievement. Based on the findings, the researchers suggested that native-culture orientation be incorporated to the traditional motivation framework.

In general, these studies are consistent in revealing that motivation contributes to the learning of a SL/FL, that

learners high on integrative/intrinsic motivation work harder and learn faster than those who are low, and that learners demonstrate diverse motivation patterns, which is largely supported by numerous empirical studies in various contexts (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991; Gardner, 2002; Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Dörnyei & Clément, 2002; Liu, 2007; Strong, 1984; Ushioda, 2006, 2007, 2008)

III. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

To conclude, for both personality and motivation, mixed findings have been revealed, which may be because the studies have often examined the roles of personality and motivation in SL/FL learning with a heterogeneous and/or small group of learners. The findings might be more definite with a large homogeneous sample. This, coupled with low correlations found in many studies, deserves continuous research on the issues, as claimed by Spolsky (2000). For this purpose, the present research attempts to investigate the interrelationships of personality traits and motivation and their roles in language learning. The following research questions are of particular interest:

- (1) What are the personality characteristics of this EFL population with a homogeneous L1 background?
- (2) What are the motivation patterns of this EFL population with a homogeneous L1 background?
- (3) Is there any relationship between the students' personality traits, motivation, and their performance in English?

IV. RESEARCH DESIGN

Participants. The participants were 934 (587 male and 347 female) first-year non-English majors from various disciplines such as Law, Engineering, Mechanics and Economics and Management at three universities in China. All were enrolled in credit-bearing and compulsory English courses offered by their universities. With an age range from 13 to 21 and an average age of 18.49, the majority (451/48.3%) of the participants aged 18, followed by the group aged 19 (315/33.7%), and then came the groups aged 20 (97/10.4%) and 17 (53/5.7%). As the law of family planning was executed in early 1971, most of the participants were the only children in their families.

Instruments. For this study, students completed the 48-item Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ), the 40-item English Learning Motivation Scale (ELMS), and the background questionnaire. In addition, all of them took the placement test organized by their universities a week before the study started.

The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ). The 48-item Eysenck Personality Questionnaire was used in the present study because this revised form proved to be more valid and reliable (Eysenck, Eysenck & Barrett, 1985) and because it was easier to be executed. It aimed to measure four dimensions of the students' personality with 12 items for each: psychoticism (P) (or tough-mindedness), extroversion (E), neuroticism (N) (or emotionality), and lie (L). For this scale, each item had two choices—"No" and "Yes" with values of 1 to 2 assigned to them respectively.

English Learning Motivation Scale. The 40-item English Learning Motivation Scale (ELMS) was designed with reference to several sources (Ely, 1986; Noels, Clément & Pelletier, 2001; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2002; Vandergrift, 2005) to measure six dimensions of motivation: motivation intensity or strength of motivation (SOM) (6 items), intrinsic motivation (IntrinM) (6 items), language requirement (LR) (1 item), instrumental motivation (InstruM) (11 items), integrative motivation (IntegM) (12 items), and interest in foreign languages and cultures (IFLC) (4 items).

As reviewed in the literature, SL/FL learning motivation is a complex construct and involves various learning orientations such as intrinsic and extrinsic, instrumental and integrative orientations. To avoid redundancy and better fit the present situation, the present 40-item English Learning Motivation Scale (ELMS) was designed with reference to several sources (Ely, 1986; Noels et al., 2001; Schmidt & Watanabe, 2001; Vandergrift, 2005) and aimed to measure six dimensions: motivation intensity, intrinsic motivation, language requirement, instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, and interest in foreign languages and cultures. It achieved a reliability score (Cronbach α) of .87 in the present study. It should be noted that extrinsic motivation was excluded from the present study because we found that the items used to measure extrinsic motivation were similar to those for instrumental motivation and language requirement after careful comparison and discussion.

Strength of motivation was included because students might not really study English hard even though they were motivated to learn the language for various reasons. The 6-item Strength of Motivation (SOM) ($\alpha = .67$) used in Liu's (2009) study (which was adapted from Ely's (1986)) aimed to measure learners' motivation intensity. The 6-item Intrinsic Motivation (IntrinM) ($\alpha = .79$) was adopted from Schmidt & Watanabe (2002) to tap to what degree learners were intrinsically motivated to learn English. The 1-item language Requirement was incorporated in the ELMS because it was a fact that at least one English course was required with credits at each university. Both the 11-item Instrumental Motivation (InstruM) ($\alpha = .71$) and the 12-item Integrative Motivation (IntegM) ($\alpha = .85$) were adopted from Vandergrift (2005) and Noels et al.'s (2001) studies with repetitious items deleted. These two subscales sought to explore to what extent learners were instrumentally and integratively motivated to learn English respectively. Finally, the 4-item Interest in Foreign Languages and Cultures (IFLC) ($\alpha = .68$) was adopted from Schmidt & Watanabe's (2002) study to examine how learners were interested in foreign languages and cultures.

Preliminary statistical analyses revealed high internal consistency for the measures (see Table 1).

TABLE 1:
CHARACTERISTICS OF INSTRUMENTS (N = 934)

Name of the instrument	No. of items	Reliability	Mean item-total correlation (p = .01)
P	12	.48	.45
E	12	.78	.76
N	12	.77	.75
L	12	.63	.61
SOM	6	.42	.39
IntrinM	6	.78	.75
InstruM	11	.68	.65
IntegM	11	.84	.82
IFLC	4	.68	.61
ELMS	40	.87	.86

The Background Questionnaire. The background questionnaire aimed to gather the respondents’ demographic information such as name, gender, department, university, and English-learning time.

Attainment in English. All the participants’ scores in the placement test were collected as their attainment in English.

Procedure. All the first-year undergraduate non-English majors at each university took a placement test prior to the first week’s formal teaching of the first 16-week term of an academic year. Thirty intact classes of them at three universities answered the survey in 25 minutes during a normal class session of the second week. Of 1121 collected questionnaires, 934 were complete for further statistical analyses.

Data analysis. All the survey data were processed using SPSS 13. For each measure, the mean, standard deviation, median, and mode were calculated to determine what personality characteristics and motivation patterns they had. Then, relationships among these measured scales and the students’ performance in English were investigated in terms of correlation analyses and regression analyses.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Personality characteristics

Statistical analyses of the four subscales

To examine the participants’ personality traits, the means, standard deviations, medians, and modes of the four scales of the EPQ were computed. When doing so, the researchers adjusted the values assigned to the alternatives of some items, as specified in Eysenck et al. (1985). The results are reported in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
PERSONALITY TRAITS OF THE PARTICIPANTS (N = 934)

	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Mode	Range
P	14.56	1.80	14	14	12-22
E	18.97	3.08	19	19	12-24
N	18.15	3.04	18	20	12-24
L	17.69	2.36	18	18	12-24

Table 2 shows that the means for P, E, N and L were 14.56 (SD = 1.8), 18.97 (SD = 3.08), 18.15 (SD = 18.15), and 17.69 (SD = 2.36), respectively, all close to the scale midpoint 18 except the P mean. So did the median and mode for each scale which fell from 14 to 20. All these suggest that most participants were moderate on E, N and L but moderate and even low on P, as found in Eysenck et al.’s (1985) study. Namely, the participants were moderately extroverted, moderately inclined to anxiety and fears, and moderately prone to be influenced by social desirability; meanwhile the majority tended to be dependent and tender-minded.

Moreover, as noted from Figure 1, most of P scores centered around 13 to 16, with 14 having the highest percentage, while scores were more or less evenly distributed on E, N and L, with 18 to 20 being the center. This further confirms the finding that the respondents were generally not predominantly striking on any dimension of the EPQ except on P, as found in Liu & Zhang (2011). This is surprising in that they, as the only children in their families, were often expected to be spoiled and might demonstrate extremity in personality. By contrast, few of them were extremely extroverted or introverted, highly prone to become anxious and/or fearful, and easily influenced by the society they lived in. This might be attributed to the country’s (both the government’s and individuals’) economic prosperity and enormous investment in educating the single-child generations, which involves learning to be sharing, helpful, and cooperative. Expectedly, more than 90% of the participants reported to be dependent and tender-minded, which was largely owing to the fact that they had been well looked after.

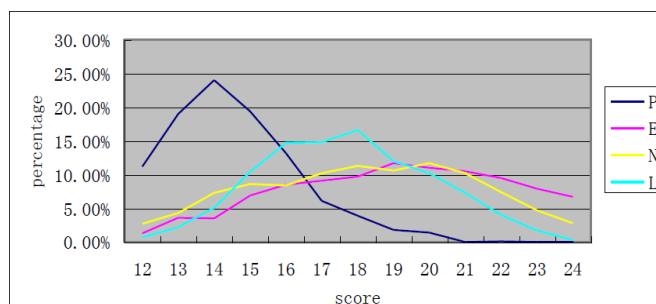


Figure 1: Distribution of Scores on P, E, N, and L

Motivation pattern

To reveal the general pattern of the students' English learning motivation, the means, standard deviations, medians, modes, maximums, and minimums of the ELMS and its subscales were computed. When doing so, the researchers adjusted the values assigned to the alternatives of items which expressed no motivation to learn English, as did with the EPQ. Thus, the total score of the ELMS revealed a respondent's general tendency of English learning motivation; so did the total scores of the ELMS subscales. And it holds true for all the measures that the higher the score, the more motivated the respondent was.

With 40 items, a score of more than 160 on the ELMS implies a strong motivation to learn English, a total score of 120 to 160 represents a moderate motivation, and a score of less than 120 signifies little motivation to learn the language. Likewise, a total score of more than 24 for the 6-item SOM or the 6-item IntriM implies strong motivation strength or high intrinsic motivation, a total score of 18 to 24 implies moderate motivation strength or moderate intrinsic motivation, and a total score of less than 18 signifies low motivation strength or low/little intrinsic motivation. With only 1 item, a total score of more than 4, 3 to 4 and less than 3 for the LR indicates strong, moderate and low motivation of language requirement respectively. Similarly, a total score of more than 44, 33 to 44 and less than 33 for the 11-item InstruM suggests high, moderate and low instrumental motivation respectively; a total score of more than 48, 36 to 48 and less than 36 on the 12-item IntegM implies high, moderate and low integrative motivation respectively; and a total score of more than 16, 12 to 16 and less than 16 on the 4-item IFLC suggests strong, moderate and low interest in foreign languages and cultures respectively. The higher the score, the more motivated the respondent reportedly was to learn English for various reasons. The results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
STATISTICAL ANALYSES OF THE ELMS AND ITS SUBSCALE (N = 934)

Measures	Mean	Standard Deviation	Median	Mode	Range
SOM	22.16	3.89	22	22	6-30
IntriM	19.19	4.58	19	18	6-30
LR	2.61	1.19	2	2	1-5
InstruM	36.51	5.80	37	40	15-55
IntegM	36.63	7.91	37	37	12-60
IFLC	14.93	2.81	15	16	4-20
ELMS	132.03	17.39	133	135	48-188

As shown in Table 3, the respondents achieved a mean of 132.03, a median of 133 and a mode of 135 on the ELMS, all above the scale midpoint 120, suggesting that the majority of them were moderately motivated to learn English, as found in Liu's (2007) and Yang and Lau's (2003) studies. This is, though surprising, reasonable in that all the participants were undergraduate non-English majors who inevitably gave priority to their major study. It might be also due to the fact that even though English had been receiving increasing attention in many fields in China, college students usually did not have much exposure to the language or contact with English-speaking people in their daily life, as claimed by Liu (2007).

Similarly, a mean of 22.16 on the SOM, 36.51 on the InstruM, and 14.93 on the IFLC respectively, coupled with their medians and modes which all well exceeded their scale midpoints, indicate that these learners had a moderate or even strong strength of motivation, were moderately or strongly instrumentally motivated, and were moderately or strongly interested in foreign languages and interacting with people from many cultures, consistent with the findings in Liu's (2007) study. As a global lingua franca, English has been attached increasing attention to in China and studied by Chinese learners with greater efforts. Meanwhile, as China knows more about the world, Chinese people have become more interested in knowing foreign languages and cultures. Understandably, they were fairly motivated to learn the language for various pragmatic reasons, as found in a range of other studies (Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Dörnyei, 2001; Gardner, 1985; Liu, 2007; Noels et al., 2001; Ushioda, 2007, 2008). To them, English was important in finding a good job, earning more money, receiving further education, passing exams, and so on.

In addition, a mean of 19.19, a median of 19 and mode of 18 on the IntriM, all slightly above the scale midpoint 18, show that the respondents were only moderately intrinsically motivated to learn English. They were moderately integratively motivated (mean = 36.63) as well, contrary to Liu's (2007) but consistent with Lamb's (2004) (which

studied integrative motivation of 219 Indonesian high school students) findings. To these learners, it was not a (high) priority to enjoy learning English and use it whenever having a chance. Nor would they have various feelings such as guilt, satisfaction and excitement in regard to English learning. All these might be because English, though important in certain ways, was still seldom used in their daily life.

Surprisingly, the students scored 2.61 on LR, with a median and mode of 2, all below the scale midpoint 3, implying that compulsory courses didn't constitute a great motivation for them to learn English.

Correlation between personality traits, motivation and attainment

Correlational analyses revealed the relationships between the students' personality traits, motivation and their attainment in English (see Table 4).

TABLE 4:
CORRELATIONS AMONG PERSONALITY TRAITS, MOTIVATION AND ATTAINMENT

	SOM	IntrinM	LR	InstruM	IntegM	IFLC	ELMS	Attainment
P	-.24**	-.12**	.12**	-.09**	-.12**	-.19**	-.19**	-.12**
E	.08*	.25**	-.09**	.03	.19**	.19**	.20**	.06
N	-.06	-.11**	.12**	.10**	.05	-.03	.02	-.07*
L	.10**	.06	-.05	-.09**	.03	.02	.02	-.05
Attainment	.16**	.22**	-.26**	-.04	.11**	.18**	.14**	1

Note: **. p < .01; *, p < .05

As shown in Table 4, P, E, N, L were significantly related to all or many of the motivation scales, with coefficients ranging from -.24 to .25. A more tough-minded person (higher on P) tended to have weaker strength of motivation, be less intrinsically, instrumentally, or integratively motivated, be less interested in foreign languages and cultures, and be generally less motivated. On the contrary, a more extroverted student (higher on E) tended to be more motivated both intrinsically and integratively, be more interested in interacting with people from other cultures and have stronger motivation intensity. A participant who was more prone to become anxious (higher score on N) was more instrumentally but less intrinsically motivated. Finally, a student who reported to be more motivated by language requirement (LR) was more aggressive and tough-minded (higher on P), more introverted (lower on E), and more prone to experience anxiety and fears (higher on N).

Though personality traits and motivation were generally significantly interrelated, the correlations were not strong, which needs further research in other contexts. Hopefully, reasons for the low coefficients can be revealed.

Table 4 also shows that, all the measures except E, L, and InstruM were significantly correlated with the students' attainment in English. P, N, and LR were negatively while the others were positively related to the latter, with coefficients ranging from -.26 to .22. It seems that a respondent who reported to be more tough-minded and aggressive (high on P), easier to become anxious (high on N), or more motivated by language requirement (high on LR) performed worse in English. Meanwhile, a participant who seemed to have stronger strength of motivation, be more intrinsically, instrumentally or integratively motivated, or be more interested in foreign languages and cultures tended to achieve more in English.

Similarly, it should be noted that the correlations between the measured variables and the students' attainment in English were low though significant. It might be because the latter was measured only by an overall performance score which included listening, reading and writing). The case might be different if the students' attainment in English had been measured in terms of speaking, listening, reading and writing. More personality traits and motivation scales would have been significantly correlated with some aspects of attainment in English and the coefficients might have been higher. All these need to be confirmed in future research.

The regression model

Correlational analyses exposed numerous bivariate relationships between personality traits, motivation and attainment in English, as previously discussed, but failed to reveal predictors of attainment in English. For this purpose, multiple regression analyses were conducted, which resulted in four models. A stepwise method was employed in forming regression models. The results are summarized in Table 5, which reports coefficients from the regression models, as well as their levels of significance.

TABLE 5:
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS AND SIGNIFICANCE

		LR	IntrinM	P	L
Attainment in English	β	-.205	.118	-.085	-.075
	<i>t</i>	-5.75	3.31	-2.66	-2.38
	<i>p</i>	.000	.001	.008	.018

Table 5 shows that all the coefficients were statistically significant. Among the measured variables, four were included in the models in terms of achievement in English: LR was the most powerful predictor ($\beta = -.205, t = -5.75, p = .000$), followed by IntrinM ($\beta = .118, t = 3.31, p = .001$), P ($\beta = -.085, t = -2.66, p = .008$), and L ($\beta = -.075, t = -2.38, p = .018$). Of the four predictors, only IntrinM was a positive one, all the others were negative ones.

Expectedly, intrinsic motivation contributed to achieving more in English, as found in numerous empirical studies

(Clément et al., 1994; Noels et al., 2001; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). To our surprise, language requirement stipulated by the university not only failed to motivate the students to learn English, but hampered their learning of the language. Tough-mindedness and the propensity to be influenced appeared to be debilitators in learning English as well.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Several conclusions concerning students' personality traits and motivation in relation to their roles in English learning in the Chinese EFL context are warranted from the results of this study.

Statistical analyses reveal that few extremes were found in terms of personality traits: the participants were generally moderate concerning extroversion-introversion, emotionality, and the influence of social desirability. Nevertheless, the majority reported to be dependent and tender-minded.

Concerning motivation, the majority of the participants again reported to be moderate. The learners generally did not work very hard at English, and were instrumentally motivated or interested in foreign languages and cultures to a certain degree which was well above the average but not strong enough. Their intrinsic and integrative motivation was even lower though also moderate. In addition, compulsory courses with credits failed to motivate the students as much as we had expected, which was probably because these students, as successful survivors of the National Matriculation Examinations, had come to the stage of learning for learning's sake instead of for fulfilling requirements.

With regard to the relation between the measured variables, extroversion (E), neuroticism (N), psychoticism (P) and lie (L) were significantly related to all or many of the motivation scales. And most of the personality and motivation scales were significantly correlated with the students' attainment in English. However, only language requirement (LR), intrinsic motivation (IntrinM), psychoticism (P) and lie (L) were revealed to be good predictors of the latter.

As such, it may be useful to open seminars or training courses to guide students onto a track which may be more helpful to their education, life and career. As revealed in the present study, a person who is more extroverted tends to be more psychologically balanced; a more tough-minded person is less prone to be influenced by social desirability. Hence, intentional seminars and training may enable some students to self-consciously change their behavior and personality patterns, such as to become more outgoing and/or stronger. In this way, they may even become more motivated to learn a foreign language (e.g., English) as well, leading to better performance in the language.

At the same time, it may be ideal for EFL teachers to employ various teaching methods to cater to students with different personality traits. For example, more discussion activities can be designed for extroverted and psychologically balanced students, while introverts should also be encouraged to be more involved in speaking activities. Tough-minded learners can be more engaged in debates to learn to listen to and even cooperate with others, compromising themselves sometimes. Meanwhile, it is necessary to encourage students to utilize various learning strategies and styles which benefit them most according to their personality traits, as found in Ehrman and Oxford's (1995) study.

In addition, how to motivate students to learn the target language should always be a concern for EFL teachers and educators. As the world is becoming more and more globalized and English is more universally used in various fields, more and more Chinese learners are no longer or not strongly motivated to learn the language by passing exams or achieving high course grades (especially when nowadays it has become so easy to pass course exams in university). Instead, they work hard at the language may be because they want to know about foreign countries and cultures, to increase their professional knowledge, to enhance their self-value in the future job market, and so on. Thus, course designers of a university must take these changes or factors into consideration when stipulating compulsory foreign language courses. More content-based English medium courses may be more acceptable to university students who have already acquired the general knowledge of grammar and even reading, especially to those who are fairly proficient in English. Meantime, various optional courses can be offered at the tertiary level to cater to the needs to different students, aiming to maintain and further arouse students' interest in English and its culture, as claimed by Liu (2007). In the classroom, certain measures can also be taken to help enhance students' motivation to learn English. Since EFL learners in China often do not have enough contact with the target language or the target language community, teachers can enhance their exposure to it and give more input to promote their interest in learning the language and its culture (Dörnyei, 1990; Strong, 1984). EFL teachers can also provide positive competence feedback to increase learners' intrinsic motivation (Ramage, 1990).

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The Other Transformed: Orientalist Discourse in Book IV of Keats Endymion

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Abstract—As a Romantic orientalist text, book IV of Keats's *Endymion* is a "semi-mythical construct". This paper is an attempt to examine the cultural pressure of what Edward Said has called "orientalist discourse" on Keats, a marginal figure during his lifetime. The focus will be on the "Janus-faced ambivalence", in Homi K. Bhabha's terms, characteristic of the margins of a nation's space. Written in the post-Waterlooian period, *Endymion* is an archetypal quest for identity and self-recognition. The other is represented in the figure of the sorrowful Indian maid who is both the feminine and the oriental Other for the English masculine Self. Associated with exotic beauty, subjected to the "oriental scrutiny" and masculine gaze, the Indian maid is transformed and possessed to confirm the poet's masculine self. However, it is argued, issues such as mythologically significant figures, unheimlich images in the poetic space, orientalist assumptions, digressive passages, vacillating tone of the poem, partial cancelation of the recognized selves, control of the point of view, aestheticizing and spiritualizing of the love for the Indian maid and finally the dreamy quality of the poem complicate the issue of orientalism in the poem. Surveying such complexities, the study seeks to account for what has usually been considered poetic immaturity in Keats's *Endymion*. It is suggested that the artistic drawbacks of the poem are in part the result of the disturbing presence of an oriental Other figuring as a surrogate for a love Keats felt he could not have.

Index Terms—John Keats, *Endymion*, Orientalist Discourse, ambivalence, Self /Other, unheimlich, gaze

In "On Effeminacy of Character" William Hazlitt refers to "Keats's poetry as the primary example" of "corresponding literary style" of an effeminate nature (Mellor, 2001, p. 214). Keats' obsession with romance and his challenging "the existence of fixed, stable boundaries between the sexes" (Mellor, 2001, p. 215) are just two, among many, reasons for his association with female poetry. Instances of female figures abound in his poetry: Psyche, the Grecian "unravish'd bride of quietness," ("Urn", 1) Madeline, a line of goddesses and even the racially Other Lamia. Keats "was named, moreover, not so much as Other and adversarial but as 'nothing', the dissociated figure of an allegory" (Levinson, 1988, p. 287). The quest pattern of romances, associated with wish-fulfillment, could easily provide the possibility of seeking identity. Unconsciously anxious about romance-writing, therefore, Keats developed an ambivalent stance towards gender. He "labors to establish a distance between the male poet and the female object of desire, a space where the poet can preserve a recognizable masculinity" (Mellor, 2001, p. 220-221). One such attempt at identity-recognition is his early *Endymion* in which Endymion figures as the "image of the poet" (Swann, 2001, p. 21). Keats's letters also, as Wassil (2000) observes, "take for their topic identity and split this identity into many parts and move it around the world through an imperial space echoing one of Keats's wishes that 'Endymion' be read in the 'wilds of america' [sic] and the 'plains of Egypt'" (p. 421).

The 'other', in the culminating book of the poem, in the figure of the sorrowful Indian maid, is both the feminine and the oriental. Wassil (2000) further notes that

"a poetry like Keats's, readily admitted to be involved with alienated production techniques and also participating in a major cultural displacement outward into empire and encounters with otherness, might be examined as a possible commentary on otherness, a sometimes willed and sometimes determined extension of a perspective on a condition which is equally complex, at times structured and unstructured" (p. 422).

According to Edward Said (1978), "nearly every nineteenth century writer [...] was extraordinarily aware of the fact of empire" (p. 14). Orientalism, in one sense, is defined as the thought of any "common" person about the Orient (Said, 1978, p. 69). "Though acknowledged," orientalism "is not seen as dominating the poetry or informing the poetics of Keats, a lack of emphasis that may be due to a later effect of an earlier marginalization of a 'political' Keats (Wassil, 2000, p. 419).

Endymion, as Keats says, is "written to please myself and in hope to please others, and for a love of fame" (1818, p. 73). Written with such hope, the poem shows the cultural pressure of "orientalist discourse" in representing England's Orient-as-India. As Butler (1994) points out, Romantic "poems on East," are "commonly allegories of empire and generally located where real-life empires persisted or were arising, in the terrain between Greece and India" (p. 395). However, Keats's ambivalence about gender and racial politics, the dreamy quality of the poem and its narrative structure complicate the issue of orientalism in the poem.

"Resign'd" (*Endymion*, IV. 872) and "bent by circumstances" (*Endymion*, IV. 873), Endymion finds himself displaced, wandering in an alien environment far from his "dear native land" (*Endymion*, IV. 31). Roving in the dark forest, haunted by nostalgia of the "wild" (*Endymion*, IV. 8) regions of his country, he suddenly confronts an "inhuman beauty" (Said, 1978, p. 167). "Alone and in distress" (*Endymion*, IV. 55), the Indian maid seems just another abstract entity in the mythical world of *Endymion*. Endymion's disturbance at sighting the Indian maid, described with "a revealingly fraught use of catalogue" (Hamilton, 1992, p.25), recalls Keats's 'On Seeing the Elgin Marbles' where "unexpectedly, seeing the marbles turns out to be a distressing experience" (Hamilton, 1992, p. 27). Gazing from "thorny-green entanglement/ of underwood" (*Endymion*, IV. 41-42), Endymion sees a "delicious lady" (*Endymion*, IV. 441) helplessly looking for assistance. Abstracted beyond recognition, vulnerable to "orientalist scrutiny" and "masculine gaze", the Indian maid is described in terms of her "curls of glossy jet" (*Endymion*, IV. 60) and her "dark eyes" (*Endymion*, IV. 505). Since she is reduced to a mere abstraction, one cannot even imagine her appearance. Staring at her, the masculine gaze can only catch "her gentle bosom heav[ing] tumultuously" (*Endymion*, IV. 100) or her soft hand and is surprised that he is "so near" (*Endymion*, IV. 317). She does not appear as a presence; she more seems like "an archetypal figure" (Said, 1978, p. 119). Exotically beautiful, the Indian maid is also represented as the typical oriental woman. "A poor lonely maid" (*Endymion*, IV. 287), the girl has been "in search of pleasure throughout every clime" (*Endymion*, IV. 275). Early in the poem, the girl speaks thus:

"Is no one near to help me? No fair dawn
Of life from charitable voice? No sweet saying
To set my dull and sadden'd spirit playing?
No hand to toy with mine? No lips so sweet
That I may worship them? No eyelids meet
To twinkle on my bosom? No one dies
Before me, till from these enslaving eyes
Redemption sparkles!—I am sad and lost." (*Endymion*, IV. 44-51)

Titillating, passive and pleasure-seeking, the girl embodies the oriental motifs of sensuality and ensnaring lure. Therefore, the "voluptuous" (*Endymion*, IV. 759) Endymion finds himself "caught in the trammels of perverse deliciousness" (*Endymion*, IV. 761). Represented as "sad and lost" (*Endymion*, IV. 51), the Indian maid figures the Orient's passivity and submission besides the fact that the figuration of India, "the spirit of the conquered nation," as a desolate and abandoned young woman is one instance of adherence to the orientalist motifs of the 1810s (Butler, 1994, p. 419). The West's dominance is wishfully achieved "with very little resistance on the Orient's part" (Said, 1978, p. 7). Endymion sees himself instantly in possession of the maid. She becomes "my sweetest Indian" (*Endymion*, IV. 648), "my Indian bliss" (*Endymion*, IV. 663) or simply "sweetest Indian" (*Endymion*, IV. 910). Endymion can be a representation of, to use Edward Said's words, "the hegemonism of possessing minorities" (1978, p. 98). Possessed and defined oppositionally, the Indian maid's individuality is done with for the sake of the poet's self-realization. In line with all the "essentially private fantas [ies]" of his co-Romantics, Keats "bolster[s] Western superiority by providing an Eastern *alter ego*- weak, sensuous, servile, effeminate- where the West is strong, free and manly" (Butler, 1994, p. 397). Equally important is the mythological Bacchus here. Confronting the Indian maid "gives the poet an opportunity, of which he takes a noble advantage, of describing a procession of Bacchus." (Bailey, 1818, p. 82) Associated with western mythology, Bacchus "wandered throughout Egypt and Syria. From there he went up the Asian coast until he reached Phrygia, ... Cured of his madness, Dionysus went to Thrace ... From Thrace he went to India, which he conquered by force of arms (he had an army with him) and also by enchantments and mystic powers." (Grimal, 1990, p. 128) Bacchus, as represented in the poem, has "plump white arms, and shoulders enough white" (*Endymion*, IV. 213); he is "A conquering" (*Endymion*, IV. 223) hero who has travelled "with Asian elephants" (*Endymion*, IV. 242) "through kingdoms wide" (*Endymion*, IV. 225). Symbolizing "the period's hunger for essentialist universal knowledge," (Butler, 1994, p.398) Bacchus and his followers traverse

with song and dance,
With zebras striped, and sleek Arabians' prance,
Web-footed alligators, crocodiles,
Bearing upon their scaly backs, in files,
Plump infant laughers mimicking the coil
Of seamen, and stout galley-rowers' toil:
With toying oars and silken sails they glide,
Nor care for wind and tide. (*Endymion*, IV. 243-250)

Not satisfied with merely evoking the exoticism of the images associated with Bacchus, "the archetypal founder of empires," (Butler, 1994, p. 423) Keats further 'orientalizes' this figure in the speech of the Indian maid herself:

"I saw Osirian Egypt kneel adown
Before the vine-wreath crown!
I saw parch'd Abyssinia rouse and sing
To the silver cymbals' ring!
I saw the whelming vintage hotly pierce

Old Tartary the fierce!

The kings of Inde their jewel-sceptres veil,
And from their treasures scatter pearled hail;
Great Brahma from his mystic heaven groans,
And all his priesthood moans;

Before young Bacchus' eye-wink turning pale. (*Endymion*, IV. 257-267)

The exoticized, sensualized – “Orientalized,” in Said’s terms (1978, p. 3) – Orient willingly submits to the god of Western mythology. Also, Endymion’s encounter with the Indian maid in an alien environment and the evocation of the military conquest of the Bacchus achieve a double significance through the allegorical structure of the poem. Keats’s allegorical *Endymion* bespeaks its writer’s wish for participation in the period’s orientalism which was more politically oriented. Butler (1994, p. 399) expatiates on the importance of the emergence of this poetic form (the long allegorical poem) thus:

“Poets, travel-writers, novelists undoubtedly belong in a discourse through which the British teach themselves about India and acquire the national will to be there. The long allegorical poem, creating an imaginary empire in the East, is a form which comes into existence in the 1790s [...] The form coincides with Britain’s main period of Indian wars of conquest, effectively taking off in the decade 1795-1805, when the East India Company’s bridgeheads in Bengal, Madras and Bombay were transformed into what became by 1807 an empire engorging most of the subcontinent south of the Himalayas.”

However, the poem’s ambiguity undermines the attempt to simplify its orientalism. As Marjorie Levinson has argued (1988), Keats uses his cultural marginality to undercut authoritarian values. In fact, Keats is a figure that invokes the characteristic ambivalence of “margins of a nation-space” (Bhabha, 1990, p. 4). It is helpful to recall Keats’s oeuvre as one marked by imaginatively-created worlds, spaces, peopled with figures of another kind of reality. Through imagination, Keats creates the aesthetic as the sphere in which he can examine “the Wittgensteinian ‘point’ or teleology of any discourse,” “a sphere which must be re-occupied for any revolutionary orientation of society to take place” (Hamilton, 1992, p.12). For Keats, imagination is a “defensive agency” against a reality so harsh to his identity. Stamping his subject matter and his “aggressively literary style” (Levinson, 1988, p. 286), Keats’s imagination is usually engaged in a profound crisis of consciousness and personality.

Believing that his fate is “all cast” (*Endymion*, IV. 901) and that he is “cruelly wrong’d” (*Endymion*, IV. 748), Endymion considers himself borne to “dangerous winds” (*Endymion*, IV. 616). This “warm mountaineer” (*Endymion*, IV. 54) whose “wandering” (*Endymion*, IV. 766) is characterized by a sense of homelessness sighs for “but one short hour/ Of native air – let me but die at home.” (*Endymion*, IV. 37) Regarding himself as an outcast, Keats tries to build a sense of home in the vast nature sheltering his dreams, memories and unconscious desires. Not feeling at home in the “wolfish” (*Endymion*, IV. 5) England, he cannot help feeling himself identified with the figure of the Other in his safe poetic space. “Unseen, alone” (*Endymion*, IV. 350) and “with a warm tremble of a devout kiss” (*Endymion*, IV. 744), Endymion “murder [s] half [his] soul” (*Endymion*, IV. 309) to “kneel” and “adore” (*Endymion*, IV. 302) the Indian maid. “Bending” (*Endymion*, IV. 712) to dear love of the Indian maid, he forgets the western Cynthia in order to “embrace” (*Endymion*, IV. 759) a love more heavenly. He melts so much in the Other that the Indian maid and Cynthia seem to have changed places: “Why does his lady smile, pleasing her eye/ With all his sorrowing? He sees her not” (*Endymion*, IV. 798-799). Actually, it was Endymion who was pleased by gazing at the sorrowful Indian maid when he confronted her. Aestheticizing and spiritualizing the love for the Indian maid, he is well aware that such love cannot happen on earth. They must be united “so aloof/ up in the winds” where they can be “witless of their doom” (*Endymion*, IV. 490-492). Sexually threatening and ensnaring, the oriental woman is usually represented as a destructive figure, emasculating the western self. Endymion is sure that “some fearful end must be: where, where is it?” (*Endymion*, IV. 478) since he has been:

Presumptuous against love, against the sky,
Against all elements, against the tie
Of mortals each to each, against the blooms
Of flowers, rush of rivers, and the tombs
Of heroes gone! Against his proper glory
Has my own soul conspired: so my story
Will I to children utter, and repent. (*Endymion*, IV. 639-645)

So he repents and finding himself once more associated with the Other, he tries to reaffirm his identity. A shared feature among Romantics, such “internalization” of orientalist discourse, “a power structure showing on its own terms the mechanisms by which the prohibitions necessary for acceptance into the symbolic order are enforced,” (Hamilton, 1992, p. 15) assumes a considerable importance for Keats and especially for *Endymion*, given the hopes with which it was written. In fact, the poet has only temporarily lost himself in another object: “Do gently murder half my soul and I/ Shall feel the other half so utterly!—” (*Endymion*, IV. 309-310). As Richardson (2001) puts it, although Keats usually “voices the desire to transcend the limitations of earthly existence, such moments are typically followed by the recognition – at once chastening and unexpectedly heartening – that the end of sense experience would mean an end to imaginative life. In *Endymion* this is called the ‘journey homeward to habitual self’” (p. 234). Therefore, after the

implied sexual union with the Indian maid on the horses in the region of the "Sleep" (*Endymion*, IV. 370), he again steps back from her in the symbolic scene of her evaporation. Although sexuality can signify social regeneration, a telling gesture recurring in Keats's poetry, desire, glamorized, for an oriental Other can violate Keats's search for a masculine autonomy. Striving for self-realization but disconnected from the Other, Endymion becomes a youth of no character: "What is this soul then? Whence/ Came it? It does not seem my own, and I/ Have no self-passion or identity" (*Endymion*, IV. 475-477). That's why the "common impression" of critics in 1884 was "that the author of *Endymion* was a feeble creature, seriously lacking in self-control" (Najarian, 2002, p.30). Formerly trying to shape his identity in relation to Cynthia, a symbolic embodiment of power who had acted more like a deferred presence, he had cancelled that would-be identity after taking the Indian maid as the alternate Other. Ideologically and psychologically denied the identification with the Indian maid, once more he expresses being "not so much as Other ... but as 'nothing'" (Levinson, 1988, p. 287). "Agree [ing] with de Man that *Endymion* privileges sympathy," Najarian (2002, p. 165) sums the situation thus:

Sensuous love has a radiating effect. It is easily redistributed among others in the form of sympathy, which de Man defines as "a forgetting of the self for the sake of others, especially when the other is in a state of suffering." As the self is forgotten or abandoned at moments of sympathy with others, these moments can be metaphorically expressed as trance or sleep. Sleep aptly figures the loss of self necessary to true sympathy. According to de Man, this sympathy with others has a negative side; it shelters one from knowledge of the self.

Endymion's resolve to become a hermit does not please him either. Eros is Keats's only way of connecting with the reality slighting him (Cox, 2001, p. 58). Hermit's living in seclusion does not match Keats's already marginal life.

Pained and hot

His eyes went after them, until they got
Near to a cypress grove, whose deadly maw,
In one swift moment, would what then he saw
Engulph for ever. "Stay!" he cried, "ah, stay!
Turn, damsels! hist! one word I have to say.

Sweet Indian, I would see thee once again. (*Endymion*, IV. 904-910)

As Edward Said notes, "a sense of irreducible distance separat[es] white from colored" (1978, p. 228). The Indian maid must be transformed so that Keats's spiritual love for her becomes culturally sanctioned. "Keats, in so far as he is seen as creator and consumer of such orientalist constructions, is thus viewed as distancing himself from or, at most, aestheticizing the realities of oppression and victimization" (Wassil, 2000, p. 419).

into her face there came

Light, as reflected from a silver flame:
Her long black hair swell'd ampler, in display
Full golden; in her eyes a brighter day
Dawn'd blue and full of love. (*Endymion*, IV. 982-986)

Westernized, the Indian maid achieves, to use another Saidian phrase, "superior ontological status" (Said, 1978, p. 226). Endymion explains the occurrence thus to the maid: "twas fit that from this mortal state/ Thou shouldst, my love, by some unlook'd for change/ Be spiritualiz'd" (*Endymion*, IV. 991-993). On this Bailey (1818), partly responsible for *Blackwood's* attack on the poem, noted that: "The catastrophe of the poem is this young Indian being changed into Diana" (p. 82). But he reckoned it to be an "unconscious coincidence" (Ibid). Rather, the Indian maid's metamorphosis indicates Keats inability to cope with the forces of "orientalist discourse". It is helpful to recall that the portrayal of the Indian maid, England's Orient, takes the course of her psychological and racial reduction followed by spiritualization of the love for her. "In a negative reformation, the creation of identity", as Wassil (2000) aptly maintains, "may signal the repression of otherness, but such an act of repression already signals the development of a more complex structure within that identity" (p. 423). Cutting himself off from the world of political tangibilities and, as a result, uncomfortable in the role thus fashioned for himself, Keats once more says adieu to the deceiving fancy of being tolled back from the realm of retreat to his "sole self" (*Nightingale*, 72), to feel like participating in a masculinity defined by its unrestricted control over the feminine other. Therefore, Keats' equivocation in *Endymion* seems in keeping with his ambivalent gender politics, his social marginality added to the cultural pressure of "orientalist discourse". "His literary output is thus seen as representative of what he failed to control, what lies outside the text in the abstract social forces which shape literature; thus Keats and the poetry become a 'system of wishes and resistances,' a 'dynamic reflection of social configurations'" (Wassil, 2000, p. 424). The union of Endymion and Diana, also, as Kandel (2001) quotes de Man, has "a communal spirit of friendship with social and political overtones; something of the spirit of the French Revolution" (p. 11).

Also indicative of Keats's poetry is a subtle stylistic and textual ambiguity. *Endymion's* ambiguities were mostly considered by his contemporaries as poetical immaturity. Even its orientalism, Leask believes, is "primarily a question of style" (as cited in Wassil, 2000, p.419). Lockhart (1818, p. 100) snorted:

As for Mr Keats' *Endymion*, it has just as much to do with Greece as it has with 'old Tartary the fierce; no man, whose mind has ever been imbued with the smallest knowledge or feeling of classical poetry or classical history, could have stooped to profane and vulgarise every association in the manner which has been adopted by this 'son of promise.'

In an unsigned review, *'Endymion, a monstrously droll poem'* (1818), the critic's impression was that: "Somebody sings a very pitiful song to sorrow; and somebody else gets upon horseback with Endymion" (p. 92). Reference to this poem in Keats oeuvre has usually been dismissive and regretful. Although "both detractors and supporters [have] remained caught in the poem's image-making machinery" (Swann, 2001, p. 20), it has evoked less excitement than other poems of Keats. Frequent distracting digressions, a non-traceable point of view and vacillating tone, sometimes obscuring the referent of pronouns beyond plausibility, seem some of its poetical drawbacks. But what has remained less acknowledged is the cause of these defects. What cannot be neglected in a careful analysis of the poem is its dreamy quality. "The occasion of *Endymion*," as Kucich (2001) explains, through Keats's "attention to *The Canterbury Tales* and *Troilus and Criseyde* involved Chaucer's narrative powers and, particularly, his evocations of psychic interiority and deep pathos" (p. 191). In his struggle for identity, the poet journeys through "that deep den of all" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 225). The poem seems to be a psychological dramatization of the poet's effort to reintegrate his split subjectivity, an opportunity to be reunited with his anima maid to achieve a full sense of his personality. In his specific way of dealing with "Spenserian material," Keats "unfold[s] the psychodynamics implicit in the allegory – of imaginative idealism pressured by a sense of reality – and leave the conflict unresolved, or resistant to any clear moral interpretation" (Kucich, 2001, *Ibid*). Plunging into his labyrinthine unconscious, Endymion is haunted by "cloudy phantasms" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 651) and "airy voices" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 654) cheating him on his way. Tropes of darkness, sexuality and desire further reinforce the uncanny quality of the poetic space. The logic of these "dark regions" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 516), "the proper home/ of every ill" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 521-522), is that of a sudden surge of rationally inexplicable figures; they have the mysterious force of figures from the unconscious. "So from the turf outsprang two steeds jet-black, / Each with large dark blue wings upon his back" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 343-344). In addition to the uncanny horses exciting fear, the Indian maid's vanishing and reappearance conform to the "inner repetition-compulsion" principle surrounding whatever which is perceived as uncanny (Freud as cited in Rivkin, 2000, p. 164). Such "gothicization", it is important to mention in passing, is another instant of Keats's observance of the orientalist motifs of the period, this time of Southey's orientaling "narrative paradigms" back in the 1800s (Butler, 1994, p. 415). Probing his unconscious, Endymion is left with the impression of a spurious dream. Tangled "in wonderment" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 1003), he complains that: "I have clung/To nothing, lov'd a nothing, nothing seen/ Or felt but a great dream!" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 636-638) And dreams, "the bearer of the subject's desire," (Lacan, 1981, p. 55) are the "realization of a desire" (Lacan, 1981, p. 57). Keats's oeuvre, as Wassil (2000) writes, is one marked by "unavailability" of female figures "and the frustrated marriages associated with them" (p. 428). In fact, in returning to his poem, Keats returns to a very personal and haunting memory: the love of Fanny Brawne. *Endymion* is Keats's memoir, his recollection of his separation from Fanny. As "a common structure in Keats," (Najarian, 2002, p. 111) *Endymion*'s quiet "bower" of its opening lines, "are self created spaces [...] in the memories and experiences that the mind makes for itself" (Najarian, 2002, p. 36). Kandel (2001) also seems aware of the implicit Fanny when he argues that the poetic union of Endymion and Diana is "revolutionary: wrathfully breaking the Jovian edict that would keep Cynthia eternally chaste, this 'Poet' releases not just these two but liberates a host of lovers from their states of isolation, oppression, or the repression that renders them the 'languid sick'" (p. 10). The dream of his reunion is thinkable only with the silent, "meek" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 73), and the exotically beautiful Indian maid, an oriental Other of easy availability. Denied gratification of Fanny's love, Keats employs the serviceable black body of the Indian maid for his own purpose: the projection of his sexual desires. "Keats's sensually opulent style" was, as Vendler (2007, p. 27) puts it, a development "for the happier embraces, both spiritual and physical, of *Endymion*" with Endymion "placed in a dream state even as the speaker wishes for a similar state of liminal, eternal sexual pleasure" (Najarian, 2002, p. 35). Therefore, although he is unconsciously satisfied, Keats aestheticizing the love for the Indian maid, as his surrogate Fanny is still ideologically problematic. Consequently, his urgent need to preserve his reunion makes him move beyond the rules of plausibility. The narrative once more strays from its credibility when the Indian maid is suddenly transformed into a golden-haired and blue-eyed girl. Since he is moved by his irrepressible unconscious impulses, Keats's poetry has become loose in plot construction. In emplotting "the distracting presence of another temporality" (Bhabha, 1990, p. 295), Keats becomes aware of "the unheimlich terror of the space or the race of the Other" (Bhabha, 1990, p. 2) shaking the pillars of his narrative structure. To save his poem, after the flight on the horses with the "purple mist around them" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 367) is over, "the dark-eyed stranger" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 977) must instantly fade away. In *Orientalism*, Edward Said (1978, p. 20) observes that:

Everyone who writes about the Orient must locate himself vis-a-vis the Orient; translated into his text, this location includes the kind of narrative voice he adopts, the type of structure he builds, the kinds of images, the themes, motifs that circulate in his text—all of which add up to deliberate ways of addressing the reader, containing Orient, and finally, representing it or speaking in its behalf.

To contain and manipulate this fascinating but disturbing Other, Keats controls the point of view of his narrative especially after Endymion's partial identification with the Indian maid. Although, at times, the dreamy quality of the poem and Keats's ambivalent politics obfuscate the point of view beyond recognition, generally it fluctuates between the dramatic and limited omniscient point of view restricted to Endymion's thought and feelings. What the Indian maid herself tells "will not undo that somewhere else she is *told*." (Lyotard, as cited in Bhabha, 1990, p. 301) Accordingly, rendered voiceless after her early exclamation of "woe" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 30) and "horror" (*"Endymion"*, IV. 468), the

Indian maid becomes a speechless object, she falls into an eternal sleep, only to evaporate into non-existence. In fact, following their necessary initial dialogue the focus of the narrative is almost exclusively on Endymion. The narrative voice can then freely shift between the narrator and Endymion. Centered on Endymion, the point of view reveals Keats's unconscious anxiety for his attachment to an oriental Other.

Ah, what perplexity! Ah, well a day!
 So fond, so beauteous was his bed-fellow,
 He could not help but kiss her: then he grew
 Awhile forgetful of all beauty save
 Young Phoebe's, golden hair'd; and so 'gan crave
 Forgiveness: yet he turn'd once more to look
 At the sweet sleeper,—all his soul was shook,—
 She press'd his hand in slumber; so once more
 He could not help but kiss her and adore.

At this the shadow wept, melting away. (“*Endymion*”, IV. 447-456)

Endymion's wavering desire for the easily accessible Indian maid and the golden-haired Diana, supposedly resembling his Fanny, is, to use Edward Said's words, "the vacillation between the familiar and the alien" (1978, p. 72). Even Keats's poem is not fair to him. Silencing the oriental Other, Keats betrays his Endymion's spiritualization of his love for the Indian maid and thus foreshadows his second relieving spiritualization. Consequently, the poem becomes a failure on another level. Early in his career, Keats had not yet learned how to dominate the feminine Other, the way he "obliterates" (Steyaert, 1996, para. 3) Psyche's identity, for instance, for the sake of a true masculinity. Choosing an oriental Other for easy gratification of a love denied him, Keats exemplifies the influence of traditional oriental dogmas on his imagination joining his cultural marginality.

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The Impact of Task-planning and Gender on the Accuracy of Narrations Composed by Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate whether planning in writing tasks affect the accuracy of the written narrations or not. To do so, 90 EFL full time male and female students all between the ages of 21 and 27 were pooled out of a population of 120 through giving them the SAT practice test. They were divided into three groups of thirty. All of the groups were assigned the same written task which was a narration based on six-picture series. However, the conditions of task implementation differed. The no-planning group was served as the control group, while the within-task planning and strategic planning groups were considered as experimental groups. The accuracy was measured by counting the number of error-free clauses and accurately used verbs. The result of the study showed that the strategic planning group outperformed the other groups.

Index Terms—task, within-task planning, no planning, strategic planning, narration

I. INTRODUCTION

Undoubtedly every teaching approach will affect the skills to be learned. Writing skill has also been affected by various teaching methods. The methods and approaches have undergone noticeable changes. In the 1970s, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach was introduced (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979). The goal of CLT was similar to earlier methods such as Audio Lingual Method (ALM) or oral-situational method. In fact, all of them sought to develop the ability to use language in communication. The difference was the means through which the goal was achieved. The earlier methods viewed language as a set of linguistic systems while CLT was based on a theory of developing communicative competence (Ellis, 2003). The term ‘task’ was introduced instead of ‘communicative activity’ during the 1980s (Rubdy, 1998). Tasks were widely used in both communicative and traditional approaches of language teaching. The way of teaching in which tasks are incorporated is referred to as task-supported language teaching (TSLT) (Ellis, 2003). Skehan (2003) refers to it as the ‘weak version’ of task based instruction. The strong version is referred to as task-based language teaching (TBLT).

First, TBLT focused on fluency while ignoring other aspects of language such as complexity and accuracy. Skehan (1996a) believed that the implementation of TBLT does not develop the learners’ linguistic repertoire effectively. As a result, the idea of fluency or accuracy became a dilemma for the teachers as well as learners. Yuan (2001) argued that traditional approaches failed to develop learners’ fluency and TBLT did not satisfy the learners’ needs for accurate language use. Perhaps the reason behind this dilemma is that humans have limited attentional resources (Schmidt, 1990).

Different proposals were developed to account for this problem. One of them was how pre-, mid-, and post-task activities can be designed to ensure an effective balance between form and meaning in TBLT (Skehan, 1996a, 2003; Foster & Skehan, 1999; Yuan, 2001).

One line of research focused on the effects of pre-task planning on language production, and how it influences the ways attention is used; particularly in relation to form-meaning balance. Skehan (1996 a) suggests that giving learners the opportunity to plan for their production prior to performing tasks may encourage them to focus on form and as a result create a balance in attentional resources between form and meaning while performing a task.

Another line of research focused on the effects of within-task or online planning (i.e. planning taking place while performing a task) on language production and whether or not it is more useful than strategic planning in terms of creating a balance between attention to form and attention to meaning. It seems that both types of planning develop learners’ oral and written production, but it is not clear which one is more effective. In the following section a brief account of task planning has been mentioned.

A. Task Planning

Wigglesworth (1977) in a study concludes that planning time is a term which has been the focus of attention in many studies in both first and second language production and as Sanagarun (2001) argues planning time is still “an important feature of language production”. Most of these studies have their roots in L1 research aiming at developing cognitive models of oral production with planning as one of their components (Crookes, 1989). Givon (1979) and Ochs (1979) came to this conclusion that L1 planned discourse would promote L2 development.

Givon (1979) compared planned and unplanned L1 oral and written productions and the result of his comparison was two modes of production: the “pragmatic mode” and the “syntactic mode”. According to Givon (1979) adult L1 production has a loose coordination. This matter is comparable to the pragmatic mode. Givon (1979) also concludes that adult L1 planned production can be compared with the syntactic mode with high subordination and high use of grammatical morphology. Ochs (1979) investigated the effects of L1 planned versus unplanned discourse from a psycholinguistic point of view. The result of her study was that a number of features which exist in the discourse of three to four-year-old children show themselves in adults’ unplanned discourse. She found that planned discourse was based on knowledge which had been acquired or learned later in life. She hypothesized that whenever planning time is not available speakers rely on their early-acquired morphosyntactic structures and discourse skills.

On the other hand, Hayes and Gradwohl Nash (1996) came to this conclusion that the more time spent on a task, the more the effects of planning would appear. They focused their study on L1 writings and the result was that “planning is neither more nor less valuable than other writing activities” (p. 53). Thus, it can be said that strategic planning affords learners more time overall. Of course, the studies used holistic ratings of writings as measures.

Some studies on L1 and L2 planning have been carried out concerning the level of consciousness involved in each. In some studies like those of Farch and Kasper (1983) it has been mentioned that planning in L1 is subconscious and highly ballistic. Perhaps the reason is that L1 speakers have ready-made plans that reduce their processing load. On the other hand these ready-made plans may not be available to many L2 speakers especially at the beginner level and will result in an increased pressure on working memory of the speakers (Mehnert, 1998). It seems that L2 speakers must construct their own plans in order to compensate for the pressure imposed on their working memory. To do so, they should have a strong cognitive control which can be reduced through planning. The nature of planning is complicated. Thus it is better to first consider the definition of the term.

The definition of planning

Generally, planning is referred to as “a goal-oriented mental activity that people engage in to achieve a particular objective” (Newell & Simon, 1972). According to Yuan (2001), planning involves the allocation of attentional resources and the regulation of cognitive processes. Das, Kar, and Parilla (1996) define planning as follows:

[Planning] is oriented to future, and may include the creation and selection of problems, as well as the anticipation of a sequence of actions to solve them. (p. 54)

Foss and Hakes (1978) argue that planning in production involves the formulation of ideas, the choice of appropriate lexical items, and organizing them “in a suitable semantic and syntactic framework” (p. 170). Wendel (1997) believes that planning involves the retrieval and organization of an utterance. Ochs (1979) also differentiates planned from unplanned discourse in terms of the presence or lack of thought preparation and discourse organization. Ellis (2005), on the other hand, considers the types of linguistic devices used in planning which he refers to as “a problem solving activity”. According to Ellis, the aim of planning is “to affect the audience in the desired way” (p. 3).

In the literature on task planning, *speech planning* and *writing planning* have been taken into account. Clark and Clark (1977) refer to two types of activities involved in speaking: *planning* and *execution*. They found that planning is an umbrella term which involves discourse, sentence, and even constituents. These elements are interwoven in the execution of a language act. Farch and Kasper (1983) differentiate *planning phase* from *execution phase*. According to them, the planning phase involves searching the linguistic repertoire and selecting the rules and items that meet the communicative needs of the speaker. On the other hand, in the execution phase these rules and items are executed to satisfy the original goal.

Considering planning in writing, Hayes and Gradwohl Nash (1996) regard it as a kind of reflection which should be accompanied with other reflective processes such as decision making and inferencing. It has also been argued that the difference between planning and other reflective processes is that the environment of planning is completely different from that of the task. Hayes and Gradwohl Nash (1996) distinguish between two types of planning. The first type is *process* planning which is related to the writer and the strategies he/she uses to accomplish a given task. The second type is *text* planning which is related to the content and form of writing. Still another distinction has been made between different types of writing planning on the basis of the discursal levels they involve. Whalen and Menard (1995) refer to types of planning such as *pragmatic* planning, *textual* planning, and *linguistic* planning. Pragmatic planning deals with the identification of audience and reason for writing, and developing a given topic. Textual planning, on the other hand, involves achieving coherence between idea sequences. Finally, linguistic planning involves the writer’s attempts to solve a linguistic problem to formulate an idea.

Planning has been linked to interlanguage (IL) development. Selinker (1972) coined the term interlanguage. It refers to the developmental language between L1 and L2. Interlanguage has its specific features. Corder (1981) believes that interlanguage is a mixed language that involves some features of the learner’s L1 and some features of his L2; but it is neither pure L1 nor L2 and has its own features. Ellis (1987) proposed that planning allows the learner to access the

linguistic forms that have not been fully automated. Skehan (1996) also stated that planning frees up attentional resources and redirects them on the forms of language. As it was seen, there are various attitudes toward planning both considering writing and speaking. In the following section, different kinds of planning will be taken into account.

Types of task planning

Ellis (2005) classifies task planning into two main types. The difference is in the time of planning. The first type of planning is *pre-task planning* in which planning takes place before performing the task. In this type of planning as Schmidt (2001) calls it, there is 'preparatory attention' which helps in performing actions with greater accuracy and speed. The second type of planning is *within-task planning*. Each of these types is divided into two other types.

Pre-task planning can be divided into *rehearsal* and *strategic* planning. In rehearsal planning, learners have the opportunity to "perform the task before the 'main performance'" (Ellis, 2005, p. 3). In this type of planning, the first performance of the task is considered as a preparation for the main performance. Strategic planning, on the other hand, involves learners' preparation of the content of the task they are going to perform. This type of planning is the focus of the present study. In strategic planning, learners "have access to the actual task materials" (Ellis, 2005, p.3).

Within-task planning has been also divided into *pressured* and *unpressured* planning. In the first one, learners are not usually given enough time to plan on-line, while in unpressured within-task planning they are given enough time to plan online.

The classification can be continued. There are still other types of task planning that may occur with both main types of task planning. The first one is related to the amount of guidance that is given to learners (i.e. *unguided* vs. *guided* task planning). In unguided planning, learners will be on their own in their planning; however, they may be given some advice on what to plan and how to plan (Ellis, 2005). The second sub-type is on the basis of *source of planning*. Foster and Skehan (1999) found that different sources of planning have an effect on the outcome of planning. The sources may include *teacher-led*, *group-based*, and *solitary* planning. The third sub-type of planning is the *foci of planning* which is related to the orientation of planning in terms of form and content. As a result, planning may be content-focused, form-focused, or both form and content-focused (Sangarun, 2001). It seems that this subtype is somehow related to the first sub-type (i. e. unguided vs. guided task planning) since guidance usually is on the form, on the content or both.

Various combinations of principal and sub-types of planning have been the focus of different studies. Some of the studies will be mentioned in the following sections of the present dissertation.

In the present research, the researchers focused on the application of task planning on writing. To do so, they limited their study to the accuracy of narrative tasks written by Iranian EFL learners. Since the focus of the present study is writing, it will be better to consider one of the models of writing as a basis of the explanations related to the present study.

B. Kellogg's Model of Writing

Kellogg's (1996) model involves three basic systems (Ellis & Yuan, 2004). Each system involves two processes. The first system is *Formulation* and involves (i) 'planning' in which goals are set and ideas are organized, and (ii) 'translation' in which lexical units and syntactic frames are selected; then they are phonologically and graphologically represented to be ready for execution. The second system is *Execution* and involves (i) 'programming' where the output from translation is converted into production schema, and (ii) 'executing' which is the actual production of a sentence. The third system is *Monitoring* which involves (i) 'reading' in which the writer reads his/her production, and (ii) 'editing' in which the writer attends to either micro aspects (such as linguistic errors) and/or macro aspects (such as text organization) of the text. According to Kellogg, the Execution system which is responsible for problem solving and mental calculation is involved in all sub-processes with the exception of executing in which there is no need for controlled processing.

However, Ellis (2005) believes that Kellogg considers an adult, native-like automaticity in handwriting and typing which might not be present in L2 learners with limited proficiency, especially those whose L1 employs a different script. Therefore, he concludes that the execution system would be called upon during executing by some L2 writers.

The nature of writing

Writing stands out among the four basic skills of language learning. Olshtain (1993) explores the special status of writing within the framework of language teaching. She identifies:

"The skill of writing enjoys special status. It is via writing that a person can communicate a variety of meanings to close or distant, known or unknown readers. Such communication is extremely important in the modern world, whether the interaction takes the form of a traditional paper and pencil writing or the most advanced electronic mail. As Olshtain (1993, p.235) puts it, "writing as a communicative activity needs to be encouraged and nurtured during the language learners' course of study".

Olshtain addresses the prominence of composition with reference to various audiences and the miscellaneous of its use. But, Chastain points to the significance of writing with respect to its relationship with language proficiency and level of education. According to Chastain, writing is a kind of communication skill as well as a unique asset in the process of second language learning. He further argues that "writing with its unique features contributes to overall language learning. Both aspects of writing are important in the typical language class and both can serve to reinforce the other. Moreover, "writing is the distinctive ability of educated people" (Chastain, 1988, p.244).

Irrespective speaking, writing is a much slower process. Raimes (1983) draws our attention to a fact that everybody learns speech as a mother tongue, but he/she is not able to acquire how to read or write. All forms of communication such as facial expressions, gestures, all non-verbal forms are transformed to linguistic and mechanical forms in writing, and one needs to be informed of all these forms.

Speakers may violate the grammar rules, but writing will be remained as a valid document and is subject to different forms of criticism. Consequently, writing is the last skill in the sequence to develop, should be learned by study in a longer process of time. Harris (1969) states: "writing as a complex skill involves the spontaneous practice of a number of very different abilities, some of which are never fully achieved by many students even in their native language" (p.68) Writing, and specifically academic writing, requires training, instruction, practice, experience and purpose." (Grabe and Kaplan, 1996, p.6)

Based on the previous studies in this domain, the following research questions were formed.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1) Is there any significant difference between Iranian EFL learners' language *accuracy* when they have the opportunity to plan a written narrative task both in advance and while writing than when they have no opportunity to do so?

2) Is there any significant difference between the performance of EFL Iranian males and females concerning the accuracy of their written tasks?

In order to answer the posed questions, a study was carried out as explained in the following section.

III. METHODOLOGY

This section will describe the methods which have been used to investigate the research questions.

A. Research Design

The design of the present study is a mixed one since there are both statistical analysis and interviews with the participants. The between-group factor in the study is planned condition, with three conditions (no-planning, strategic planning, and within-task planning). To measure the effects of planned condition on learners' written products, two way ANOVA (Two Way Analysis of Variance) study was conducted.

B. Participants

The participants in the study were 90 EFL full-time students. They were studying at Islamic Azad universities of Malayer, Hamedan, and also the state university of Malayer. They were between the ages of 21 and 27 years. There were 46 males and 44 females in the research who had studied English for at least two academic years. Some of them had participated in English classes of institutes. They had successfully passed language skill courses (i.e. writing, reading, listening, and speaking) in addition to grammar and vocabulary use.

C. Instruments

This section provides a description of the instruments used in the study, which includes: pretest materials, writing tasks, task conditions, scoring rubrics used to rate learners' written products, and scoring procedures. Pretest material which included fifty items was selected from multiple-choice a SAT practice test which is a valid, reliable and official test series of English used to test the writing skills in English. This test was selected because it is inexpensive, easy to administer, and easy to score objectively. Raimes (1987) argued that linguistic proficiency is not the only factor to impact evaluation of L2 written text. It is evident, however, that if grammatical knowledge is viewed as "a set of linguistic resources from which learners select forms based on appropriateness for meaning, for audience, and for textual demands" (Frodesen & Holten, 2003, p. 157), learners' L2 linguistic proficiency and writing proficiency in the evaluation of their written products are inseparable to a certain extent.

Additionally, as an indirect test of writing, the grammar section of the selected test is expected to evaluate learners' knowledge of writing sub-skills, including grammar and sentence structure, which are supposed to underlie writing ability (Knoll, 1998). In the present study, L2 knowledge as an indicator of learners' proficiency level is narrowly defined in terms of grammatical competence under Bachman's (1990) communicative language ability framework. *Grammatical competence*, constituting one part of language competence, refers to the ability to control the formal structure of language and to recognize a grammatically correct sentence. Therefore, grammatical competence includes relatively independent capabilities such as the knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, and phonology or graphology at the sentence level. A certain amount of linguistic knowledge is considered to be a prerequisite for constructing a coherent text.

The scores of the proficiency test were calculated and entered into ANOVA analysis and based on the obtained results 90 participants were selected for the study.

The term 'task' has been used in different studies on written narratives (Ellis, 1987; Yuan, 2001; and Ellis & Yuan, 2004). The *task* used in the present study is a story-narration based on a series of pictures from Heaton (1975). The pictures are designed to elicit a story, and each story requires interpretation on the part of the learner. The learner has to

study the pictures and generate his/her ideas on the first draft. To do this, he/she may need collaboration and sharing ideas with other classmates.

Task conditions

In the present research planning was operationalized at three levels: (a) no planning (NP); (b) strategic planning (SP); and (c) within-task planning (WTP). The control group was the no-planning condition (NP) in which participants were given no time for planning and were asked to write at least 150 words. In order to set up the appropriate time during which they are required to finish the task, the pilot study involving similar participants had been carried out.

The fastest time found for completing the task was 25 minutes. This was time was given to complete the task in the main study to avoid within-task planning on the part of the participants.

The first experimental group was the strategic planning condition (SP) in which participants were given ten minutes to plan for their narrations prior to performing the task. They were also asked to write at least 150 words. No detailed guidance was provided for planning, but the participants were asked to plan their narratives in terms of content, organization, and language following (Crookes, 1989; Skehan & Foster, 1996, 1997, 1999; Wendel, 1997; Yuan, 2001; Yuan & Ellis, 2003; and Ellis & Yuan, 2004). They were allowed to write notes on a sheet of paper, but were asked not to write the whole story, and the notes were taken away before they performed the task. Again, based on the findings of the pilot study, participants under this planning condition were allowed 25 minutes to complete the task.

The second experimental group was the within-task planning condition (WTP) in which participants were required to start performing the task immediately, but were given as much time as needed to complete the task. The only difference was that they were not given any time to plan for the task in advance, but they were allowed unlimited time to plan while performing the task. There was a different condition. The participants were not required to write a minimum of 150 words because "this may be interpreted as requiring them to write quickly" (Ellis & Yuan, 2004: 70). Task instructions were in Persian to avoid misunderstanding on the part of the learners.

Retrospective interviews

After performing the written narratives, three participants were randomly selected from each group for a retrospective interview with the researcher. The purpose of this interview was to investigate how participants used the planning time they were given, what they concentrated on, and whether or not they made use of what they planned.

D. Methodology of Data Analysis

Measures

Based on what Yuan (2001) and Ellis and Yuan (2004) have stated, the following measures for planning (independent variable) and accuracy (dependent variable) were considered:

Independent variables: planning and gender

Planning is the independent variable of the study. There are two planning conditions in the present study: strategic planning, and within-task planning. Planning was measured as follows:

1. Length of time: the total number of minutes on task was calculated for each participant.
2. Words: the total number of words produced by each participant was calculated.
3. Syllables: the total number of syllables produced by each participant was calculated.

The purpose of counting the syllabuses was to consider the length of words. It was not clear that whether or not participants under the within-task planning condition were engaged in significant within-task planning. Therefore, these measures were used "to see if the participants had performed the task in the expected planning condition" (Yuan, 2001, p. 61).

Also the gender of the participants who were either males or females was considered as an independent variable in the present study.

Dependent variable: Accuracy

Accuracy refers to "the ability of the learner to use the target language according to its norms" (Edwards, C. and Willis, J., 2005). It has been measured as follows:

1. Error-free clauses: the ratio of error-free clauses to the total number of clauses used was calculated.
2. Accurately used verbs: the percentage of accurately used verbs in tense, modality, and subject-verb agreement was counted within each narrative.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In the following tables, the results of the two-way ANOVA are shown.

TABLE 1:
THE SCORES OF PARTICIPANTS *GENDER

Participants	Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
No Planning Task	Male	72.187	.622	70.950	73.425
	Female	72.786	.665	71.462	74.109
Within-task Planning	Male	74.867	.643	73.588	76.145
	Female	74.067	.643	72.788	75.345
Strategic Planning	Male	75.867	.643	74.588	77.145
	Female	76.400	.643	75.122	77.678

As it can be inferred from table 1, the scores which are the result of assessing the accuracy of the written tasks and are given on the scale of 100, are not significantly different between males and females who participated in the study. The interpretation is that as far as gender is considered, there are not any significant differences in the accuracy of written tasks generated by Iranian EFL learners.

TABLE 2:
GENDER

Gender	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	74.307	.367	73.577	75.037
Female	74.417	.376	73.671	75.164

According to the table 2, the mean of the participating males in the study was 74.307; while, that of the females was 74.417. The minute difference between the means proves the neutrality of gender effect on the performance of males and females.

TABLE 3:
THE SCORES OF THE PARTICIPANTS IN THE THREE GROUPS

Participants	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
No Planning Task	72.487	.456	71.581	73.393
Within-task Planning	74.467	.455	73.563	75.371
Strategic Planning	76.133	.455	75.229	77.037

As the table 3 illustrates, the means of the scores of all of the three groups participating in the study are different. However the significance of these mean differences was not clear. Thus the researchers ran a Post Hoc test analysis to ensure whether the observed differences were significant or not. Table 4 summarizes the results of this analysis.

TABLE 4:
THE RESULTS OF POST HOC TESTS

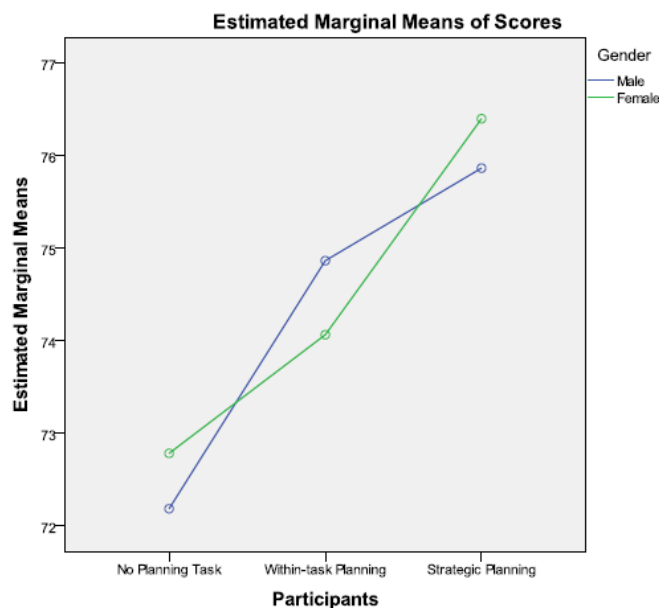
(I) Participants	(J) Participants	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
No Planning Task	Within-task Planning	-2.00*	.643	.007
	Strategic Planning	-3.67*	.643	.000
Within-task Planning	No Planning Task	2.00*	.643	.007
	Strategic Planning	-1.67*	.643	.030
Strategic Planning	No Planning Task	3.67*	.643	.000
	Within-task Planning	1.67*	.643	.030

As it can be inferred from table 4, all of the mean differences between the three groups are statistically significant. The planning groups have outperformed the no-planning group as far as the accuracy of written narrations is concerned. According to the table 4, the greatest mean difference was observed between the means of strategic planning and no-planning groups. Thus, on the basis of table 3, we may argue that the strategic group had the best performance than the other group; however, the within-task planning group was better than the no-planning group as far as the accuracy of their written tasks is considered.

TABLE 5:
COMPARISON BETWEEN PARTICIPANTS AND GENDER

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Participants	199.501	2	99.750	16.089	.000
Gender	.274	1	.274	.044	.834
Participants * Gender	9.335	2	4.667	.753	.474
Error	520.795	84	6.200		
Total	498320.000	90			
Corrected Total	732.622	89			

According to the table 5, it can be said that the F-value for participants is 16.089 which is significant at 0.000; and 0.044 for the gender which is significant at 0.834. The combination of participants and gender yields an F-value of 0.753 which is significant at 0.474. In the next part, the profile plot of the comparison between males and females is brought. Then the research questions have been answered.



Profile Plot 1: the Comparison between the Scores of Males and Females in the Three Groups

As it is shown in the plot, the mean difference between the three groups cannot be attributed to the gender of the participants. Rather, the difference is because of the planning implemented before or during the task performance.

Following the research questions have been answered.

Research question (1): Is there any significant difference between Iranian EFL learners' language *accuracy* when they have the opportunity to plan a written narrative task both in advance and while writing than when they have no opportunity to do so?

According to the table 4, the mean differences for no-planning (NP) and within-task planning (WTP) groups; WTP and strategic planning (SP) groups; as well as SP and NP groups are 2.00, 1.67, and 3.67 respectively. These differences are significant at 0.007, 0.030, and 0.000 respectively. Thus it may be inferred that planning has had a positive effect on the accuracy of narrations produced by Iranian EFL learners.

Research question (2): Is there any significant difference between the performance of EFL Iranian males and females concerning the accuracy of their written tasks?

There is not any significant difference between the performances of males and females regarding the accuracy of their written narration tasks. It can be inferred from the table 4 that the F-value for the groups is 16.089 which is significant at 0.000. It means that planning has significantly affected the performances of the experimental groups. However as far as gender is regarded, the F-value is 0.44 and significant at 0.835 which is more than 0.05. It is not significant enough to reject the hypothesis. Accordingly it may be inferred that gender does not have any significant effects on the mean differences between control and experimental groups.

V. DISCUSSION

Perhaps the significant differences between the groups can be attributed to the storage and processing of information in the long term and short term memories. Long term memory has an important role in storing information. Skilled writers as compared with unskilled ones can cope with the different writing conditions. It may be argued that the participants who gained the best scores are able to store their knowledge of writing in their long term memory. On the contrary, those participants who have been rather unsuccessful may store the information in their short term memory. Thus the most successful group, which is the strategic group in the present study, may have had the time to focus on both working memory and long-term memory at the same or different times. They have used the time of planning to retrieve the related information they needed and put the needed data on papers; thereby to enhance their writings.

Previous studies have investigated the effects of planning on the quality of written tasks and have found that planning results in more accurate writing (e.g., Yuan, 2001; Ellis & Yuan, 2004).

In the present study, the strategic planning group outperformed the no-planning group and within-task planning. Most of the participants in the NP group reported that if they had been given some time before starting to write, they would have reflected on their tasks and their tasks would have been much better. Thus, time seems to be a very important factor even if it is not used for planning. The students need the time to reflect on their writings more.

Generally, the SP group outperformed the NP group regarding the dependent variable. Planning and translation are the two stages of the formulation process in Kellogg's model. The formulation process of Kellogg's model places the heaviest burden on short term memory.

In the first stage of the formulation process, writers set goals, think up ideas related to the goals, and organize their ideas. These ideas are retrieved from the learner's long term memory. Therefore, it can be resulted that in every writing process both short term memory and long term memory are involved. The second stage, translating, involves a linguistic level of representation in which the pre-verbal message resulting from the planning stage is transformed into a verbal message. In this stage, "the writer activates semantic, syntactic, phonological, and orthographic sub-processes" (Kellogg, 1996: 59).

With regards to the planning stage of Kellogg's model, the notes sheets of the SP group show planning that resembles children's pattern in planning (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987) in which conceptual planning notes, evaluative statements, and structural markers were less than those in other groups. This group simply generated complete sentences that were edited into a final draft when writing. Thus, it is apparent that the SP group because of their access to both short and long-term memory at the time of planning and doing the task had been more successful than the no-planning group. The SP group also had also time management in their planning and writing. At the time of planning, they focused on the main ideas, retrieving the right words, outlining, drafting, and organizing the sentences. While writing, the participants were paying their attention to the sequence of sentences, punctuation, using the correct verb forms and language in general. Therefore, since the SP group had distributed their time and at a time had focused on one area of writing, it seems that they had freed up some space in their memories which had caused them to have more informative and accurate writings.

Difficulties in translating, on the other hand, were due to the inability to manage the heavy demands of storage and processing as a result of low proficiency in lower level writing skills. Translating an idea into an acceptable sentence involves the phonological loop. Phonological representations of the words selected in a syntactic frame are stored in the short-term store of the loop. In addition to the phonological loop, translating also demands resources of the central executive when the writer must struggle to find the right words and sentence structures (Kellogg, 1996). The no-planning group, on the other hand, because of time limitation and lack of planning time had a lot of problems. They did not have access to their long term memory since their time was so limited. They could not even collaborate and share their ideas with each other. McCutchen (2000) claims that trade-offs exist between the storage and processing functions of working memory because of resource limitations within the system. That is, when more resources are devoted to processing, fewer resources are available for storage and vice versa. The NP group had to spend most or perhaps all their time processing the language and structure, thus the storage function of their short-term memory had perhaps very limited.

Both skilled and unskilled writers resort to short term memory resources to construct the sentences that comprise their texts. However, the fluent sentence generation processes of skilled writers, combined with their rich knowledge bases, enable them to link developing sentences to extensive knowledge stored in their long term memory.

VI. CONCLUSION

As it was stated in the previous parts, the results of the two-way ANOVA procedure indicated that planning whether strategic or within-task planning affects the accuracy of the written tasks. These results are in line with earlier investigations of the effects of planning either on oral performance or on written performance (de Bot, 1996; Franken & Haslett, 2002; Shi, 1998; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Wendel, 1997). Thus, these results tend to support the claim that the planning process eased the processing load during task completion and enabled learners to produce high quality texts.

The results of the study confirmed that planning in the L2 writing process enabled learners to lower their cognitive load during task completion and to yield high quality writing with regard to their scores. Remarkably, collaboration with a partner in the planning process was more effective in generating specific examples and details to help learners develop their own ideas. According to what was stated, it can be concluded that planning is highly effective in fostering the writing ability of learners.

One of the conclusions of the study is that the type of planning also plays an important role in improving the writing skills of the learners. The within-task planning in Iranian contexts is not as effective as strategic as the research suggests. In other contexts, the results differ. Generally, collaboration before implementing the task and on the basis of management is fruitful in Iranian contexts. If the students have the time to share their ideas, if they are given enough input whether pictorial, oral, and even written, the products of their writing will be much informative.

Perhaps the most important conclusion can be attributed to the differences between within-task and strategic planning. In the study, the strategic planning group because of time distribution and time management had the best performance. Thus, it can be concluded that in the writing classes, time management must be practiced a lot so that the students learn how to divide their time in accordance with the tasks they are going to perform.

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Applying Internet Resources to Aiding Chinese Learners of Chinese-English Translation

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Abstract—Efficient translation teaching is important to nourishment of translation talents. It is imperative to explore ways of applying Internet resources to translation teaching in order to enhance the performance of teaching the C-E translation course to Chinese EFL majors, and translation experiments can be considered as a way which will probably bring about remarkable teaching results. Through designing and making translation experiment, the teacher-learner interactive relationship will be strengthened, and the learners' learning initiative on an autonomous basis can be more aroused in developing their C-E translation ability, thus enhancing translation teaching efficiency. The design of the C-E translation experiments should be governed by some principles and oriented to developing the translation competence of the learners by imitating real conditions where professional translators work.

Index Terms—Chinese-English translation teaching, Internet resources, experiment, Chinese EFL majors

I. INTRODUCTION

Coupled with the flourishing international communication between China and other countries is the bigger and bigger role assumed by translation between Chinese and English; hence the increasing demand of translation practitioners. Since in a long period in future the foreign languages departments of Chinese universities will remain the major source where translators come forth (Bao, 2003), the performance of teaching translation between English and Chinese in Chinese universities is of significance. Unfortunately, the translating abilities of the graduating EFL majors of universities in China have on the whole suffered a noticeable decline in recent years, thus calling for efforts of researching for more effective translation teaching models and methods. As the computer and the online resources are now indispensable to the professional pursuits of translation, it is imperative to incorporate the rich Internet resources into translation teaching so as to nourish the learners' translation competence. Today the Internet technology development and learners' and teachers' abundant knowledge of computers offer a favorable basis for applying Internet resources to translation teaching. Drawing on research achievements made by other scholars and the experience the authors have reaped in teaching translation, the authors will explore some ways of applying Internet resources to teaching C-E translation to Chinese EFL majors on the university level as an inverse form of translation.

II. PROBLEMS WITH THE CURRENT TRANSLATION TEACHING PRACTICES

The translation teaching in foreign languages departments of Chinese universities, generally speaking, has been troubled in recent years by low efficiency of teaching and lack of theoretical guidance (Wang, 2006), due to various causes. The prevailing teaching method is product-oriented and behaviorism-based, which makes it comparatively easy to manage teaching activities, yet not productive of development in translation abilities on the part of the learners. There is no denying that the product-oriented approach has its trouble on either theoretical or practical level. Although what is tangible to the reader is the end product of translation, what can be more helpful to developing the learners' translation abilities is illustrative analysis by the teacher of the translating process that the competent translator has undergone. And if translation is not seen as a process, our understanding of the nature of translating will certainly be impaired. It is inadequate to take into consideration only the "result" of the action of translation. Translation teachers tend to teach in a way based on their personal translation experiences. According to a study made by Zhang (2001), the two most popular translation textbooks in English departments of universities in China are both published first in the 1980s and the relevant teaching theories are seldom incorporated into textbook compilation. Few teaching theories have been applied to translation teaching with considerable achievement. Though there have been some efforts made by some teachers and scholars to research in translation didactics, more need to be done to research and develop more efficient teaching methods, especially those involving Internet resources, which will be more applicable and feasible under the conditions of Chinese EFL majors.

III. TRANSLATION COMPETENCE: A BRIEF DESCRIPTION

Analysis of translation competence components can inform theoretically translation teaching. Reflection on the matter is a relatively recent development and results from empirical studies are still scarce (Ezpeleta, 2005). Kelly (2002) reviews the different definitions of translation competence that have been put forward to date and proposes her own definition: Translation competence is the macro-competence that comprises the different capacities, skills, knowledge and even attitudes that professional translators possess and which are involved in translation as an expert activity. She (2002) then cites 7 sub-competencies: communicative and textual, cultural, thematic, professional instrumental, psycho-physiological, interpersonal and strategic, which are intimately related to each other and which, when developed in a particular way, allow translation competence to be acquired. There are, however, aspects that are restricted to the realm of translation and constitute the cornerstone of the definition of translation competence. According to Wang (2009), the specialized component of translation competence, involving three sub-components, i.e. specialized translation knowledge, decision-making on translation strategies and specialized translation operations, is the distinctive part of the translation competence components. Teaching translation to Chinese EFL majors should be oriented to developing their specialized component of translation competence. Though the bilingual competence does not belong to such specialized translation competence, generally speaking, the learners' competence and performance in applying English as a foreign language to C-E translation is not satisfactory. Therefore, the teacher must be aware of the important aspect that the learners are doing inverse translation, i.e. translating from their habitually used language into a foreign language. In the process of translation teaching, there are several factors, besides the teacher and the learner, important to developing the learner's translation competence: teaching models which involve teaching aims, materials as well as methods, and the feedback system. In all such, the computer technology can play a positive role in aiding the learner and the teacher respectively, for the ability to apply such technology (Internet resources as aids included) constitutes an integral part of the learner's translation competence.

IV. INTERNET RESOURCES AND THEIR RELEVANCE TO TRANSLATION PEDAGOGY

Internet resources are the digital resources in forms of texts, images, sounds, videos, etc. which are deposited in non-paper carriers like CDs in electronic data form and accessible in websites or web pages (Bi & Yang, 2002). And these resources of information can be regained through Internet software tools and computers. Internet technology, as a tool, has made it quite convenient to get all kinds of information and resources for daily use, and that is also the reason why Internet resources become indispensable in our life. As Internet resources have been developed and added to every day, there is a great many resources about each of such fields as include translation teaching and learning on Internet. Internet resources which can aid translation teaching and learning include some translation websites, translation corpora, translation software, online dictionaries, online lessons, good translation texts for appreciation, etc. At present, the websites of translation have become more and more popular. On these websites, we can learn translation techniques and skills; we can find materials for daily translation practice; we can exchange our thoughts and experience with others. Among Internet resources, there is also some software which can help us to translate some difficult phrases or words. When confronted with difficulty in translation learning, we can also find help from online dictionaries, online lessons, etc. As Internet resources become so popular and convenient these days, it is certain that the Internet resources will help a lot in translation teaching and learning.

V. APPLYING INTERNET RESOURCES TO TRANSLATION TEACHING

A. *Using Internet Resources as Source of Information*

Traditionally, translation learners read books, magazines and newspapers to enrich their knowledge, but generally the knowledge gained in this way is quite limited. Now the Internet resources are inexhaustible. On Internet, lots of resources can be accessible, with so much information concerning every field. The traditional way of translation teaching is based on the written or printed teaching materials, which have been used for years without any substantial change of them. By contrast, the language materials on Internet are renewed every day. Today, the EFL majors' obstacles in translating caused by their want of specialized knowledge have been basically overcome with the help of the Internet resources, such as the various editions of encyclopedia and dictionaries, as well as specialized websites.

Translation teaching should aim to activate learners' interest in translation learning, and application of Internet resources to translation teaching is a good way to achieve that effect, which is also quite meaningful to the autonomous learning on the part of the learners. The Internet resources related to translation are innumerable. Internet resources and online dictionaries can help learners understand unfamiliar concepts and words, and check whether the translation results provided by dictionaries are appropriate or not. Thus Internet resources and online dictionaries possess the function of verification. In the process of translating, learners can make sure that their ways of using words and phrases are acceptable and render their translations more accurate and fluent by resorting to these resources. There are some websites serving as platforms for translators to exchange their experience and share translation resources with one another. The translation forum is one of these platforms. Some of these websites may not be designed by professional translators, but they can provide translators with great help which will facilitate their translating work. Websites like

Google and Wikipedia are good examples of this kind. With all such conveniences brought about by the internet resources for translation learners, there in one point we should not forget: they are only tools, and only when the students have developed their adequate competence and abilities in translating can they benefit from them in their translating work. Here we suppose that the learners have developed their basic translation competence as well as competence in Chinese and English, which means they can judge whether what they get from the internet is dependable (this judging ability does not, however, free them from making mistakes in translation).

Here let's illustrate some basic ways of using Internet resources as a source of information to aid C-E translation by searching in Google.

(1) To find a possible English translation of the book title “史记”, we can search by entering “《史记》 Sima Qian” into the search bar of Google, and then there will come lots of introduction of the book and English versions of the title. The following are some of the results the authors get from this search.

① *Sima Qian and His Records of the Historian*

The author of *Records of the Historian* is Sima Qian (145 BC-?), who was born in what is now Shaanxi Province. Encouraged by his father, he began to read ancient books when he was still very young. At the age of 20 he started to travel extensively,....

② Subsequently, the Chinese ancient civilization with the West have been a general history books - Sima Qian's "Records of the Historian," Levi's "History of Rome. 随后, 中国同西方文明古国先后出现通史著作—司马迁的《史记》、李维的《罗马史》.....

③ 《史记》的政治史性质与司马迁的政治思想

Political History Character of *Records of the Historian* and Sima Qian's Political Thoughts

(2) To search for the back-translating version of the drama title “演艺船” on English websites like Google, we can input “《演艺船》” on the English page of Google, and then we can find the title *showboat* on this website: <http://bbs.cnstrad.com/forum.php?mod=viewthread&tid=7837>.

(3) To translate the following terms into English “奥肯法则”, “(体操)前空翻”, and “现金流量贴现”, we can search these terms on Internet and online dictionaries, and get some versions, which is “the Okun's Law”, “forward somersault in the air”, and “discounted cash flow” respectively.

(4) To search for the English expressions of the following names of figures and institutions; “洪博培”, “国际清算银行”, and “萨赫勒旱灾国际干旱委员会”, we'll find such expressions as “Jon Huntsman”, “Bank for International Settlements”, and “the International Arid Sahel Drought Committee” respectively.

(5) To translate the following Chinese institution names into English, we can search “中华人民共和国国家审计署”, “国家质量监督检验检疫总局”, and “国家食品药品监督管理局”, we'll find such translations as “National Audit Office”, “General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection and Quarantine”, and “State Food and Drug Administration” respectively.

(6) To search for some background information, for example, “封禅泰山”, we can find the following information “封禅是一种帝王受命于天下的典礼。这种仪式起源于春秋战国时期, 当时齐、鲁的儒士认为泰山是天下最高的山.....”

Such information will be of great help to translation learners in their efforts in doing C-E translation, which demonstrates advantages the traditional reference materials are not equipped with. Of course, to benefit from the resources, the learner should be proficient in the language he is working with, and be in a position to judge whether what he has got is proper.

B. Towards a Teaching Strategy through C-E Translation Experiments Aided by Internet Resources

1. Significance of offering C-E translation experiments

The authors think that translation experiments should constitute an integral part of the overall teaching program of the C-E translation course for Chinese EFL majors on the university level. It can be composed of a series of component experiments involving translation of various materials with specific translation requirements and purposes, with the aid of various online translation resources. In the process the teacher plays the multi-role of a guide, class organizer, information provider, translation initiator, and translation evaluator. Translation teaching can be conducted in a classroom equipped with a network of computers. The teacher's host computer can be connected with the learners' computers to make a small LAN. In this network, the EFL majors as C-E translation learners can carry out experiments designed by the teacher under specific work conditions, and then the teacher collects the results of experiments for analysis and builds translation archives that can be used to construct various corpuses for teaching purposes.

The construction of working conditions intended for conducting translation experiments involves streamlining the interactive channels between the teacher and the students. Through such interactive channels, the teacher can conveniently send translation tasks to students who can also send their translation results to the teachers with ease, for example, through shared e-mails, QQ, or MSN. The teacher, after examining the results, can let students know the feedback of his opinions and comments on their translation performance and answer students' questions online. For these things, the traditional methods of teaching are not so convenient.

By conducting translation experiments, with so many interesting online resources as aids, the translation learners' initiative of learning E-C translation will be more aroused probably. Meanwhile, the learners can give full play to their subjectivity in learning and develop ability to have autonomous learning activities after class. In experiments, they shall translate according to requirement and fulfill the task assigned by the teacher, which is in itself a process of autonomous learning, and will help them develop self-confidence as learners. The translation experiment can be designed to simulate the real translation conditions where professional translators work based on the technology of multimedia and internet as well as translation software. In real context of professional work, there is proper division of labor between the translators, who make access to rich translation resources including translation corpuses. They fulfill translation work by analysis of the translation requirement of the clients, the context where the translation will be used, and the users. The teacher can design various translation experiments that will be carried out with similar translation conditions as those of the translation companies or agencies. By this way, translation training can train better the learners in their development of professional translation competence and ability to cooperate in teamwork of translation, and thus they will be in a position to adapt themselves with ease to their prospective translation working posts or jobs.

2. General principles of translation experiment design

In formulation of the principle over the translation teaching experiment design, we should consider the various factors relevant to the process of translation teaching, the theoretical basis, and the current translation teaching syllabus and working conditions. Usually the general-purpose language lab with its computer system and internet facilities can meet the need for the present purpose of translation teaching. A translation course website will be of great help in organizing teaching activities including conducting experiments. In the case of experiments, a translation website can be pivotal to interactive activities and communications between the teacher and the students.

Concretely speaking, the principles may include 1) Make translation requirement for experiment clear in specific terms; 2) Vary adequately the field the original Chinese texts belong to, with emphasis on non-literary writings; 3) Make sure that the textual materials are proper as far as the students' bi-lingual proficiency is concerned; 4) Engage the use of online translation resources; 5) Make sure that no translations available for reference in the internet, which means the students should translate by themselves so as to reflect their real translation expertise.

The teacher may design translation experiment guide documents for instructing the learners in doing the experiments, including such items as: the student's personal information (name, registered student number class, grade, etc) and experiment information (time/date, lab, translation resources to be used such as the Google translation function, etc.), the information of translation (the original Chinese text, the translation requirement including translation forms, client and user of translation, etc.), reflection protocols (recording the student's reflection of his translating work in the experiment, the difficult points of the task, etc.). Some information can be included in the task documents and some, in the results submitted by the students. The experiments should form a series as a supplement to the regular classroom instruction. All the design should be done for the ultimate purpose of enhancing translation teaching efficiency and developing the students' translation competence and performance. There is also possibility of developing a mutual complementary relationship between them, or even developing the experiments into a independent course of translation.

3. Translation experiment design: An example

Here the authors suppose that the learners (Chinese EFL majors) are familiar with the required computer operation skills and can conduct the experiment without any technical difficulty. We discuss now an example of translation experiment to illustrate design of translation experiment on C-E translation. The authors choose an original Chinese text used for tourism publicity, which exemplifies the key points of designing an experiment and the process of conducting the experiment. The original Chinese text reads:

始建于唐朝的 A 寺地处山东省 B 县西南部, 辖属济宁市, 东临古城曲阜, 西接水泊梁山, 南依微山湖, 北枕东岳泰山。全县人口 74 万, 总面积 877 平方公里。公元 1008 年, 宋真宗皇帝封禅泰山时曾驻蹕于此。寺内太子灵踪塔始建于北宋政和二年 (公元 1112 年), 1977 年被列为省级重点文物保护单位。1994 年 3 月 15 日在修葺古塔时, 发现了隐没于塔底的塔宫, 并在宫中出土了包括佛牙舍利在内的 141 件佛教圣物。此事轰动了全国, 震惊了世界, 引起了海内外强烈反响。

The translation task requirement may be: the translated version in English should be accurate in terms of message free from distortion of the original information and the cultural information should be treated properly; the translation form is full translation; the translation is to be used by a tourist agency as an introducing text oriented to English readers; total experiment time is 90 minutes. The resources the learner can make use of may be any online resources, including online dictionaries, encyclopedia, and translation software. After an experiment, the student shall fill out a form to report the results of the experiment. The translation result submitted by a learner should include the finished English version, the major translation resources the student uses, and the learner's reflection on the specific translation work, or perhaps some constructive suggestions on translation experiments.

The learner, after getting the translation task instruction through the internet link in the computer designated for him, should first analyze the translation requirement and think about his specific translation strategy involving analysis of the function of the Chinese text, the purpose of translation, and other relevant factors. After such analysis, he can proceed to translate with the aid of online translation resources. In the process, we can take it that he uses some online translation resources first in trying to get a thorough comprehension of the original Chinese text on various levels, and then in solving some difficult points such as translation of a phrase or a word, and he may find some similar materials in

English in the field for stylistic polish of his English version. With all these efforts, he fulfills his task of translation, and writes some reflection on his translation work. Finally he submits the experiment result containing all required information. Then the experiment is fulfilled by the learner. The teacher will get the results and evaluate the learners' performance for necessary feedback and for the purpose of improving his translation teaching.

After collecting the results of the experiments, the teacher can analyze the collection for various purposes. With the aid of corpus technology, he can build purpose-specific corpuses. For the same original text, the collection of all the students' translations can form a corpus for analysis of some possible common trouble with the students' translations, which the teacher may discuss with the learners for improvement. This use is immediately relevant with translation teaching. If over a period of time there is a large collection of translations gathered, they can form translation archives (Bowker, 2007). From the collection, the teacher can select translations to build a corpus for longitudinal comparative study on the progress the learners have achieved in learning translation over a period, and if the progress is obviously substantial, it is surely positive for the learners to enhance their confidence in learning and practicing translation. The learner's reflection on his translation work may be valuable to the teacher for an understanding of the former's process of translation.

VI. CONCLUSION

The abundant internet resources available have brought about many new possibilities of ways of applying Internet resources to translation teaching in order to enhance the performance of teaching the C-E translation course to Chinese EFL majors. The paper explores some possibilities of applying internet resources to teaching C-E translation to Chinese EFL majors on the university level. Improvement in performance of translation teaching is conducive to nourishment of translation talents. Translation experiments can be a feasible way which will probably lead to better teaching results. Through designing and making translation experiment, the teacher-learner interactive relationship will be strengthened, and the learners' learning initiative on an autonomous basis can be more aroused in developing their C-E translation ability, thus enhancing translation teaching efficiency. The design of the C-E translation experiments should be governed by some principles and oriented to developing the translation competence of the learners by imitating real conditions where professional translators work.

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Delving into the Relationship between LOC, MI, and Reading Proficiency

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Abstract—Locus of control (LOC) refers to individuals' perceptions about the underlying main causes of events in their lives. Multiple intelligences (MI), as another psychological concept, deals with the various aspects of intelligence each individual may possess. This paper reports the results of a study designed to examine any relationship between LOC and MI on the one hand, and any possible relationship between each of these two constructs and reading proficiency, as a language component, on the other. To this end, 59 EFL students from University of Sistan & Baluchestan and Islamic Azad University of Zahedan answered a 28-item LOC questionnaire, a 90-item intelligence questionnaire, and a reading comprehension section of a TOFEL test. The results indicated no significant relationship between LOC and MI; however, a significant relationship was observed between MI and reading proficiency. Among the different domains of intelligence, the visual intelligence made the greatest contribution in predicting reading proficiency. The relationship between LOC and reading proficiency also was significant. In other words, a significant positive correlation was found between internal orientation and reading proficiency as well as visual intelligence and reading scores. It can be concluded that LOC and MI are significant variables regarding reading proficiency and should be highly considered while developing strategies for reading instruction

Index Terms—locus of control, multiple intelligences, reading proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Educators all over the world are in search of a teaching method or strategy that may increase learner achievement. Among the many factors that might have direct influence on language acquisition are learners' individual differences in terms of psychological variations. Based on Dörnyei (2005), the field of psychology has two objectives: to find out the general principles of human mind and to explore the uniqueness of the individual mind also called differential psychology or individual differences (IDs). IDs refer to characteristics unique to each individual. However, IDs are the "most consistent predictors of L2 reading success" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.2).

Recently much attention is given to such variations and many scholars (e.g. Culvar & Morgan, 1977; Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2010; Fatemi & Elahi, 2010, to name a few) are seeking to find out whether there is any relationship between students' performance in a second language (L2) and individual variations. In other words, they are seeking to explore whether learner differences, mostly psychological, have anything to do with language proficiency. Among the most dominant psychological constructs that lead to IDs, one can name Locus of Control and Multiple Intelligences.

A. Locus of Control (LOC)

LOC refers to the expectancies about the causations of actions and outcomes (Rotter, 1966). Rotter proposed a model for LOC that suggested a bipolar dimension to express control from internal to external (cited in Matricardi, 2006). LOC is a "generalized expectancy reflecting the degree to which individuals perceive consequences as contingent on their own behavior and abilities (internal control) rather than on some external force such as luck, chance, fate, or powerful others (external control)" (Janssen & Carton, 1999, p.1).

Previous studies indicated a significant positive relationship between internal orientation and high academic achievement. Findley & Cooper (1983) reviewed 98 studies that investigated LOC and academic achievement. Seventy percent of the hypotheses reported internals to have significantly higher academic achievement than externals. They also found that males were more internal than females (cited in Goyal, 2000).

Such findings might be due to the fact that internalizers feel great pride when they perform an action successfully, and they expect to be rewarded. This feeling might bring about motivation that leads to frequent success. Externalizers, however, attribute their success to extraneous factors such as luck or fate. Therefore, they lack motivation as it is the case for internalizers. As their motivation decreases, they do not do their best to achieve extensive success.

Based on Cairn et al. (1990), LOC becomes more internal as individuals reach a certain age. They compared the result of LOC evaluation at two time intervals. The subjects, all 17-years-old students, were found to become more internally oriented 18 month after the first measurement (as cited in Moore, 2006).

Goyal (2000) examined the relationship between LOC and academic achievement. To do so, the scores obtained on Rotter's I-E scale were compared with different levels of academic achievement, based on class placement. The results proved a significant positive relationship between LOC and academic achievement. He also explored the relationship between gender and LOC. Based on Goyal, females proved to be slightly more internal than males. However, the correlation was not statistically significant.

Ghonsooly & Elahi (2010) examined the relation between LOC and General English (GE) course achievement in an EFL context. The results revealed a positive relationship between the students' LOC and their GE achievement course. In other words, the internalizers proved to have higher GEs than the externalizers.

LOC proved to have a significant relationship to reading achievement. In one investigation done by Culvar & Morgan (1977), a significant positive relationship was found between internal orientation and higher levels of reading achievement.

Fatemi and Elahi (2010) examined the relationship between LOC, L2 reading achievement, and use of language learning strategies in an EFL context. According to the findings, the EFL learners identified with internal LOC (internalizers) used metacognitive strategies more frequently than those with external LOC (externalizers). The L2 learners with higher LOC orientation also proved to be better readers.

B. Multiple Intelligences

Binet, a French psychologist, was the first one who tried to categorize students as those who would probably experience difficulty in school and those of talented and gifted category. He designed the first intelligence test that discriminated between students regardless of the fact that a single test may not capture all of an individual's abilities and potential. He ascertained questions that predicted success if answered correctly and those that "foretold school difficulties" if answered wrongly (Gardner, 1999b).

However, based on Hoerr (2000), a single test and a single score may not feasibly represent students' abilities and potential.

Gardner's proposal of the MI theory (1983) highly challenged this assumption about intelligence. Based on Gardner (1983) "intelligence is the ability to solve a problem or create a product that is valued in a culture" (cited in Hoerr, 2000)

Gardner (1983) believed that intelligence has to do with the capacity for problem-solving and fashioning products in a natural setting. Therefore, sitting students at their chairs, asking them to take an intelligence test, and deciding on the students' abilities on the basis of the scores does not seem logical.

Gardner proposed seven areas of intelligences in his Frames of Mind (1983). Since 1983, the MI theory seized the attention of dozens of scholars. Many educators, who felt a gap in the educational system of the time, welcomed Gardner's model of intelligence (e.g., Armstrong, 2009; Campbell and Campbell, 1999; Hoerr, 2000, to name a few). He enumerated these intelligences as verbal/linguistic, logical/mathematical, visual/spatial, bodily/kinesthetic, musical/rhythmic, and interpersonal/intrapersonal. He has more recently added naturalistic intelligence and has suggested that an existential intelligence might exist (Gardner, 1999b).

Armstrong (2009), for example, was among the scholars who quickly put Gardner's model into experience. Based on Armstrong, there were many disabled students who proved to be smart in one way or another (Armstrong, 2009, p.1). The problem, he stated, would have been with the testing occasion and classification process. The IQ tests were supposed to tackle a limited domain of intelligence, leaving the other intelligence profiles apart. Since 1983, a couple of studies have investigated MI theory in practice.

Campbell and Campbell (1999) published the improvement six schools gained using the theory of MI. In 1992, the students of Russell Elementary School in Lexington, Kentucky, scored in the 30th percentile. Over 50% of the students ranked at the novice level. They applied MI in instruction and assessment, and by 1996, the students' scores doubled and no student ranked as novice.

Hoerr (2000) dealt with MI implementation at schools. He compared traditional intelligence models to the MI theory. He believed that MI can help discover the strengths and weaknesses of students. However, special concern is needed not to misapply MI. In other words, teachers must devote time and energy to digest MI principles and then decide how to use MI in curriculum development, instructional processes, and ultimate assessments.

Razmjoo (2008) investigated the relationship between MI and English language proficiency among the Iranian Ph.D. candidates who participated in Shiraz University Ph.D. Entrance Exam. The result showed no significant relationship between MI and English language proficiency in the Iranian context. However, he concluded that the results were local, not universal.

Hashemi (2008) investigated the relationship between MI and reading comprehension. The participants included 122 Iranian undergraduate EFL students who were asked to take part in an IELTS test and fill out McKenzie's MI questionnaire. The finding showed that kinesthetic and verbal intelligences made the greatest contribution toward predicting reading ability scores.

Ghazanfari (2009) evaluated the role of visualization in reading comprehension. He instructed a group of readers to visualize before reading, while reading and after reading. The result of the reading comprehension test, that was administered two weeks later, indicated that visualizers outperformed nonvisualizers who received no instruction. Therefore, visual intelligence acted as a predicting factor when it comes to reading comprehension ability.

Tahriri & Yamini (2010) investigated the effectiveness of the MI-inspired instruction in an EFL context. Two groups of subjects were chosen. The control group received verbal-linguistic instruction. For the experimental groups, some activities were refined and implemented to invoke various types of intelligence. The result showed the outperformance of the experimental group supporting the significance of the implementation of the MI-inspired instruction in an EFL context.

Pishghadam, Khodadady and Khoshshabk (2010) examined the effects of visual and verbal intelligence-based instruction on students' vocabulary retention and production. The subjects included 71 male and female students who were divided into visual experimental, verbal experimental, and control groups. Thirty five words were instructed to these three groups via various procedures: The verbal experimental group received the words verbally. The visual experimental group received them visually while the control group was instructed traditionally. Based on the findings, the visual experimental group outperformed the other two groups.

Although many scholars are going ahead with MI theory, Gardner himself believes that his theory lacks experimental research: "While MI theory is consistent with much empirical evidence, it has not been subjected to strong experimental test" (Gardner, 1993, p. 33).

There are a couple of studies investigating the relationship between either MI or LOC and some other factors (Findley & Cooper, 1983; Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2010; Fatemi and Elahi, 2010; Razmjoo, 2008; Hashemi, 2008). To the best of the researchers' knowledge, no comparative study in Iran has concentrated on the relationship between MI and LOC in an EFL context. Therefore, the gap felt by the scholars with ample experimental evidence on MIT on the one hand (Gardner, 1993), and lack of experimental research concerning the relationship between MI and LOC on the other, urged the researchers to conduct such an study in order to evaluate the potential relationship between these two psychological constructs and the influence they may have on reading proficiency as an inseparable skill from the phenomenon of language.

Rerearch Questions

Within the scope of this study, the following questions were concerned:

- Q1. Is there any significant relationship between LOC and MI?
- Q2. Is there any significant relationship between LOC and L2 reading proficiency?
- Q3. Is there any significant relationship between MI and L2 reading proficiency?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The sample consisted of 59 male and female senior students majoring in English Literature, TEFL, and English Translation at University of Sistan & Baluchestan and Islamic Azad University of Zahedan. The reason for selecting such a sample was that all subjects were studying English in an EFL context. It should be mentioned that the participants were not randomly selected; in fact, all the seniors studying at these two universities were included in the study.

B. Instruments

The instruments were as follows: An MI questionnaire, the Internal Control Index (ICI), and a TOEFL reading test.

1. MI Questionnaire

The participants were given an MI questionnaire including 90 items measuring the nine types of intelligences. The validity of the questionnaire was confirmed by eight experienced assistant professors in the department of foreign languages and linguistics at Shiraz University. The internal consistency of the questionnaire turned out to be 0.89, using Cronbach's alpha.

2. Internal Control Index

For the purpose of this study, the Internal Control Index (Duttweiler, 1984) was used to measure the participants' LOC. This scale contained 28 five-point Likert-type items that produce a possible range of scores from 28 to 140 with higher scores reflecting higher internal LOC and lower scores reflecting higher external LOC. For the sake of clarity and simplicity, the scale was translated into Persian by Ghonsooly and Elahi (2010). They Used Cronbach's alpha to check the reliability of the translated version which resulted in a coefficient of 0.82.

3. TOEFL Reading Test

The participants were also given four reading passages from Longman-IBT Preparation Course TOEFL Test (2006). The passages were taken from four Mini Test sections that contained tests for all the other skills as well. The reliability of the test was determined using Cronbach's alpha, and it turned out to be .83, which is an acceptable and high index of reliability. The overall number of questions was 49 with a time allotment of 55 minutes.

C. Data Collection Procedure

First of all, the participants were informed orally about the objectives and procedures of the reading test. They were also assured that the results would be kept confidential. Then, a reading section of a TOEFL Test, consisting of four passages and 49 questions were administered on all participants in order to evaluate their reading proficiency.

During the second session, the 90-item MI questionnaire that included nine sections was distributed among the participants. They had ample time to go through all the questions. During the same session, the ICI was distributed among the participants to measure their LOC. They answered the questions in about 20 minutes. The subjects were informed that their scores had nothing to do with their course grades to avoid any external pressure such as anxiety or test stress. Half of the items were worded so that the high internally oriented respondents were expected to answer half at the "usually" end of the scale and the other half at the "rarely" end of the scale. The "rarely" response was scored as five points on items 1, 2, 4, 6, 11, 14, 17, 19, 22, 23, 24, 26, and 27; for the rest of the items, the response "usually" was scored as five points.

III. RESULTS

Table 1 shows the descriptive analysis of the participants' LOC:

TABLE 1.
BASIC DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE LOC

FACTOR	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
LOC	59	62.00	126.00	96.37	12.6

To answer the first question of the study concerning the relationship between MI and LOC, correlations were run:

TABLE 2.
CORRELATIONS FOR TYPES OF INTELLIGENCES AND LOC

Variables	Logical	Visual	Musical	Bodily	Inter-personal	Intra-personal	Naturalistic	Existential	Linguistic	Loc
Logical	1	.498**	.19	.29*	.33**	.25	.28*	.40**	.46**	-.19
Visual	.49**	1	.30*	.37**	.31*	.31*	.40**	.38**	.42**	-.08
Musical	.19	.305*	1	.40**	.59**	.51**	.25	.31*	.42**	-.09
Bodily	.29*	.377**	.40**	1	.58**	.52**	.31*	.37**	.54**	-.08
Inter-personal	.33**	.310*	.59**	.58**	1	.45**	.23	.39**	.45**	-.07
Intra-personal	.25	.314*	.51**	.52**	.45**	1	.23	.48**	.47**	.005
Naturalistic	.28*	.403**	.25	.31*	.23	.23	1	.34**	.45**	-.15
Existential	.40**	.386**	.31*	.37**	.39**	.48**	.34**	1	.41**	-.25
Linguistic	.46**	.428**	.42**	.54**	.45**	.47**	.45**	.41**	1	-.21
Loc	-.19	-.086	-.09	-.08	-.07	.005	-.15	-.25	-.21	1

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

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

Based on Table 2, as it is shown in the last column, no significant relationship was found between LOC and any of the intelligence types. To have a clearer picture of the data, multiple regressions were run:

TABLE 3.
MULTIPLE REGRESSIONS FOR TYPES OF INTELLIGENCES AND LOC

Variables	Beta	t	Sig.
Linguistic	.13	.46	.13
logical	.18	.57	.21
Visual	.12	2.43	.21
Musical	.11	1.34	.12
Bodily	.32	1.23	.13
Interpersonal	.14	1.23	.12
Intrapersonal	.12	.46	.23
Naturalistic	.14	.87	.12
Existential	.21	1.73	.12

The results of Table 3 show that the levels of significance for all intelligence types are greater than .05 ($p > .05$), indicating that none of the nine intelligence profiles can act as a predictor of LOC.

With regard to the second question concerning the relationship between LOC and L2 reading proficiency, Pearson correlation formula was applied:

TABLE 4.
THE RELATION BETWEEN LOC AND L2 READING PROFICIENCY

		Loc	Reading
Loc	Pearson Correlation	1	.26 [*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.020
	N	59	59
Reading	Pearson Correlation	.26 [*]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.020	
	N	59	59

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

Table 4 demonstrates that the correlation coefficient is significant at $p < .05$. Therefore, there is a significantly positive relationship between the two variables.

In order to see whether the difference between the internalizers and externalizers in terms of reading scores was significant, an independent t-test was run. First of all the descriptive analysis of the participants' reading scores is presented in table 5. The sample included 59 participants that were categorized as externalizers (31) and internalizers (28). It is worth mentioning that the median of the LOC scores was used to categorize the students as internalizers or externalizers. Therefore, students with scores above 93 were grouped as internalizers, and those with scores below 93 were considered as externalizers.

TABLE 5:
A COMPARISON OF EXTERNALIZERS' AND INTERNALIZERS' MEAN SCORES IN L2 READING PROFICIENCY

L2 Reading		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LOC	Internal	28	26.07	9.289	1.75
	external	31	20.67	5.99	1.07

According to the above table, internalizers proved to have the mean score of 26.07 and standard deviation of 9.28, while the mean reading score of the externalizers turned out to be 20.67 with the standard deviation of 5.99. Table 6 demonstrates whether this difference in mean scores was significant or not.

TABLE 6.
DETERMINING THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE MEAN SCORES DIFFERENCE IN L2 READING PROFICIENCY

L2 Reading	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	10.36	.002	2.67	57	.010	5.39	2.01	1.35	9.43
Equal variances not assumed			2.61	45.36	.012	5.39	2.05	1.24	9.54

The level of significance, as it is observable in table 6, turned out to be .012 that indicates a significant relationship between L2 reading proficiency and LOC. In other words, students with higher LOC orientation are better L2 readers.

The third question addresses the relationship between MI and L2 reading proficiency. The descriptive analysis of the participants' reading scores is presented in Table 7:

TABLE 7:
BASIC DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE READING SCORES

FACTOR	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Reading	59	4.00	42.00	23.23	8.13

In order to find the relationship between MI and reading scores, correlations were used:

TABLE 8:
CORRELATION FOR TYPES OF INTELLIGENCES AND READING

Variables	Logical	Visual	Musical	Bodily	Inter-personal	Intra-personal	Naturalistic	Existential	Linguistic	Reading
Logical	1	.49**	.194	.29*	.33**	.25	.28*	.40**	.46**	.08
Visual	.49**	1	.305*	.37**	.31*	.31*	.40**	.38**	.42**	.53**
Musical	.19	.30*	1	.40**	.59**	.51**	.25	.31*	.42**	.30
Bodily	.29*	.37**	.407**	1	.58**	.52**	.31*	.37**	.54**	.30
Inter-personal	.33**	.31*	.596**	.58**	1	.45**	.23	.39**	.45**	.16
Intra-personal	.25	.31*	.519**	.52**	.45**	1	.23	.48**	.47**	.28
Naturalistic	.28*	.40**	.251	.31*	.23	.23	1	.34**	.45**	.19
Existential	.40**	.38**	.310*	.37**	.39**	.48**	.34**	1	.41**	.13
Linguistic	.46**	.42**	.420**	.54**	.45**	.47**	.45**	.41**	1	.17
Reading	.08	.53**	.301	.30	.16	.28	.19	.13	.17	1

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

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

Based on the above table, the reading ability has high correlation with visual intelligence (i.e., .53 which is significant at $p < 0.01$) and low correlation with logical intelligence. Therefore, the only intelligence profile that highly correlates with reading proficiency was the visual one.

At this phase of the analysis, a multiple regression was run to observe which multiple intelligence subscales (as independent variables), if any, can predict the reading ability (as the dependent variable).

TABLE 9:
MULTIPLE REGRESSIONS FOR TYPES OF INTELLIGENCES AND READING PROFICIENCY

Variables	Beta	t	Sig.
Linguistic	.15	.96	.37
Logical	.08	.58	.14
Visual	.22	1.63	.004*
Musical	.21	1.44	.13
Bodily	.26	1.73	.21
Interpersonal	.17	1.05	.12
Intrapersonal	.13	.96	.40
Naturalistic	.13	.99	.24
Existential	.17	1.21	.12

As the above table shows, the only intelligence that may act as the predictor of reading ability was visual intelligence with the significance level of .004, which is lower than .05. Therefore, of the 9 intelligence profiles, visual intelligence was observed to make statistically significant contributions to this prediction.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of the data analysis with regard to the first research question revealed no significant relationship between intellectual preferences and LOC orientation. Although these two psychological constructs seem to be interrelated at the first glance, the findings proved no significant relationship between the two.

With regard to the second research question concerning the relationship between LOC and reading proficiency, the results showed a significant positive relationship between internal orientation and reading scores. In other words, the more internally oriented the participants, the better readers they are. The findings of the study are in agreement with those of the previous researchers mentioned in the literature section (Culver & Morgan, 1977; Fatemi & Elahi, 2010; Findley & Cooper, 1983; Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2010).

As it was cited in the preceding paragraph, studies have shown repeatedly that internalizers are better L2 achievers. This might be due to the fact that internalizers take control of their life events and feel responsible for what happens to them that might be a source of motivation to try hard and gain excessive success. An individual with an internal orientation who studies hard and does well on a test would attribute the success to his or her own endeavor and continue to do his/her best on the forthcoming situations. On the other hand, an individual with an external LOC may do well on a testing occasion but attribute the success to factors such as luck, chance, or an easy test. Therefore, the success would not act as a source of motivation for them as it is the case with the internalizers. Furthermore, individuals with an internal orientation follow different learning styles compared to externalizers.

Classroom teachers seem to have more difficulty dealing with externalizers as they do not consider any order for the world and rely mostly on powerful others rather than their own abilities (Rotter, 1966).

Teachers and instructors aim at modifying the curriculum and instructional procedure to meet students' needs and improve their proficiency levels. To this end, they must always consider factors that may have direct and indirect

influence on students' achievement. As stated above, there are a number of researches, the results of which indicate a significant positive relationship between internal orientation and language achievement. Based on Lynch, Hurford, & Cole (2002), LOC as a psychological construct predicts grades much better than standardized achievement test scores do.

With respect to the third research question concerning the relationship between MI and reading proficiency, a significant positive relationship was observed between reading scores and visual intelligence. The result of the present investigation is not exactly in the same line with those of other researchers. However, contradictory results are observed in the previous studies. McMahan, Rose & Parks (2004) and Motalebzadeh & Manouchehri (2009) concluded that logical/mathematical intelligence acts as a predictor of IELTS reading scores. Razmjoo (2008), on the other hand, found no relationship between MI and language proficiency, While Hashemi (2008) reported a significant positive relationship between verbal intelligence and reading comprehension ability. The findings are, however, in agreement with that of Pishghadam et al. (2010) who reported significant enhancement in students' performance, after receiving visual intelligence-based instruction. Hence, one may conclude that students with higher visual intelligence would perform better, while decoding meaning due to their ability in providing mental images that would facilitate recall of the items, especially when it comes to long reading passages.

Superiority of the visually smart readers to others might also be justified due to their ability in applying reading strategies. As they are stronger with regard to the sense of sight, the speed with which they go through the material would be higher than that of the others. Moreover, they may have a vaster potential to make use of skimming and scanning reading strategies. Furthermore, visualizers are able to form mental images out of the reading passages they are exposed to which may increase retention. Based on Gardner (1983), visual intelligence deals with the ability to perceive the visual world to perform transformations in the actual world. According to Tomlinson (1997), readers who visualize are greater in comprehension than the nonvisualizers.

Based on Ghazanfafi (2009), also, the readers who were instructed to visualize while reading were better readers than those who received no instruction, which emphasizes the role of visualization as a significant factor with regard the reading comprehension.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of the present investigation revealed no significant relationship between the two psychological constructs, namely MI and LOC. A significant positive relationship was observed between LOC and reading proficiency. In other words, students who were more internally oriented outperformed those with external orientations. Among the nine intelligence profiles, none but the visual intelligence made the greatest contribution to students' reading proficiency.

Although a number of researches conducted on MIT emphasize the effectiveness of MI application (Campbell & Campbell, 1999; Hoerr, 2000; Tahriri & Yamini, 2010), many instructors consider intelligence as a whole factor which is not separable. Students are still decided upon based on a single IQ test regardless of the individual variations that may exist among them. However, classifying the students based on their dominant intelligence preferences, and instructing them according to such a categorization leads to better results definitely.

IDs in terms of LOC are also ignored. As it is observed repeatedly in a number of studies (Findley & Cooper, 1983; Ghonsooly & Elahi, 2010; Culvar & Morgan, 1977) internalizers are better academic achievers compared to externalizers. On the other hand, LOC is believed to predict students' scores and successfulness. Classifying the students based on their LOC orientation and applying various strategies to help students move toward the internal end of the continuum may improve their achievement.

The results of the present investigation are most useful for EFL teachers and instructors. They'd better be aware of the psychological variations and do their best to make use of them. LOC is a dynamic character that may change over time. Based on Cairn et al. (1990), LOC becomes more internal as individuals reach a certain age (cited in Moore, 2006). Being aware of such a fact, teachers may be able to create such a class atmosphere where students' success and failure are not referred to any extraneous factor such as luck and fate but their own effort and shortcomings so that awaken and improve students' sense of responsibility over their own actions.

Further research is needed to find out factors that affect students LOC orientation, if any. Moreover, investigation may be done to see whether MI has any relationship with other language components such as listening and speaking. Further studies could investigate the impact of different profiles of intelligence on various text genres.

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The Overriding Role of Critical Thinking in Nahjolbalaqa ‘Letters’: Insights from Bloom’s Cognitive Model

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Abstract—The dominion of Islamic world is replete with varied theological and spiritual masterpieces. One such outstanding work which has outlived its own time and the passage of time has not been able to undermine its beauty is *Nahjolbalaqa* (a road to eloquence). *Nahjolbalaqa*, the collection of Imam Ali’s (peace be upon him) statements, consists of three different parts alternatively known as ‘Sermons’, ‘Letters’, and ‘Wisdom’. The main purpose of this exploratory study is the textual analysis of ‘letters’ of *Nahjolbalaqa* according to *Bloom’s cognitive model*. Based on Bloom’s taxonomy, there are six different cognitive levels commencing with the most concrete and gradually moving toward the more abstract end of the continuum. These levels are termed *Knowledge*, *Comprehension*, *Application*, *Analysis*, *Synthesis*, and *Evaluation*. In the current scrutiny, all the 79 ‘letters’ of *Nahjolbalaqa*, which amount to 255 titles if we consider their subcategories, have been analyzed according to Bloom’s model in an attempt to come up with a vivid elucidation of their characteristics. As the final analysis of the gained upshots revealed, the majority of ‘letters’ pored over were found to comply with the levels of *evaluation* and *knowledge* in Bloom’s model. Ultimately, it is hoped that the present study would prove helpful for commentators and all those who are in need of a deeper understanding of *Nahjolbalaqa*, particularly when it comes to finding out the corresponding level of abstraction for each individual ‘letter’.

Index Terms—Bloom’s Cognitive Taxonomy, abstraction, ‘Letter’ Analysis, cognitive level, *Nahjolbalaqa*

I. INTRODUCTION

Nahjolbalaqa, which is a collection of Imam Ali’s invaluable guidelines and instructions for human beings, presented in the form of ‘sermons’, ‘letters’, and ‘wisdom’, is brimful of hints and signs that, by the unique style in which they have been expressed, fill the readers with profound levels of insight. In effect, the grandeur of *Nahjolbalaqa* emanates from the fact that its instructions apply to the entire humanity, are not intended for a particular group of people or for a specific epoch, and are consequently eternal. What *Nahjolbalaqa*, as one of the best and most credited samples of moral and spiritual instructions in the world of Islam, and for the entire humanity, describes is nothing but the portrait of a perfect human. Hence, an in-depth analysis of such a precious work will certainly help come up with a better understanding of the unique fluency and eloquence with which its priceless instructions have been expressed. As Karimi (2006) contends, eminent religious works have always been in the foreground of attention of great poets and writers, and so many illustrious figures, like Dostoyevsky, have been inspired by such marvelous masterpieces. Being drawn mainly by Quranic instructions, this Russian author, as Yahyapour (2006) avers, has talked of Allah and some Quranic characters like Mohammad and Jesus Christ in his works. Consequently, one won’t be able to catch a full grasp of the paramountcy of analyzing *Nahjolbalaqa*, unless he/she realizes that this unrivaled tome encompasses a great collection of general and detailed issues from a variety of moral and educative arenas, and that its influence has been extended to the domain of Arab and Persian literature (Jafari, 2005).

In an attempt to further depict the real value of this splendid magnum opus, the researchers in the current probe strive to go about a partially full-fledged illumination of the linguistic and textual characteristics of *Nahjolbalaqa*. Actually, what the present study is mainly after is determining the appropriate level of Bloom’s cognitive model to which each of the 255 titles and divisions of *Nahjolbalaqa* ‘letters’ belong. Bloom’s model has been chosen in that it forms a sound basis for the classification of ‘letters’ into different classes according to their textual characteristics, where each category is said to possess a particular status in terms of conception and recognition. In line with Geertsen (2003), Bloom’s model can be shown on a continuum, on which one extreme is to be taken as the highest level of abstraction, whereas the other has to do with highly concrete and tangible issues. It goes without saying that augmented levels of intellectual capabilities and cognitive growth are called for when approaching the abstraction side of the axis. Finally, in grappling with the focal postulations set forth in the present scrutiny, the following research questions were formulated by the researchers:

- What level of abstraction can Nahjolbalaqa principles be said to enjoy?
- Can Nahjolbalaqa instructions be classified on the basis of cognitive characteristics?
- What levels of rationalism do Nahjolbalaqa instructions mostly entail?
- What issues are mostly accentuated by Nahjolbalaqa instructions?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In McKee's (2003) eyes textual analysis provides one with the opportunity to realize how the writer approaches the world around him. Furthermore, it is through a thorough-going analysis of the text that one can get to the unique meanings of different terminology and utterances utilized by the author. Accordingly, on account of the foregoing argumentation, a full grasp of different aesthetic aspects of Nahjolbalaqa won't be attainable via mere translational attempts and hence more profound evaluations are required to be able to understand its invaluable instructions. It is also worth noting that no studies, to date, have gone about the analysis of Nahjolbalaqa from a cognitive perspective. To come up with an ameliorated comprehension of the principles and delicate stylistic points raised in Nahjolbalaqa, commentators and other ordinary readers are in dire need of perusing the available scientific probes into varied facets of this masterpiece. Text-oriented investigations are of foremost salience in this respect, and the fact that a multitude of studies, thus far, have taken the form of textual analysis can be taken as further evidence in favor of the paramountcy of this branch of scientific probes (e.g. Soler, 2002; Flowerdew, 2003). The principal distinguishing feature shared by the body of research falling within the category of textual scrutiny is their attempt to pinpoint the true nature and specifications of the text under investigation.

Analyzing the textual features of a written piece of work has gained such a pivotal status that some scholars like Crookes (1986) contend that the explicit instruction of textual features of a written text might even prove fruitful in leading the students to produce and read such texts by themselves. Owing to the focal role textual analysis plays in elucidating the unique characteristics of the obtained data, the researchers in the current paper have made use of this productive method of scientific scrutiny. It has to be noted at this juncture that faced with the bulk of the content available, the researchers have tried to restrict the corpus to the 'letters' of Nahjolbalaqa only, to render the study more manageable. In so doing, the Action verbs occurring in the 'letters' have been classified on the basis of Bloom's model.

The thought-provoking content of Nahjolbalaqa has been scrutinized by several researchers, among whom mention can be made of Behnam (2003) who has analyzed some excerpts of Imam Ali's statements on the basis of two text-oriented linguistic tenets, aimed at clarifying the veritable nature of Nahjolbalaqa principles, Mirqaderi (2006) who has evaluated the existing complaints in Nahjolbalaqa and appraised the discourse context and underlying inducement for each complaint, and Elahian and Pourrostami (2011) who have gone about the elaboration of human ineptitude in grasping the description of God given in Imam Ali's words.

An alternative group of researchers have strived to analyze Nahjolbalaqa instructions from philosophical and epistemological perspectives (e.g. Seyyedi, 2000; Jafari, 2000). Others have opted for a linguistic approach in their analysis of Nahjolbalaqa. Qonsouli (2000), for instance, has analyzed the occurrence of different speech acts in one of Nahjolbalaqa 'sermons'. Behnam (2003), on the other hand, has referred to the prevailing phonological, verbal, and structural orders in Nahjolbalaqa as an instance of attractions in Imam Ali's precious instructions. The implications of Nahjolbalaqa instructions for governance are among the other issues being attended to. Mousazade and Adli (2009), among others, have underscored the fundamental role of Nahjolbalaqa instructions in setting the criteria for the election of governmental leaders, having its origins in Islamic ideology. To wrap up this section, it must be stated that despite the preponderance of studies on different facets of Nahjolbalaqa, some of its linguistic features haven't been sufficiently scrutinized. As a case in point, the in-depth analysis of cognitive quality of Nahjolbalaqa instructions is among the issues that haven't yet been given due heed. Thus, the current study might be said to feature as an appropriate groundwork for future investigations driven by analogous orientations.

Bloom's Cognitive Model

Bloom et al. (1956) claim that their cognitive classification model equips the researchers with the proper means to pinpoint the existing similarities and differences among instructional programs and thereby arrange them in different cognitive levels. Bloom's model provides a nomenclature for the abstract and concrete set of activities going on in the mind. For instance, the amount of mental activity required for memorization is far less than the extent needed for, say, analyzing the data. Indeed, the logic behind adopting this model in the present investigation is its power in providing the researchers with a firm basis for placing each 'letter' of Nahjolbalaqa in a specific class, based on its unique characteristics, and thereby identifying the degree of cognitive intricacy for each individual 'letter'. Owing to the existence of similarities in the overall structure of some 'letters', such 'letters' can be grouped in their respective classes, based on their shared features.

Bloom's cognitive model incorporates six different levels, alternatively referred to as 'knowledge', 'comprehension', 'application', 'Analysis', 'Synthesis', and 'evaluation'. Each of these levels is characterized by a specific definition and hence consists of specific acts and features. As a matter of fact, Bloom has specified each single category through the use of some particular verbs, in an attempt to simplify the comparison among different mentality levels. Likewise, Nahjolbalaqa 'letters' can be categorized in different levels according to the unique nature they possess. For instance, if the main essence of a 'letter' is pertinent to the comparison of two things, it had better be placed in the category known

as ‘analysis’, in that comparison is one of the distinguishing features for this category of Bloom’s model (More explication regarding the categorization of ‘letters’ according to their overriding content is given in the ensuing section).

III. METHODOLOGY

The Study Corpus and Procedure

The utilized corpus in the current study consisted of the translated texts of 79 ‘letters’ adopted from the ‘letters’ part of Nahjolbalaqa, which with their subdivisions amounted to a total of 255 ‘letters’ (The translated version of Nahjolbalaqa used for the sake of the present scrutiny was the one done by Mohammad Mahdi Jafari). To perform the study, following Bloom’s lead, all ‘letters’ were evaluated analytically and in sufficient detail by attending to each and every segment included in them, with the aim of revealing their cognitive characteristics. In other words, the reason behind such a detailed analysis of ‘letters’ was being able to assign them to one of the six levels in Bloom’s taxonomy, i.e. the so-called categories of ‘knowledge’, ‘comprehension’, ‘application’, ‘analysis’, ‘synthesis’, and ‘evaluation’.

The above-mentioned levels in Bloom’s model are accompanied by particular delineations that facilitate the process of data analysis. The first level, known as ‘knowledge’, is characterized by the function of expressing specific information and specifying the incidents. ‘Comprehension’ is defined as the process of understanding the incoming information presented to an individual. ‘Application’ receives its major sense in the framework of applying rules, principles, conceptions, and theories in a novel context. What is meant by ‘analysis’ is the process of disintegrating the information into its basic components. ‘Synthesis’, on the other hand, has to do with the act of merging the existing theories in the form of a new or unique design. Finally, ‘evaluation’ pertains to the appraisal of the quality of the objects or beliefs according to specific tangible criteria (Shrum and Glisan, 1994).

Following the lead of Shrum and Glisan (1994), who regard each of these levels as bound with and characterized by some particular ‘action verbs’, the researchers are enabled to analyze and categorize Nahjolbalaqa ‘letters’ in one of the said cognitive classes, in terms of the verbs used in each of them. Some of the verbs relevant to each of the cognitive levels in Bloom’s taxonomy are listed by Shrum and Glisan (ibid.) in the following manner:

- 1- **Knowledge:** to quote, to mention, to determine, to define, to name, to memorize, to repeat, and to discern.
- 2- **Comprehension:** to explain, to interpret, to change, to understand, to classify, to discuss, and to review.
- 3- **Application:** to act, to demonstrate, to illustrate, to apply, to practice, and to solve.
- 4- **Analysis:** to evaluate, to order, to divide, to compare, to distinguish, and to calculate.
- 5- **Synthesis:** to make, to produce, to believe, to modify, to collect, to manage, and to organize.
- 6- **Evaluation:** to justify, to support, to criticize, to choose, to evaluate, and to predict.

As is evident, different verbs in each category are indicative of their particular cognitive domain. The sixth level – evaluation – is located in the abstraction extreme of the cognitive axis, and the first level – knowledge – signifies the most concrete point on the continuum. As a consequence, the features of different levels are not to be regarded as absolute; rather they are to be interpreted in terms of high or low degrees of abstraction or concreteness. For instance, ‘comprehension’ is considered as being more concrete than abstract. It is also worth noting that some words are liable to be related to a particular level indirectly; for example, a verb like ‘care’ can be indirectly associated with the verb ‘define’, and hence it can be classified under the category of ‘knowledge’. As each letter was found to be established on the basis of a specific verb, it was essential that all the verbs be divided successive to evaluation and then classified in a specific category.

As stated earlier, an in-depth analysis of the content of ‘letters’ provided the researchers with a firm basis to demarcate the main verbs included in each ‘letter’. Consequently, all ‘letters’ and their subdivisions were classified in 18 different groups. To come up with sound definitions for the verbs incorporated in each ‘letter’, use was made of a monolingual dictionary, for a bilingual dictionary was thought to be an improper source for grasping the exact definitions of words. Further justification for the application of monolingual dictionary in the current study comes from the fact that bilingual dictionaries mostly fall short of differentiating the words with close meanings but different nuances or shades of meaning. As a case in point, ‘describe’ and ‘explain’ tend to be considered synonymous in most bilingual dictionaries; nonetheless, in tandem with Oxford dictionary, there are minute differences between their English meanings. Thus, Hornby (2006) puts forth the following alternative definitions for the two words:

Describe: to say what sb/sth is like.

Explain: to tell sb about sth in a way that makes it easy to understand.

A more thoroughgoing account of the obtained upshots is given in the subsequent section.

IV. RESULTS

In what follows a laconic exposition is provided of the initial results gained through the scrupulous analysis of the study corpus; Indeed all ‘letters’ have been classified on the basis of the occurrence of different groups of verbs in them. To submit a more reader-friendly account of the manner in which such groupings were materialized, the gained outcomes have been presented in the enumerated format:

1- To order: 45 ‘letters’ out of the whole corpus of 255, were found to feature as the subdivisions of the verb *order*, in which the addressees were, in a way, ordered or exhorted to do something. Based on Bloom’s taxonomy (see Shrum

and Gilson, 1994) all such instances of the verb 'order' were subsumed under the category of 'evaluation'. In keeping with this taxonomy, 'order' and 'exhort' are regarded as a part of the verb 'recommend'. Since verbs such as 'warn', 'exhort', 'guide', and 'order' belong to this cognitive level, all letters whose titles contain one of the relevant concepts like warning, precaution, exhortation, prevention, guidance, morality were categorized in this group. Examples of this include 'letter' titles like 'unhand the exaggeration', translation of the 21st letter, 'exhort the human being by existence of the God', translation of letter 23 (2), 'order Meccan people not to get the wage', translation of letter 67 (4), 'real borders of this life', translation of letter 3 (2), and 'gathering the alms and justice culture', translation of letter 25.

2- To state: Altogether, 30 'letters' were grouped together as the subcategories of this verb, which has to do with 'vivid and clear expression' of a state or an action. This group falls under the category of 'knowledge', and is best epitomized via the verb 'state'. The letters entitled 'destiny of human in this world', translation of letter 31 (1), 'this world is a snake', translation of the 68th letter, 'the face of Koran', translation of the 77th letter, and 'O, you, the sight of Satan is the farm of disturbance', translation of letter 18 (1) count as the vivid examples of the cognitive level known as 'knowledge', since in all the said letters an attempt has been made to clarify the manner in which an action is (to be) performed.

3- To criticize: All in all, 21 'letters' out of the entire corpus were subsumed under this verb, which, in turn, belongs to the category of 'evaluation' in Bloom's model. Examples of the letters falling within this class are the ones entitled 'unsuitable work', translation of the 61st letter, 'the governor's duty toward people', translation of letter 50 (1), 'betrayal in safekeeping', translation of the 40th letter, and 'I made a mistake of you due to your father's honesty', translation of letter 71 (1).

'Undoubtedly, destroying others' responsibility and dealing with other's duties are a symbol of clear disability and invalid viewpoint' (translation of 61st letter)

4- To evaluate: 21 'letters', whose contents were relevant to the notions of appreciation and virtues were considered as the subdivisions of this verb, which, in turn, falls within the category of 'evaluation'. What is meant by 'evaluation' is the act of stating one's view regarding the quality, value, or degree of a topic or a person. This level can be characterized by words such as 'appreciation', 'worship', 'virtues', 'position', and 'feature'. Typical instances of this category include, 'appreciating Kuffa people', translation of the second letter, 'electing of proper colleague and counsel', translation of letter 53 (10), and 'we are created by our God', translation of the 28th letter.

'I hope God reward you, the citizens, via your prophet's clan' (translation of the second letter)

5- To uncover: 20 'letters' out of the whole corpus were categorized as the subdivisions of this verb, which has to do with revealing somebody's identity, and belongs to the level of 'analysis' in Bloom's taxonomy. Thus, all the concepts relevant to the term 'revealing', which is, by itself, a part of the verb 'uncover' were categorized in this class. Examples of this category include 'Othman progress report and viewpoints against it', translation of the first letter, 'leading astray', translation of the seventh letter, and 'uniqueness in Othman's believes and disagreement on his blood', translation of the 58th letter.

'I will aware you of Othman's activities, to hear it as you see him' (translation of the first letter)

6- To define: A total of 20 'letters' were grouped as the subcategories of this verb, which is regarded as a component of the level of 'knowledge'. Thus, letters that submitted a clear delineation of the nature or scope of issues were counted as falling within this category, examples of which being 'praying time', translation of the 52nd letter, 'to be on reasoning', translation of 14th letter, and 'attachment of materialists to the world', translation of letter 31 (20).

Say the initial praying when the sun shadow is at the size of a goat corral (translation of the 52nd letter)

7- To illustrate: 19 'letters' were grouped as the subdivisions of this verb, and were attributed to the level of 'application' in Bloom's taxonomy. The distinguishing feature shared by all these letters is the clarification of issues through the provision of examples. Examples of this category include 'God approbation in praying, and reasons of refusing them by God', translation of letter 31 (18), 'Imam describes himself in this world', translation of letter 45 (2), and 'precious suggestions for guarding the human values', translation of the 24th letter.

'O, you, a person whose generosity leads to the universe treasures let you to say praying, he has regarded your wrongdoings as one mistake, and your charities as ten right doings' (translation of letter 18 (31))

8- To describe: This verb was found to subsume 12 'letters' out of the whole corpus and was associated with the level of 'comprehension' in Bloom's model. The letters going about an elaboration of the details of an event were classified in this class, examples of which being, 'the best believer', translation of the 69th letter, and 'the abstinent people and their position in this world', translation of letter 27 (2).

'O, know this fact that the best believer is a person who devotes his/her soul, clan, and wealth the most' (translation of the 69th letter)

9- To propose: 12 letters were regarded as the subcategories of this verb, which, in turn, falls within Bloom's 'synthesis' level. Epitomized by the verb 'propose', the letters in this group put forth an opinion or a plan that is being considered by the opposite side. The quintessential examples of this category are, 'Punishing the cruel', translation of letter 60 (2), and 'position of Imam Ali toward Bani Omiea, and inviting to allegiance', translation of the 75th letter.

'Receive the allegiance of your people, and come to me with a group of people' (translation of the 75th letter)

10- To demonstrate: A total of 11 'letters' out of the entire corpus were grouped as the components of this verb, which signifies the concept of proving or religious legalizing, and is, hence, a part of the 'application' class in Bloom's

taxonomy. Some of the relevant example in this domain are ‘counseling is only the right of immigrants and supporters’, translation of the 60th letter, ‘we are our creators’ creatures’, translation of letter 28 (9), ‘complaining about his cousin’, translation of letter 41 (1), and ‘purchasing the right’, translation of the 79th letter.

‘Undoubtedly, governors were put to death before you, because they had prevented people from their rights’ (translation of the 79th letter)

11- To respond: Altogether, 10 ‘letters’ were found to be relevant to this category, which pertains to the act of responding to people and their claims, and is classified under the level of ‘knowledge’ in Bloom’s model. As the typical examples of this category reference can be made to ‘Imam’s background in war against the polytheist, and his persistence’, translation of letter 10 (3), ‘the people wanted me, and I swore allegiance to them’, translation of letter 54 (1), and ‘we are our creator’s creatures’, translation of letter 28 (11 and 12).

‘You have reminded me and my followers that you have nothing for us except for a sword. Indeed you made us laugh after the crying! Who has ever seen that Abdolmotaleb clan disengages the enemy?’ (translation of letter 28 (11 and 12))

12- To support: 6 ‘letters’ were associated with this category, which is indirectly related to the level of ‘evaluation’ in Bloom’s taxonomy, and is typified via the verb ‘support’. The best instance of this class is ‘gathering the alms and tributes on the basis of justice’, translation of the 25th letter.

‘And send someone who is compassionate, honest, and supportive to fetch the farm animals’ (translation of letter 25 (4))

13- To practice: Falling within the level of ‘application’ in Bloom’s model, this group was found to encompass a total of 6 ‘letters’. Letters entitled ‘greediness of Imam Ali for solidarity unity among Muhammad followers’, translation of letter 78 (2), and ‘considering and going to the other world’, translation of letter 31 (17), are the best epitomes of this category.

‘O, you are going to face a difficult and arduous pass, the lighter on the pass, the easier’ (translation of letter 31 (17))

14- To tell: Totally 5 ‘letters’ were regarded as the subdivisions of this verb that is related to information transfer and instruction, and is subcategorized under the level of ‘knowledge’ in Bloom’s classification. ‘Instruction’, ‘value’, and ‘responsibility’ best represent this cognitive level, and its archetypes among Nahjolbalaqa letters are ‘war custom’, translation of the 11th letter, and ‘describing his own agent’, translation of letter 46 (1).

‘Thus your military camp should be in front of higher lands, mountainsides, or in the middle of winding rivers when you are fighting against the enemy or the enemy is fighting against you’ (translation of the 11th letter)

15- To remember: Consisting of 5 ‘letters’, this group is regarded as a subcategory of ‘comprehension’ level in Bloom’s taxonomy, and gives an account of a situation or an instance from the past time. Typical instances of this category include ‘real borders of the life’, translation of letter 3 (2), and ‘you are not an immigrant’, translation of letter 64 (3).

‘A person, who has tried to accumulate his wealth, has spent his life on accumulation...’ (translation of letter 3 (2))

16- To explain: Only 4 ‘letters’ out of the entire corpus were classified as the subdivisions of this verb which is, by itself, related to the notion of explanation or straightforward expression of a topic. According to Bloom’s model, this group is pertinent to the level of ‘comprehension’, and its finest example appears in the translation of letter 62 (4) from Nahjolbalaqa, which is entitled ‘insistent viewpoint of Imam toward deviant people’.

‘I swear to God that I will fight them, however I am alone and they are as big as the world, I am not afraid of loneliness’ (translation of letter 62 (4))

17- To investigate: Simply 4 ‘letters’ out the whole were found to be relevant to this group which is, in turn, a subcategory of the cognitive level of ‘analysis’ in Bloom’s taxonomy. The best quotable example of this category is thought to be the translation of letter 67(1) from Nahjolbalaqa, titled ‘Arrangement of pilgrimage to Mecca (Hajj) ceremony, and advising people’.

‘Arrange the Hajj ceremony for people, and remind them the God’s days’ (translation of letter 67 (1))

18- To classify: Finally, the remaining 4 ‘letters’ out of the whole corpus of 255, were allotted to this group, which is classified under Bloom’s ‘analysis’ level. ‘Citizen Classes’, translation of letter 53 (14), can be considered as one of the typical examples of this group.

‘O, you pay attention to this point that citizens live in different classes, some of them do not become settled, unless by dependence on other classes’ (translation of letter 53 (14))

As is evident from the data listed above, the letters implying ‘order’ are found to be the most important ones, as they outnumber the other categories. Now that the distribution of all Nahjolbalaqa ‘letters’ based on Bloom’s model has been discussed in sufficient length, more careful and comprehensive groupings can be done by way of eliminating the redundancies from our categorization. Table 1 below represents the total frequency of ‘letters’ in each of the six major cognitive levels introduced in Bloom’s model.

TABLE 1
A SUMMARY OF ALL EXISTING VERBS IN DIFFERENT 'LETTERS', AND THEIR CORRESPONDING COGNITIVE LEVELS

<i>Cognitive level</i>	<i>Existing verbs in each level</i>	<i>Total number</i>
<i>Knowledge</i>	To state, To define, To respond, To tell	65
<i>Comprehension</i>	To explain, To describe, To remember	21
<i>Application</i>	To demonstrate, To illustrate, To practice	36
<i>Analysis</i>	To uncover, To investigate, To classify	28
<i>Synthesis</i>	To propose	12
<i>Evaluation</i>	To order, To evaluate, To criticize, To support	93

TABLE 2
THE RESULTS OF CHI-SQUARE FOR THE DISTRIBUTION OF LETTERS IN EACH COGNITIVE CATEGORY

<i>Cognitive level</i>	<i>Observed</i>	<i>Expected</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	χ^2
<i>Knowledge</i>	65	42.5	5	.000	110.624
<i>Comprehension</i>	21	42.5	5		
<i>Application</i>	36	42.5	5		
<i>Analysis</i>	28	42.5	5		
<i>Synthesis</i>	12	42.5	5		
<i>Evaluation</i>	93	42.5	5		
<i>total</i>	255	-	-		

V. DISCUSSION

Initial analysis of the data reveals that the outright majority of 'letters' fall within the cognitive level of 'evaluation' (judgment on the basis of specified and goal-oriented criteria) in Bloom's model (N = 93). On account of this finding, it can be claimed that most of the words and sentences in Nahjolbalaqa feature as the quintessential instances of evaluating and ordering, categories in Bloom's model which demand very high levels of critical thinking. Evidence for this claim comes from Geertsen (2003), where he maintains that Bloom's model can be used as a tool to determine the high levels of abstraction, and then it follows that the higher the level of abstraction the higher the degree of critical thinking. Thus, the higher number of letters in 'evaluation' level is to be taken as proof for the importance of evaluation in Nahjolbalaqa. This further depicts the great value of Imam Ali's thoughts and statements, since as previously uttered most of the letters in this great masterpiece of his are germane to the notions of 'evaluation' and 'judgment', which are, by themselves, located at the highest level of abstraction. Next to evaluation, it is the 'knowledge' level that incorporates the most number of letters (N = 65). Yet, as this level is situated in the concrete end of the cognitive axis, it can be deduced that two ultimate extremes of Bloom's continuum, i.e. knowledge and evaluation are characterized by possessing the highest number of letters. To justify this piece of finding, one might argue that evaluation without knowledge is impossible, and in case it is possible it proves to be destructive. On the other hand, to Imam Ali, who is called the leader of the faithful, mere knowledge is regarded as futile, unless it is utilized for the sake of some vital and crucial affairs such as 'judgment'. Furthermore, as Table 1 and its corresponding figure (shown below) help reveal, 'Synthesis' (which has to with the act of producing and combining topics and creating novel ones) is the level that encompasses the lowest number of letters. On account of the foregoing discussion, it can be said that Nahjolbalaqa puts forth a modern framework of art, mostly being materialized by way of its emphasis over some special features such as 'evaluation' and 'criticism'. The other notable feature of Nahjolbalaqa is the high level knowledge it draws on, which, in itself, is an indication of the omniscience of Imam Ali. As a case in point, military instruction requires expert knowledge of all aspects of military involvement and hence demands someone with comprehensive knowledge of its various perspectives. To sum it up, Nahjolbalaqa 'letters' are considered as explicit archetypes of profound knowledge and high levels of critical thinking (The cognitive quality of all Nahjolbalaqa 'letters' is illustrated in Figure 1).

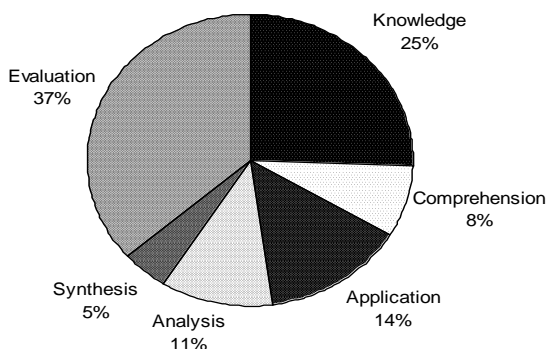


Figure 1 Cognitive quality of Nahjolbalaqa letters on the basis of Bloom model

VI. CONCLUSION

The researchers in the current study were after coming up with a proper outlook regarding the cognitive status of Nahjolbalaqa ‘letters’ in terms of Bloom’s taxonomy. As the findings summarized in Table 1 and Figure 1 illustrated, the majority of the ‘letter’ titles in Nahjolbalaqa were found to fall within the category of ‘evaluation’. Indeed, ‘evaluation’ and measurement have long been regarded as the most important concerns of mankind throughout the history (Farhady, et al. 2008). The classification of ‘letters’ based on Bloom’s model provides us with a better means to grasp the focal concepts raised in each ‘letter’. Thus, the findings of the present investigation might help the analysts and instructors, dealing with Nahjolbalaqa for different purposes, raise people’s consciousness of this great masterpiece of Imam Ali’s. As the issues become broader and more professional, general concepts, at times, need to be analyzed in detail to be able to clarify the specialized and intricate conceptions, as is the case with a teacher or a researcher who may draw simply on certain pieces of information extracted from a particular book. Analysts contending with notions such as ‘judgment’ and ‘criticism’ in their discussions, are liable to make use of the sample ‘letters’ subsumed under ‘evaluation’ class, in order to substantiate their claims via tangible examples. Nonetheless, it should be noted, at this juncture, that an attempt to translate some certain verbs in Persian might provide us with seemingly synonymous cases, which are likely to increase the viability of committing errors in scientific scrutiny. To cope with this potential problem, then, Oxford monolingual dictionary has been utilized in the current study to be able to clarify the delicate differences among the verbs mentioned in Bloom’s cognitive model, and to classify the ‘letters’ in proper classes by sticking to the precise intended connotations of the verbs. In sum, the major conclusions gained in the present study have been listed below:

- Most of the ‘letter’ titles in Nahjolbalaqa belong to the cognitive level of ‘evaluation’ in Bloom’s model. As ‘Evaluation’ is located in the most abstract end of Bloom’s continuum – the highest cognitive level – it can be deduced that Imam Ali’s instructions are characterized by a high level of cognition.
- Bloom’s model is composed of a variety of different verbs that make it apt as a basis for classifying the texts on the basis of different characteristics. The obtained findings in the current study indicate that ‘evaluation’ and ‘judgment’ are the most important elements of Imam Ali’s statements.
- Next to ‘evaluation’ level, it is ‘knowledge’ that features as the second prevalent category of Bloom’s model apropos the studied corpus of ‘letters’. This exalted position of ‘knowledge’ in Imam Ali’s ‘letters’ can be taken as further evidence for his high level of intellectuality. An alternative interpretation of this piece of finding might be that without ‘knowledge’, which can be regarded as the prerequisite for ‘evaluation’, the true value of Imam Ali’s judgment is likely to remain disentangled.

To put it in a nutshell, the Classification of Nahjolbalaqa instructions is thought to play a crucial role in the meaningful teaching of this invaluable masterpiece of Imam Ali’s. As a direct consequence of such a clear-cut categorization, instructors and all those who are somehow involved with pedagogical issues are enabled to put forth vivid delineations of different concepts in Nahjolbalaqa, and teach these valuable concepts in accordance with the students’ level of cognitive growth. It has to be recapitulated, at this point, that the majority of ‘letters’ in Nahjolbalaqa are characterized by the highest level of ‘abstraction’, which, in itself, implies the optimum level of critical thinking possessed by its author, i.e. Imam Ali. Yet, to come up with a more comprehensive classification, further studies grappling with a full-fledged investigation of Imam Ali’s ‘sermons’ and ‘wisdom’ are also called for. After all, it must be reiterated that Nahjolbalaqa is a genuine masterpiece, which takes account of not only the religious perspectives, but varied branches of science, such as epistemology, philosophy, anthropology, botany, and many other scientific domains, and each single page from this glorious tome leads the reader through a long journey, in which s(he) is endowed with a thorough-going conceptualization of real human being and the entire universe of which s(he) is a tiny part.

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A Study on the Application of Data-driven Learning in Vocabulary Teaching and Learning in China's EFL Class

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Abstract—Data-driven learning (DDL) developed from corpus linguistics plays a pioneering role in the evolution of EFL teaching, allowing the learners to identify and induce language rules by observing numerous real corpora concordances. With the guidance of new teaching notion advocated by College English Curriculum Requirements in China, DDL model has become the tendency for college English learners' efficient and autonomous learning. It becomes urgent to take advantage of this method and apply it to college vocabulary teaching. Compared with traditional foreign language teaching and learning method, data-driven learning is characterized by “autonomic learning”, “authentic language input”, “self-discovery”, and “bottom-up inductive learning”, which will conducive to the formation of the students' personalized learning abilities and the development of their autonomic learning abilities.

Index Terms—data-driven learning (DDL), vocabulary teaching, EFL, corpus

From the 1990s, computer network as the core of modern information technology are developing rapidly, providing more favorable conditions and vast space for foreign language teaching. The international education circles attach great importance to the development of learners' basic knowledge and practical abilities to autonomically access, analyze, process and use the information through computer and network.

In 2004, the Ministry of Education of China promulgated the "College English Curriculum Requirements (For Trial Implementation)" (2004) which marks the beginning of a new round of college English teaching reform. One of the most important parts of this reform is to vigorously promote the application of information technology in college English reform, seeking to use the new teaching model nationwide. "College English Curriculum Requirements" (2007) holds “the new model should be based on modern information technology, particular network technology, so that English language teaching will be free from the constraints of time and place, taking into consideration students' individualized and autonomous learning”. English Teachers should apply a large number of advanced information technology into college English curriculum design, and develop and construct a variety of computer and network-based courses.

These requirements not only clearly indicate the emphasis of our college English teaching in language teaching, but also put forward a new aim to improve the current teaching methods.

I. THE PROBLEMS OF CURRENT COLLEGE ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING AND COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING REFORM IN CHINA

Vocabulary is a fundamental component of a language and of critical importance to the EFL learners. Vocabulary teaching is an important component of language teaching.

However there are still many problems existing in vocabulary teaching in China's EFL class. The teaching forms are relatively simple, and the teaching methods are lack of innovation. In traditional vocabulary teaching, the sample sentences are usually extracted from a certain dictionary or compiled by teachers, which contain a limited amount of information and are difficult to guarantee the authenticity of the sentences. The Sentences, which show no adequacy and vividness, fail to arouse the students' attention, and is unbeneficial to cultivating learner' initiative. In general, the present English vocabulary teaching still sticks to the teachers and textbooks centered pattern, and the top-down traditional foreign language teaching mode, in which teaching content and methods focus on abstract explaining and simple exercises.

II. CORPUS

A corpus (plural 'corpora') is simply a collection of texts. A corpus is a large and principled collection of naturally occurring texts. The size of a corpus can range from tens of millions of words to a few thousand. The texts can be either transcripts of spoken language (increasingly with sound or visual files attached) or written language that has been scanned from books, newspapers etc. or downloaded electronically.

With the rapid development and wide application of computer technology, computer technology-based corpus technology becomes mature and become a powerful tool for the language study and teaching. Great concern given by the language researchers and language teachers, contemporary large-scaled corpora came into being.

For example, British National Corpus (BNC) comprises approximately 100 million words of written texts (90%) and transcripts of speech (10%), which aims to represent the universe of contemporary British English. Collins Birmingham University International Language Database (COBUILD) comprises approximately 500 million words. These large corpora can be used to help us study on the cross-cultural and cross-language English comparative analysis.

Corpus Linguistics in China began in the 1980s, which has been rapidly developed during the past 20 years. Now many corpora have been built. JDEST (Jiao Da English Corpus for Science and Technology) and Chinese Learner English Corpus (CLEC) was developed around the year 2000. There are other famous corpora in China such as the Corpora of English Education in China (CEEC), International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE), and Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners (SWECCL). A corpus is always designed for a particular purpose and the type of corpus will depend on its purpose (He, 2004).

For the study on corpus in foreign language teaching, many of the relevant theories and applications of corpus have been introduced. Yang (2002) holds the view that the applications of corpus are reflected in the statistics of language frequency, dictionary compilation, the study on vocabulary collocation, language teaching and natural language processing. Zhen (2005) makes a systematic introduction and illustration of the idea, methods and techniques of corpus based data-driven foreign language learning. He believes that compared with traditional English teaching and learning, data-driven learning is characterized by "autonomic learning", "authentic language input", "self-discovery", and "bottom-up inductive learning".

III. DATA-DRIVEN LEARNING

One of the significant features of corpus-based study is data-driven. The data-driven quantitative analysis makes us discover the problems that we could not find by intuition. DDL (data-driven learning) refers to the discovery and exploration-based learning model based on corpus by using the original data in the corpus or the retrieval results by the corpus se retrieval tools.

A. DDL, Constructivism, Lexical Grammar Theory

Constructivism as a paradigm or worldview posits that learning is an active, constructive process. The learner is an information constructor. People actively construct or create their own subjective representations of objective reality. New information is linked to prior knowledge, thus mental representations are subjective (Feng & Cai, 2009).

In the view of constructivist, learning is a constructive process in which the learner is building an internal illustration of knowledge, a personal interpretation of experience. This representation is continually open to modification, its structure and linkages forming the ground to which other knowledge structures are attached. Learning is an active process in which meaning is accomplished on the basis of experience. This view of knowledge does not necessarily reject the existence of the real world, and agrees that reality places constraints on the concepts that are, but contends that all we know of the world are human interpretations of our experience of the world. Conceptual growth comes from the sharing of various perspectives and the simultaneous changing of our internal representations in response to those perspectives as well as through cumulative experience.

The Theory of Constructivism is the theoretical basis of "the English teaching model based on computer and classroom" (Zhang, 2010, p.59). Data-driven learning embodies the Theory of Constructivism by making language learners research the language system on their own and become the masters of language learning.

Lexical Grammar Theory is an important theoretical contribution of linguist Sinclair for language study. Sinclair (2009) believes that a description of English cannot divide the language into two separate components, lexis and grammar, since grammatical features are decided by lexis and all lexical elements can have grammatical patterns. He observes that lexical meaning and grammatical meaning make up the word meaning, as neither can exist without the other, and many uses of words and phrases show a tendency to co-occur with certain grammatical choices. Lexical Grammar Theory maintains that language teaching should start from lexis and their core meanings and the most typical collocations in language teaching and learning. Special attention should be paid to that most frequently occurring high-frequency lexis. In this theory, the meaning of word depends on their surrounding lexical items and frequent semantic selective tendency, and the context of the words meaning is constructed by highlighting word's collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody semantic prosody by corpus.

B. Definition of DDL

DDL (data-driven learning) is defined by Johns (1991) in 1991 as "the use in the classroom of computer-generated concordances to get students to explore regularities of patterning in the target language, and the development of activities and exercises based on concordance output."

It is an approach based on corpus and concordance-based materials to learn language. Learners who have a certain problem will use of retrieval software to discover rules and draw conclusions on the basis of observing and analyzing a large number of real corpus, and master a grammatical structure or word usage through real-time practice. So the

learning is also known as "research-then-theory" approach. Since the concept was proposed in 1991, an increasing emphasis on data-driven learning has been paid at home and abroad. Many scholars in China have proposed the application of DDL into the innovation and development of English teaching.

Hunston (2002, p.170) also points out that "DDL involves setting up situations in which students can answer questions about language themselves by studying corpus data in the form of concordance lines or sentences".

C. The Characteristics of DDL

There is a big difference data-driven language learning and traditional teaching mode. Its characteristics can be summarized in four aspects (Zhen, 2005).

First, DDL centers on learner autonomy. Data-driven learning emphasizes the students' autonomic learning, in which activities in the class are student-centered rather than led by the teacher to give full play to their personal characteristics. Learners are not passive recipients of the knowledge, but take on the active roles of discoverers and researchers, sorting through massive language data to discover rules and patterns embedded in the data, and can self-regulate learning strategies according to their own requirements. In other words, learner autonomy is cultivated by encouraging students to be responsible for their own learning.

Second, DDL uses authentic, rich massive corpora as the main language input. Corpus-based data-driven learning provides students with high quality, vast amounts of language data from real communicative activities. In a word, data-driven learning can create an authentic language environment for students to improve their language intuition to practice their ability to deal with language variation, in order to help them acquire authentic language.

Third, DDL emphasizes the exploration and discovery of learning process. Students learn through problem-solving activities rather than being instructed directly by the teacher. Data-driven learning provides students with a lot of real data based on corpus, to guide students to observe the learning process according to their own needs to experience, explore, and discover the knowledge of language. As a result, the language knowledge that students acquire will be more authentic and systemic, and the impression will be deeper.

Finally, DDL advocates bottom-up, inductive learning. Not in the data-driven learning, students first come into contact with a large amount of authentic language data, but not prescriptive grammatical rules. After their independent observations, they will generalize grammatical rules. With concordance software, students can easily obtain a list of contextualized examples of the investigated feature when dealing with tasks such as the acquisition of grammatical structures and lexical items.

D. Three Procedures of DDL

Tim Johns (1991) describes his procedures of Identify-Classify-Generalize for classroom based on concordances and data-driven learning.

The first step of the procedure is to identify the structure under examination. It is possible for the structures or words to be teacher- or class- generated. Class-generated questions would create an immediate interest in the lesson as it would be a response to a learner's question. After identifying the area of inquiry a concordance research is necessary to find the citations. The citations are then edited to produce a list of the structures or words in the chosen context.

Classification is the second step of Johns' procedure. It is necessary so that the learners will not be discouraged by encountering overwhelming files of data. The teacher may make the classification for the students if the corpus is too big or the citation is too difficult.

Generalizing is the act of inductively constructing rules describing the usage of the structures or words. The act of generalizing represents an essential part of the learning process with a DDL activity because students are actively engaged with the cognitive process of generalizing rules for the language. This process of generalizing is completely foreign to many Chinese students who are educated in an educational system that values memorization rather than the production of generalizations or theories.

IV. THE APPLICATION OF DDL IN VOCABULARY TEACHING

In China, though corpus is still dominantly used in language research, there have been several researchers putting it to classroom teaching. Based on the theoretical directions, both home and abroad, latest researches have attempted to integrate corpus to language learning, vocabulary learning dominantly. In effect, DDL can provide such a space in which natural language is the dominant component, for in the term of "data-driven learning", "data" refers to authentic texts, the fundamental elements of the corpora.

Vocabulary is the "building blocks" of language, and is the basis of language understanding expression.

DDL is an advanced computer-aided teaching mode based on corpus index. DDL advocates students to take the initiative to explore vocabulary usage to accurately grasp the vocabulary by observing authentic linguistic phenomenon. Through DDL, the authentic data can assist learners in getting accustomed to the target language communication and help them acquire the language use successfully. The fact that the corpus can offer authentic materials conveniently makes data-driven learning valuable in foreign language pedagogy.

This new teaching model can really enrich the amount of information in the classroom. On the other hand and change the traditional vocabulary teaching method. More importantly, the large amount of language materials in corpus will

provide learners with a variety of inductive and deductive language learning opportunities, to deepen learners' acquisition of the target knowledge.

It not only brings about a challenge to the traditional foreign language teaching model which centers on teachers and textbooks, but also provides a new idea to solve the various problems in English vocabulary teaching.

A. The Innovative Application of DDL in Vocabulary Teaching

With the extensive application of information technology, the growing popularity of multimedia technology in language teaching no doubt provides the necessary technical prerequisites for foreign language learning. At present, classroom teaching equipments have realized networking, and students' abilities of using network technology have gradually increased. Multimedia teaching has been applied into various disciplines. The major corpora have become shared resources, and part of the corpus retrieval software can be downloaded directly on the computer. All these factors provide research basics for the implementation and carrying out of data-driven learning in foreign language teaching.

In vocabulary learning, learners can enter the word string that they want to retrieve, and will extract the examples related to this word or a particular language phenomenon with corpus retrieve function within a few seconds from a corpus of thousands of millions of words.

Learners can find the grammatical rules of the word by the help of these instances to achieve the effect of drawing inferences. The examples can also help them grasp the usage of words, their collocations, their language environment, and their co-occurrence with a specific grammatical structure. The observation and analysis of concordance can deepen their impression on some of the vocabulary and linguistic phenomena, and enhance their language awareness, which will make them truly master the word usage and collocation context in the target language in the process of the self-exploration.

One of the main techniques of corpus linguistics is a word concordance, which should also be a common means of data-driven learning. The target words are always presented in the KWIC (keywords in context) format, which lists all the contexts of the same word together, where the target word is always highlighted, which can save learners' energy and help to focus their attention. In this way, the learners could learn the target words intentionally. Concordance line refers to the co-occurrence of keywords and their context. Currently, much corpus software has index functions, such as Mconcord, Wordsmith. Inputting keywords, the software automatically retrieves the corpus, showing the context with a fixed number of words around the keywords, and the keywords are displayed on the screen. The number of words on the left or the right of the keywords makes up the "word span" of the keyword. The words in the word span constitute the context of the key words. The context is a continuous text around the keywords, which can be extendedly displayed in the line, paragraph, or even discourse that the keywords lie in. Retrieval can be widely used in the study of English vocabulary, grammar and discourse.

At present, data-driven learning is mostly applied in English vocabulary teaching, including collocation, colligation, and semantic prosody.

a. Collocation

Collocation is undoubtedly one of the most important concepts in the field of linguistics and applied linguistics. Sinclair (1991) defined collocation as the co-occurrence of two or more words within a short distance in the text. For general language teaching and research, collocation is a sequence of words with certain non-idiom meaning in the text and used following certain grammatical forms, the words making up the sequence co-occur with a greater probability than accident. (Wei, 2001)

The analysis of collocation is of great significance in the study of word behavior. Words and words' collocation not only play a restrictive role to the establishment of the syntactic structure relations, but also are the fundamental basis for the realization of meaning and the elimination of ambiguity.

Now, we will take the word "avoid" for an example. Teachers need to guide students how to observe the usage and the overall features of the collocation of "avoid" through the concordance lines. We carry out KWIC retrieval in BNC (British National Corpus, 100 million) online. Part of the concordance lines are shown in Fig. 1.

A	B	C	.	We have always tried at every	stage	to	to	erm	avoid	a	commitment	of	any	kind	to	an	outer	northern	route	.	We						
A	B	C	faith	would	be	given	their	proper	place	.	This	concern	to	avoid	a	false	polansation	was	certainly	justified	;	but	it	is	a	real	
A	B	C	And	with	three	eclipses	,	you	may	not	be	able	to	avoid	a	fateful	attraction	.	Letters	section	follows	Tax	on	food	IF		
A	B	C	For	example	,	it	is	important	for	an	inexperience	solo	pilot	to	avoid	a	field	landing	until	he	has	had	some	training	in	how	to
A	B	C	EC	,	in	the	sense	that	the	present	German	wish	to	avoid	active	external	commitments	and	to	concentrate	on	internal					
A	B	C	people	to	believe	they	could	manage	independent	living	and	avoid	admission	to	residential	care	.	Social	workers	above	all	have					
A	B	C	for	the	two	insulin	species	on	routine	monitoring	.	Attempts	to	avoid	altered	glycaemic	control	,	which	is	a	confounding	variable	,			
A	B	C	network	diagrams	is	the	dummy	job	.	This	is	necessary	to	avoid	ambiguity	unnecessary	constraints	in	the	plan	and	to	avoid				
A	B	C	the	military	's	desire	,	on	the	one	hand	,	to	avoid	attacks	on	its	competence	or	political	attitudes	and	,	on	the		
A	B	C	occasions	he	has	tried	acid	,	it	was	used	properly	to	avoid	bad	trips	thus	,	he	had	"	come	to	terms	with		
A	B	C	see	the	Shah	,	they	walked	around	the	palace	garden	to	avoid	being	overheard	by	Mosadeq	"	a	spies	or	microphones	.	The	Shah	
A	B	C	(c)	Complete	the	sequence	with	reverse	punch	Faults	to	avoid	Beware	of	over-committing	yourself	to	the	foot	sweep	.	The					
A	B	C	camera	film	.	But	tourists	who	want	value	for	money	should	avoid	buying	a	postcard	in	Bahrain	or	hiring	a	deckchair	in	Japan	.	
A	B	C	then	the	other	issue	I	think	is	criterion	twelve	,	erm	avoid	conflict	with	mineral	and	non-mineral	development	.	Again	I				
A	B	C	and	people	went	up	one	aisle	and	down	the	next	to	avoid	confusion	this	worked	very	well	,	but	in	1988	people	were		
A	B	C	of	the	electricity	industry	,	is	under	pressure	to	avoid	creating	a	private	monopoly	with	BR	services	.	He	also	appeared				
A	B	C	practices	"	where	managers	may	choose	to	play	safe	inorder	to	avoid	criticism	if	anything	goes	wrong	"	,	whereas	their	staff	,		

Figure 1. Concordance lines of "avoid".

Before class teachers need to edit the original concordance lines and show them to students in the classroom. Under the guidance of teachers, students may find two main grammatical structures of “avoid” through observations, that is, “avoid + noun” and “avoid + doing”. However, students cannot directly observe typicality of the collocated words, as well as the lexeme distribution (lexeme refers to the location of collocation words in the span), which is determined by statistical tools using Z-score or T-score. The higher the Z -score or T-score, the more typical the collocation is, and vice versa. We can use such as TACT and CAST software. Fig. 2 is the collocation words of “avoid” counted from the BROWN Corpus by Zhen (2005) (in descending order of the Z-score). Teachers can try to provide the collocation words and concordance lines of “avoid” for students to observe and generalize. They may also contrast the collocations of “avoid” of learners to point out their errors.

搭配词	Z值	搭配词	Z值	搭配词	Z值
unaggressive	42.08	rebuke	29.74	disgrace	24.27
sullying	42.08	nudity	29.74	pungent	21.00
puncturing	42.08	fugitive	29.74	nemesis	21.00
musings	42.08	bigotry	29.74	instability	18.78
nicked	42.08	stasis	24.27	repel	17.13
eye-strain	42.08	insomnia	24.27	convict	17.13
debacle	42.08	infliction	24.27	congestion	17.13
stuffy	29.74	disruption	24.27	scandal	14.82

Figure 2. Z-score of collocates of “avoid”.

b. Colligation

Colligation is an important concept in the study of word collocation, which refers to the combination of abstract grammatical categories in the text, that is, the grammatical structure and framework of the collocation. For example, “V + N” represents a colligation. Through the establishment of colligation, we can find the grammatical pattern of the vocabulary. Words with different meanings have different grammatical patterns, and different words in the same grammatical pattern have certain connection in the meaning. For example, grammatical patterns of each word are given in Collins COBUILD English Dictionary. One of the grammatical patterns of “blaze” is “VP with n” (Her Eyes blazed with fury.) Mastering the characteristics of grammatical patterns is of great important for students to use foreign languages fluently and accurately.

Zhen (2005) took the noun “matter” as an example, adopting KWIC retrieval method by using Wordsmith software to search it from the BROWN corpus. Part of the concordance lines are shown in Fig. 3. Students can observe the concordance lines to find several major grammatical patterns of “matter”: “a N of n /-doing”, “a N-of pl-n”, and a fixed phrase.

1	ng a forward roll is simply a matter	of copying another child who can
2	only to a very limited extent a matter	of devising new machinery of cons
3	this at all It is largely a matter	of finding passages that suit one
4	As he grows older it may be a matter	of providing some accustomed object
5	two problems to consider one is a matter	of adjusting the fiscal calendar the
6	South In this case it is primarily a matter	of conflict of racial
7	man's face It was simply a matter	of curiosity, a natural right to
8	distance from earth but is a matter	of the development of the human
9	seek to be systematic is not a matter	of intuition, " history has this in common
10	man's face It was simply a matter	of curiosity, a natural right to examine
11	principle One problem is a matter	of shifting dates the other is
12	assented vowing that in a matter	of dollars and cents his brother
13	be completely enclosed in a matter	of three or four days Then you can
14	were wholly inadequate In a matter	of months the war department
15	The result dramatically visible in a matter	of days in the family's disrupted daily
16	to this experiment nor as a matter	of fact in those who were continuous
17	echoed mockingly. "What's the matter	Joe you scared of me? Think I'm
18	Emud at the rain "Oh what's the matter	with me"? He demands
19	was about to enter college As a matter	of fact Albert Flint expressed
20	on the spur of the moment As a matter	of fact he wouldn't have cared

Figure 3. Concordance lines of “matter”.

c. Semantic Prosody

Semantic prosody refers to the semantic atmosphere created by the typical collocates of the keyword in its context (Wei, 2002a), which can be roughly divided into positive prosody, neutral prosody or intricate mixed prosody and negative prosody (Stubbs, 1996). Semantic prosody opens up a new research orientation for corpus linguistics, and provides a new perspective to the observation and description of word behavior (Wei, 2002b). According to Wei (2002a), the study on semantic prosody can be carried out by the following methods. (1) Build up a colligation, summarize and describe the semantic prosody of keywords based on data; (2) Calculate collocates, study semantic prosody by data-driven approach; (3) Build up the structure of semantic prosody based on a combination of data and data-driven approach. Regardless of which method to be adopted, the study must be data driven. Only with corpus, the semantic prosody that the words may have can be described scientifically by the statistics, analysis and generalization of data.

For example: Wei (2002b) studied the semantic prosody of “cause” by using Wordsmith to retrieve in JDEST corpus. “Cause” appears a total of 949 times, whose significant collocations can be determined by Z-score test, as shown in Fig. 4. Significant collocations reveal the typical behavior of the node word, which is the basis of the research of semantic prosody.

Collocates	Co-occur with node	Corp. Freq.	Z-score	Collocates	Co-occur with node	Corp. Freq.	Z-score
failure	34	848	21.36	diseases	4	131	6.26
bleeding	9	97	17.38	distortion	4	150	5.77
damage	21	511	17.03	erosion	4	153	5.70
death	15	334	15.13	faults	4	159	5.57
unemployment	7	85	14.39	collisions	3	97	5.46
injury	10	197	13.23	fission	5	250	5.38
trouble	6	107	10.83	fire	5	254	5.33
problems	27	1897	9.91	illness	3	110	5.06
disruption	4	58	9.89	cracking	4	203	4.77
harm	3	35	9.62	defects	5	305	4.71
worry	3	39	9.08	fault	5	316	4.60
deterioration	4	69	9.00	concern	5	338	4.38
wear	8	259	8.91	strain	7	621	4.23
disease	13	672	8.49	inflation	3	147	4.22
pain	6	166	8.46	vibration	4	257	4.07
injuries	4	80	8.30	loss	8	822	4.00
symptoms	7	236	8.13	dust	3	170	3.84
odor	3	54	7.62	cracks	3	173	3.79
breakdown	4	101	7.28	fall	4	285	3.78
collision	4	110	6.93	difficulties	4	298	3.65
diabetes	4	110	6.93	delay	3	252	2.89
disorder	3	65	6.87	reduction	6	758	2.86
errors	7	341	6.48	separation	4	405	2.86
stresses	9	540	6.39	shock	3	305	2.47
corrosion	8	444	6.36	fatigue	4	483	2.44
instability	4	128	6.34	crack	3	346	2.21

Figure 4. Features of Collocates of “cause”.

B. Construct a Corpus

Obtaining the corpus data becomes very easy by the support of computer technology and network. In the process of constructing a corpus, you need to consider the following principles. (1) Principle of authenticity. The data collected in the corpus must be authentic and natural. (2) Principle of representativeness. The selection of the corpus should cover a wide range of content and fields, and the constitution and selection of corpus should not be limited to one area, but take into account the representativeness and balance of the selected corpus in different domains of language. (3) Principle of dynamic. The large amount of data in the corpus needs to be updated constantly. Although a corpus collects a massive data, it cannot cover all the language content. Languages develop with the development of society and are dynamic. (4) Principle of openness. Corpus itself is an open system, into which a variety of text resources and audio materials are filtered, and can interconnect with other corpora.

According to the needs of different courses, we can first construct small corpus for our teaching. For example, in order to explain the abstract translation in science and technology paper, teachers can in advance self-construct Science and Technology Abstract Corpus, which includes a certain number of Chinese and English abstracts from online China Knowledge Resource Integrated Database. The selected abstracts may be classified in accordance with the disciplines, and the right amount of original data for each discipline should be included to construct the Chinese Students' Science and Technology Abstracts Corpus. In addition, we can also self-construct Foreign Scholars' Science and Technology Abstracts corpus.

In Class, teachers could allow students to contrast the Chinese students' English abstracts to their Chinese abstracts, let them make genre analysis, and summarize language differences between English and Chinese abstracts, such as tense, voice and so on. In addition, by comparing the abstracts of Chinese students with foreign scholars, we can guide students to discover the errors usually made by the Chinese students in abstract writing, and promote teaching and academic development.

C. *The Vocabulary Teaching Mode Based on DDL*

According to the teaching objectives and content, teachers will select appropriate content from the corpus to produce the illustrated teaching classes, and design individualized teaching task in view of the characteristics and language skills of students. On the first stage, determine the problems to be solved and the solutions to the problem by using corpus. On the second stage, carry out classroom activities based on corpus to guide students to find answers to the questions independently and participate in classroom exchanges. On the third stage, assign some tasks to enable students to use corpus resources with target.

Teachers can first give students the available corpus, and teach them how to use the retrieval tools for autonomic learning. Here are several teaching modes.

Mode 1: Before class, teachers need to extract the concordance lines of a word in the corpus by retrieval software, and in the class, show the data to the students by multimedia. Next, the students are asked to discuss the law behind the authentic language phenomena in groups in the classroom. If permitted, we can also enable students to independently use the retrieval software to extract and analyze more real data from the corpus. Finally, under the guidance of the teacher, students need to summarize the characteristics of collocation, grammar patterns, context and co-occurrence.

Mode 2: Before starting a new lesson, first teachers need to determine word to learn in this unit, and require students to produce “co-occurrence in context” of the word in groups with corpus to observe and induce language rules. In the class, each group exchanges their retrieval results, and then summarizes the rules of usage again. At the same time, teachers can lead students to contrast the results of discussion to that in the dictionary, and further find examples from the corpus for those usages which are not clear enough to strengthen the students’ language awareness.

Mode 3: teachers can produce co-occurrence of a word from a corpus according to the difficult levels of the unit, and replace the word in the concordance lines with other unrelated alternative symbols. Students are asked to determine its part of speech with the context before and after the word, guess its meaning and summarize its usage.

D. *The Orientation of Teachers’ and Students’ Role*

There is great difference between the traditional teaching model and corpus-based data-driven teaching mode, the latter reflecting the principle of combining practicability, infotainment and interesting in English teaching in favor of mobilizing the enthusiasm of both teachers and students. This new teaching mode, in particular, reflects the dominant position of and the leading role of teachers in the teaching process.

Teaching space becomes open, and teachers’ role changes from the traditional knowledge initiator to the organizers and instructors of the teaching process, the assistants and promoters of the construction of meaning. The status of students changes from passive recipients into active constructors of knowledge.

The most critical step in DDL is learners summarize the concordance lines to arrive at language rules under the guidance of teachers. DDL emphasizes the student-centered exploratory learning mode, which fundamentally alters the traditional top-down teaching mode. Students, who change to researchers, constantly summarize from a large number of language input. The learning process makes them get the satisfaction of success, enhance their self-confidence, and further stimulates their interest in learning. The questions brought up in DDL could be set by the teacher according to the syllabus, or could be created by learners in their summarization. Learners collect large amounts of authentic information from the “context” in corpus, breaking the traditional teaching mode in which learners only rely on reference books and dictionaries to learn a word, so that students can get a lot of authentic language input.

V. CONCLUSION

Foreign language teaching has always insisted on the innovation of teaching method. Corpus-based data-driven teaching and learning provide a large number of instances of real context, and create a learning environment to attract learners’ attention, be conducive to enhance their memory and help them to use context to obtain the word semantics and summarize the grammatical rules. In DDL, the student-centered classroom design puts more emphasis on classroom interaction, in which students can communicate through their own understanding of the language knowledge inducted from the corpus, to achieve the purpose of the acquisition of language rules. This learning mode emphasizes the learner’s autonomic learning ability to explore and discover language knowledge based on corpus according to their own needs so as to continuously introspect and induce language rules. DDL changes the dominant position of teachers in traditional teaching. Teachers change from initiators into the organizers and counselors of teaching. The relation between teachers and students has thus become more mutually cooperative.

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A Review of William Blake's "Songs of Innocence and Songs of Experience" in Persian Translation

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Abstract—All who research and study about William Blake's works more or less know about the nature of his most salient work, Songs of Experience and Songs of Innocence . The Songs of Innocence tries to reflect child's innocence and ignorance of worldliness. They focus on childhood happiness and improvisation. Those who work in the field of literary translation are aware of those limitations and bounds which a translator may face with, (sociolinguistic matters, cultural bounds, discourse issues...) none of which will lead us toward rejecting the essence of translator and translation. As Robert Frost says: "in a literary translation the only thing we miss is the poem itself" and even the best translators can not be aware of the exact philosophy of the poem, because it's just in the mind of poet and inaccessible to others. But all in all we translate poems and we try to share experiences. This paper is the result of years of reading and introspecting in to William Blake's Song of Experience and of Innocence. While translating the collection to Persian the researcher encounters with number of questions, which she tries to present answers for them. So a sort of comparative, contrastive analysis between original English version and its Persian translation appeared. In this paper the writer chose 3 sample poems and their translations in order to discuss translation issues she encountered with reading and translating Blake. The results showed key factors in translating Blake are: symbolism, original spelling and punctuation, knowing about author's biography.

Index Terms—William Blake, Songs of Experience and of Innocence, translation, literary, Persian, English

I. INTRODUCTION

It goes without saying that translation has always been important in human communication. Translators try to transfer source text to target text, therefore transferring new ideas, meanings, and beliefs from one language to the other. At times they act like a bridge connecting two different cultures. By translation, new thoughts, philosophies and points of views are entered into different languages. In case of literary translation, as people are more interested in reading novels, poems and literary works, the need for good translation is more felt. You don't have a limited range of audience but a large number of them, they may not be aware of characteristics of original texts and poems but to large extent they differentiate good translation with weak one. Maybe ordinary readers with no educational background in English and Persian literature can not understand details but among your readers there are some careful readers who always read to highlight the gaps, who always compare the text and translation in a systematic manner. Even if it's not the case you owe the writer. You are responsible for all philosophies, ideas and point of views that you transfer rightly or wrongly. In case of William Blake's works your responsibility is doubled, its lofty mysticism, reach symbolism and philosophical content should be properly transferred. Of course you can not make a one to one parallel between original text and its Persian translation but you should try your best to keep salient characteristics of the text. Unfortunately most of papers and researches about Blake's poetry are about its English version not about process of its translation to other languages or comparing its translations with original text. Subtlety of its concepts, its big ties with Bible and Milton's Jerusalem, its spiritual visions, its ties with the writers own experiences throughout his life ,all in all make the text difficult to be translated. Actually Songs of Innocence and of Experience never been translated on its own in to Persian. In this paper the writer tries to investigate some discrepancies of original text with its Persian translation, the writer translates while knowing about some inevitable gaps from original text ,trying to reduce their effects on transferring content and structure. Three issues will be discussed here, in process of comparing original text with its translation: mysticism and symbolism, spelling and punctuation, writer's biography. I chose three sample poems and their translation for discussing each issue. Respectively: AH, SUNFLOWER from songs of experience, INTRODUCTION from songs of innocence and finally TO TIRZAH from Songs of Experience.

II. A SHORT GLANCE

William Blake (November 28, 1757–August 12, 1827) was an English poet, painter, and printmaker. William Blake was one of England's greatest poets. He combined both a lofty mysticism and an uncompromising awareness of the harsh realities of life. As a young boy he had a most revealing vision of seeing angels in the trees. These mystical visions returned throughout his life, leaving a profound mark on his poetry and outlook. William Blake was also particularly sensitive to cruelty. His heart wept at the site of man's inhumanity to other men and children. In many ways he was also of radical temperament, rebelling against the prevailing orthodoxy of the day (Pettinger, 2012).

Many of Blake's best poems are found in two collections: *Songs of Innocence* (1789) to which was added, in 1794, the *Songs of Experience* (unlike the earlier work, never published on its own). The complete 1794 collection was called *Songs of Innocence and Experience Showing the Two Contrary States of the Human Soul*. Broadly speaking the collections look at human nature and society in optimistic and pessimistic terms, respectively and Blake thinks that you need both sides to see the whole truth (Moore, 2004).

Blake as a poet and artist presented his deep spiritual meanings in *Songs of Innocence* and of *Experience* and it will be a fault not to consider the role of his engravings in presenting deep meanings. The 'experience' is often depicted as dark forest in which mankind finds itself as lonely and lost. And *The Paradise Bird* is the symbol of freedom and innocence in Blake's poetry. Both of these symbols are present in his engravings.

A. William Blake's Symbolism

One of the very important and known features of Blake's poetry is the use of symbols. In all of his poems there is the footprint of symbolism besides surface meaning. Though many believe that Blake's poems are written in a simple language, no one can deny the presence of deep meaning. However in order to catch deep meaning you should have knowledge about the use of symbols in Blake's poetry which have been classified into innocence symbols, energy symbols, sexual symbols, corruption symbols, oppression symbols and so on.

Blake is one of the known figures in Romantic Period (1785-1830). Romantic poets had idealistic view about human's spirit which will be spoiled with worldliness. One of very important themes in that time was revolution which means replacing industrial with natural life style. Poets at that time were playing the role of prophets who warned people against such happening. Many of the images used by Blake have their roots in bible. In "The Lamb" and "The Tyger" Blake tried to draw a picture of God's creation of meek and fierce creatures together. Blake believed in Transcendentalism which means God is present in all creatures. Romantic poets were considered as prophet poets and their poems were considered as their prophecy.

In case of symbolism we face with some Qs:

- How to translate symbols?
- Are we allowed to break symbols or not?
- Understanding of intended meaning: possible or impossible?
- Do we need to specify specific audience or all are capable of understanding target meaning?
- Symbols inserted in poems just compatible with English culture and context or they have equivalent semantic property in Persian?
- Is the intended meaning beyond this symbol understandable without breaking symbol?
- Do we have sun flowers as potent symbols for desire in Persian? Or we should replace it with another symbol with the same meaning behind?
- Is it possible to leave everyone having his own interpretation of this symbol?
- Is keeping the symbol in original form one aspect of being loyal to writer and text?

Sample: AH, SUNFLOWER from songs of experience:

"AH, SUNFLOWER

Ah, sunflower, weary of time,
Who countest the steps of the sun;
Seeking after that sweet golden clime
Where the traveller's journey is done;
Where the Youth pined away with desire,
And the pale virgin shrouded in snow,
Arise from their graves, and aspire
Where my Sunflower wishes to go! "

آه ، ای گل آفتاب

آه ای گل آفتاب، ای خسته ی زمانه،
ای که قدم های آفتاب را می شمری،
و در جستجوی آن فریبا دباری که به رنگ طلاست،
آنجا که سفرها به پایان می رسد.
آنجا که جوانی در تمنای رسیدنش به حسرت سوخته،
آنجا که چهره ی رنگ باخته و تن دست نخورده ی باکرگان هم آغوش برف ،
کفن پوش
از آرامگاه هایشان بر می خیزند،
و به آنجا می روند که آفتاب گردان من نیز تمنای آن دارد !

The sunflower is a symbol for desire. Based on Greek legend sunflower there was a woman who "pined away with desire after the Sun God" and after that she became a sunflower who moves based on the movements of the sun.

This poem talks about suppressed desires. As sunflower cannot reach sun and fulfill her desire the virgin cannot fulfill her desires because of society and its limitations. The Virgin is "pale" and "shrouded" and this depicts death and a half lived life. Her desires are buried now so the death will happen.

As I searched a lot in Persian literature there is no consensus about having sunflower the symbol for a desire which is pined away or not. They could not mention another symbol for this concept in Persian. But most of the teachers who were educated in Persian literature said sunflower can be a symbol for: worship, being proud, worshipping sun, sun, warmth, etc. some of them indirectly pointed at desire but it was not a known symbol for desire among Persian native speakers. Even in case of English native speakers it's not common as a symbol for desire, just those who have academic background in English literature or those who are familiar with Greek literature can fully realize the concept of this symbol in aforementioned poem. With replacing the symbol with another known symbol for desire in Persian literature not only we won't be loyal translators but also we miss Blake's philosophy behind this symbol even if there is a known single parallel symbol in Persian for that. So the best way in my sight is leaving readers to have their own interpretations. They should study about Blake's poems in Spark Notes or many other sites, they should care for their summary, analysis, key points... if they wish for full understanding. For those who don't know English unfortunately they will miss most of the philosophy and mystic mood of his poems, with knowing the fact that Blake is a mystic who writes with complicated symbols which seem simple at surface level. So these readers just can enjoy Persian translation which is unable to reach them to deep content. In my view Blake's readers need to be far beyond surface with great knowledge of literature, philosophy, Bible, Greek legends and salient features of Blake's works.

B. Blake's Original Spelling and Punctuation Marks

- Sometimes it's really hard to know how you should transfer punctuation marks from English text to its parallel translation in Persian. What should we do?

- Are they just the matter of writing and editing style or they have intended meaning behind (they are important in comprehension process)?

- How we can insert punctuations in parallel translation, after the exact word in original text or you can modify its place according to Persian and its specific writing and editing style?

Sample: TO TIRZAH, from Songs of Experience

TO TIRZAH

"Whate'er is born of mortal birth
Must be consumed with the earth,
To rise from generation free:
Then what have I to do with thee?
The sexes sprung from shame and pride,
Blowed in the morn, in evening died;
But mercy changed death into sleep;
The sexes rose to work and weep.
Thou, mother of my mortal part,
With cruelty didst mould my heart,
And with false self-deceiving tears
Didst blind my nostrils, eyes, and ears,
Didst close my tongue in senseless clay,
And me to mortal life betray.
The death of Jesus set me free:
Then what have I to do with thee?"

با تن خویش

هر آنچه فنا پذیر زاده می شود،
روزی زمین خواهد بلعید.
برای رهایی از این بودن ،
بگو با تو چه کنم؟
رستنی ها از غرور و شرم کمر خمر کرده اند،
در صبحگاه نفس هاشان به شماره افتاده،
و در غروب چشم فرو بسته اند.
اما بخشایش او مرگ را به خوابی مبدل کرد،
و آنها چشم گشودند،
برای تلاش، برای اشک ریختن.
ای تن
ای که قلبم را در قساوت نقش زده ای ،
ای که با اشک های دروغین و ترفندهایت،
بصیرت را از چشم ها ، گوش ها و وجودم ربوده ای،

و زبانم را چون تکه گلی بی خیر، بند آورده ای
 ای که مرا به حیاتی فانی تبعید کرده ای،
 زمانی که مسیح چشم فرو بندد رها خواهم شد،
 آن هنگام، بگو با تو چه کنم؟

If you take look at the original English text and compare it with Persian translation in most of the cases I changed the punctuation marks, I didn't want to transfer them to Persian translation although I knew they definitely bear special meanings, and Blake didn't use them without intended meaning behind. But with knowing the fact that Persian and English have different use of punctuation marks in some cases and what fits in English version does not fit in Persian text necessarily I chose some of them, trying to keep them in most of the cases. Although it's inevitable to move from one language to another without getting prepared for necessary changes in structure and form. Different languages use different forms and even punctuation marks to point at same meaning. I put the punctuation marks according to Persian writing and editing style.

C. *Knowing about Poet's Biography: A Key Factor*

According to Romantic criticism in order to have better criticism and also interpretation from the text (whether a prose or poem) its necessary to know about the biography of its writer or poet because individual's expression of reality far from established rules and conventions are essence of romantic works, although as Eliot says: its not always the case that all the literary works are based on real experiences of their owners. But in William Blake's poems sometimes without knowing about his life and career proper understanding never happens. In the poetry of Blake the influence of society on human life is evident. His aversion to contemporary English society found expression in 'The Songs of Innocence and Experience'. Also reflects the radical political ideas he had. The poverty he witnessed around him led to the outburst against the societal setup he lived in. William Blake poetry was also deeply influenced by the French Revolution. His preoccupation with the evil and good and his deep rooted religious and philosophical thoughts were depicted in his poetry all along. Ironical as it seems, Blake's contemporaries and critics did not pay much attention to his poetry in his lifetime and they preferred to admire his engravings. It was the publication of Alexander Gilchrist's biography in 1863 that improved his critical fortune.

William Blake embarked on the Poetic scene when the society was undergoing massive changes and being born in the era of transition helped him to pave the way for the Romantic poets. He treated subjects like politics, art, morality and religion with a strange concoction of mythological interpretations. In doing so he broke away from the boundaries of rationalism. William Blake quotes found in his famous work Songs of Innocence and of Experience corroborate this. He justified his art once by saying "What is Grand is necessarily obscure to Weak men. That which can be made Explicit to the Idiot is not worth my care".

Sample: INTRODUCTION from songs of innocence:

INTRODUCTION

"Piping down the valleys wild,
 Piping songs of pleasant glee,
 On a cloud I saw a child,
 And he laughing said to me:
 'Pipe a song about a Lamb!'
 So I piped with merry cheer.
 'Piper, pipe that song again.'
 So I piped: he wept to hear.
 'Drop thy pipe, thy happy pipe;
 Sing thy songs of happy cheer!'
 So I sung the same again,
 While he wept with joy to hear.
 'Piper, sit thee down and write
 In a book, that all may read.'
 So he vanished from my sight;
 And I plucked a hollow reed,
 And I made a rural pen,
 And I stained the water clear,
 And I wrote my happy songs
 Every child may joy to hear."

سر آغاز

نوابی پر ز شوق ، روان در میان دره ها،
 نواختن آوایی ز سرمستی،
 کودکی را می بینم سوار بر ابری،
 می خندد و به من می گوید:
 "بزن ترانه ای برای بره ها!
 و من می نوازم شادمانه به آوایی طرب انگیز."

"نیلبک زن، بار دگر بنواز ترانه ات را"
 ومن می نوازم، و او گوش می گیرد و می گیرد.
 "نی را رها کن، این ساز مستی را"
 و اکنون شادمانه بخوان ترانه هایت را!
 و من آن ترانه را دوباره می خوانم
 در میان لحظه هایی که او به شوق می گیرد.
 "نیلبک زن، بنشین و بنویس"
 در دفتری که روزی همه آن را خواهند خواند."
 ومن خواندم دوباره آن ترانه را
 در میانه ای که او می گریست به اشک شوق.
 "نیلبک زن، بنشین و بنویس"
 در دفتری که روزی همه آن را خواهند خواند."
 و تصویر او در جلوی چشمانم رنگ باخت و ناپدید شد.
 ساقه ای از نی می چینم
 قلمی روستایی می سازم
 و می نویسم ترانه های خوش را
 که شاید روزی هر کودکی را به شوق آورد...

In many of Blake's poems he has a shadow, being a foreboding sense of loss of innocence to come. In this instance, the shadow is when the piper makes a rural pen and writes his happy songs for children who may feel joy after hearing them. The piper represents experience, and the child on a cloud of course, is innocence. This child is eager to hear the experienced piper's tunes and songs, and so his fall of innocence is inevitable. So without knowing that William Blake had a younger brother, Robert, who died in childhood because of consumption it's actually hard to comprehend and translate some of his poems in his collections. He was Robert, Blake's dead brother who was "clapping its hands for joy on the ceiling." Blake believed that Robert's spirit never left him and visited him continuously. He even claimed that it was Robert who taught him the special method of printing that Blake used them in Songs of Innocence and Songs of Experience in his dreams.

As the translator when I read the original poems for the first time I understood nothing! I got the point after reading the first poem of Innocence songs, which is Introduction. When I asked my professor who is this boy on the cloud, she said you didn't read enough about Blake's life?! As I left for library and I studied different books and visited different pages on the net I came to know who this boy is! So even me as a person educated in English literature needed to study about Blake's life in order to get the gist let alone readers who don't know anything about English literature and a romantic poet like Blake. So if you want to enjoy the translation which is a poem itself and enjoy just the rhythm forgetting all about Blake you can just go through pages without introspecting in them. But if you read for Blake, read all and at last Persian translation.

III. CONCLUSION

While reading and translating Blake I felt a joy never experienced before in reading other religious books. It had a great impact on me. Blake was the one who wept for the sake of humanity, who was against inhumanity to children and other people. He never gets hopeless even in Songs of Experience in which he takes a pessimistic view; he always can see and feel the presence of God. God is who sits beside you and cries for you when you are like a lamb afraid of wolves. His unique symbols and mysticism throughout "Songs of Innocence and of Experience" made me think of Sohrab Sepehri and his deep philosophy and even Molana. Those who want to think about creation, God and the philosophy of life can enjoy Blake's poems exactly like in Sohrab Sepehri's poems, even more deeply. I know inevitably I missed some parts in the process of translating from punctuation to structure and form or even the concept which is intended by the writer himself. But I'm sure I reached at the point he wanted me to reach at, I know no one can be sure he got the same ideas that the writer had while writing a work but I really was swept up and actually away after reading this work and I think this is the ultimate goal of each writer. For translating each poem I studied the English summary, notes, analysis, and writer's notes and of course I used my talent in writing not as a poet but at least a versifier! I think Blake is not that mad man who others blame for different psychic problems but the one who got the gist of life, who came to know the philosophy of being and God, and everyone after finding about such subtlety might be mad. If you never felt for reading Bible or religious books I recommend you reading Blake, which is the gist of all.

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Discourse Models in Passion Drama: A Comparison of English Tragedies and Persian *Tazieh*

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Abstract—Looking at discourse in drama, this paper intends to deconstruct the cultural aspects of language used in this genre in two very different cultures, that is Western, British culture and Eastern, Persian culture, and examine the functions language serves across these cultures. Drama is selected for investigation since it is of the repartee genre and therefore allows a variety of language genres to fit in. In drama, the features which mark the social relations between two persons at the *character level* become messages about the characters at the *level of discourse* pertaining between author and reader/ audience. Of special interest are tragedies since they represent the human anguish and therefore require a lot of connotative meaning. In this study a sample of English tragedy, namely *Macbeth* and *King Lear*, and one from the Persian Passion Plays *Tazieh* (consolation), or *shabih* (simulated), namely *Hazrat AliAkbar* and *Hazrat Abbass*, are chosen for analysis. The rationale behind this selection is the similarity of motifs in writing them. For the purpose of analysis, the author has employed a model suggested by Gee (2005) in which he thinks of seven building tasks for language-in-use. The results show that although the origins of the tragedy in English and *Tazieh* in Persian differ greatly, they share many features, both from a discourse structure point of view and a literary perspective. The results confirm the view that cultural differences account for discourse tasks, not universal features of language, as depicted by the Western models of discourse.

Index Terms—discourse models, passion plays, language-in-use, drama, tragedy

I. INTRODUCTION

In reading world literature, we find interesting similarities and differences which if studied properly might lead to a deeper understanding of the universalities of human thought, thus leading to a better understanding of the nature of human discourse. One way to deal with such issues is to examine literary works of the same genre so that content can be analyzed despite structural differences.

Short (1989) believes that dramatic dialogue is similar to everyday dialogue; and that methods and techniques applicable to everyday conversation are appropriate to the analysis of dramatic discourse. However, the analyst has to take into consideration the fact that drama has an embedded structure wherein one level of a discourse is nested in another. This is because, in drama, the features which mark the social relations between two persons at the *character level* become messages about the characters at the *level of discourse* pertaining between author and reader/ audience (1989, p. 149). Such relationship can be diagrammed as follows:

In a similar fashion, Burton (1980, p. 7) argues that the relationship between everyday dialogue and dramatic dialogue is based on a set of linguistic material which could uncover such relationship; and that the application of those linguistic material could not be done by “discussing sentences, phrases, alliterations, polysyllable-words, and so on.... The only possible linguistic level to use as a basis for such analysis is discourse, or more specifically, is conversation.”

This study, therefore, intends to examine drama as a literary genre in English and Persian to see how tragedy in the Western sense of it, as best exemplified in some of Shakespeare’s works, and *Tazieh*, a Persian type of tragedy which seems to share a lot with Western passion plays, deal with human suffering. The focus of this study has been on two well-known tragedies by Shakespeare, namely *Macbeth* and *King Lear* on the one hand and two Persian works of *Tazieh*, typical of *Shiite* tradition, namely *Hazrat AliAkbar* and *Hazrat Abbass*.

The rationale behind the selection of these works of tragedy is that all four of them are looked at as representative samples of their genre in the West and among the *Shiite Moslems*. Ahmadzadeh (2007) has the following to say in this regard:

As two distinct forms of drama, tragedy and *Tazieh* are closely related to religion, myth, and rituals. This invites us to a comparative study where tragedy not only shares its origin with *Tazieh* but its structure and dramatic features. In a comparative study, however, we encounter differences too.

It is mainly the differences that has been the impetus here in this study since, according to Shi-Xu (2005, p. 3), “in western cultures, language is often used as an expression of valued individual reason and self-identity”, while “in eastern cultures, speech communication is generally held as a tool for maintaining relationship and harmony.”

In Arp and Johnson (2006, P. 1083) we find the following about what a tragedy is and what it is meant to do:

A tragedy, so Aristotle wrote, is the imitation in dramatic form of an action that is serious and complete, with incidents arousing pity and fear wherewith it effects a catharsis of such emotions.

Tragedy is a very ancient form of literature. It is the imitation of an action which is serious and complete. The aim of a tragedy is to rouse the emotions of sympathy and fear in the soul of its spectator. Tragedy should have literary decorations like poetry, philosophy and humour. It should be in the form of action, and not be narrative. It should also have the appropriate length to be acted on a stage. Most definitions of this type are borrowed from Aristotle, the Greek philosopher.

Tragedy has a high educative value. It makes man 'sadder and wiser' as Coleridge in *The Rhyme of The Ancient Mariner* has phrased. The combined effect of the emotions of pity and fear through which the spectator's mind goes through purges and purifies his mind, which process, in Greek, is denoted by the word Catharsis. Modern medicine has borrowed this word to mean discharge of emotions as a pressure valve.

The word tragedy has been defined differently depending on the context of use. The following are some examples:

1. *a*: a medieval narrative poem or tale typically describing the downfall of a great man *b*: a serious drama typically describing a conflict between the protagonist and a superior force (as destiny) and having a sorrowful or disastrous conclusion that elicits pity or terror *c*: the literary genre of tragic dramas

2. *a*: a disastrous event : CALAMITY *b*: MISFORTUNE

3. tragic quality or element (Merriam Webster Dictionary).

Similarly, the word *Tazieh*, with its different writings, has been defined differently in different contexts of use. The following are some examples:

Tazieh is a type of religious and national dramatic musical performance with several elements such as music (vocal and instrumental), recitation, poetry, narration and drama. Literally, the term *tazieh* means mourning rituals held in commemoration of deceased dear ones, but it refers specifically to a type of religious performance with particular rituals and traditions (Massoudieh, 1978). The primary theme of *Tazieh* is the tragedy of Karbala.

From these very limited citations, one can infer that despite the apparent differences, there are several common features between the two. The elements of poetry, narration, and, more importantly, the dramatic features of both types, are what this study intends to deal with as focal points of comparison. A very important feature of tragedy, that is its role as a catharsis, is probably the most important of its shared features with *Tazieh*. This point will be taken up later as the main drive of the present study which is to show that even in the case of a very common human experience, such as emotions and sympathy, cultural issues make the ultimate difference.

The most significant common features of popular performing arts, including *Tazieh*, are the following:

1. The scene is located amidst the people;
2. Their origins lie in the beliefs and perceptible factors of the people's lives;
3. The actors are not professional, in the sense that they do not earn a living from these performances;
4. The performances are simple and unostentatious;
5. The performances do not follow written texts, although they fall within determined general frameworks. In other words, the overall framework of the performances is determined, but the dialogues, as well as some secondary scenes, are improvised (with the exception of ritual declamations);
6. The actors come from the lower strata of the society;
7. The actors do not consider themselves apart from the audience and communicate with it in simple terms, even addressing it and requesting its acquiescence in some scenes.

These features are seemingly far from those of Shakespeare's tragedies which are rooted in Renaissance tragedy. Renaissance tragedy derives less from medieval tragedy (which randomly occurs as Fortune spins her wheel) than from the Aristotelian notion of the tragic flaw, a moral weakness or human error that causes the protagonist's downfall. Unlike classical tragedy, however, it tends to include subplots and comic relief. From Seneca, Latin tragedies in which Fortune and her wheel play a prominent role, early Renaissance tragedy borrowed the "violent and bloody plots, resounding rhetorical speeches, the frequent use of ghosts ... and sometimes the five-act structure" (*Norton Anthology of English Literature*, 6th ed., vol. I, p. 410). In his greatest tragedies (e.g. *Hamlet*, *Othello*, *King Lear* and *Macbeth*), Shakespeare transcends the conventions of Renaissance tragedy, imbuing his plays with a timeless universality.

Arp and Johnson (2006, P. 1084) believe:

Aristotle had important insights into the nature of some of the greatest tragedies and that, rightly or wrongly interpreted, his conceptions are the basis for a kind of archetypal notion of tragedy that has dominated critical thought.

The structure of Shakespearean tragedy can be summarized in the following:

The first act is the introduction, where you would meet all the characters. The second is where *complications arise*. The third is the rising action where things leading up to the climax happen. The fourth is the climax or most suspenseful point. Then comes the falling action where everything is coming to an end. Finally, the catastrophe which usually results in the death of Shakespeare's hero.

One common feature of tragedy and *Tazieh* in terms of structure is the way they are named. Tragedies are often named after the hero, for instance *Othello*, *Macbeth*, etc. In *Tazieh*, similarly, the name of the main character is adopted, thus: *Aliakbar*, *Hazrat Abbass*, *Imam Hossein*, etc. would be the name you identify the *Taziehs* with.

II. METHOD OF ANALYSIS

To compare the discourse structure and theme of Western type of tragedy and *Tazieh*, Gee's(2005) model of discourse tasks was adopted. This model is obviously Western in nature; however, since it looks at discourse from a functional point of view, it could be employed as a tool for analysis for the time being. The author is aware of the fact that Western tools cannot account for all discourses and tries to show the need for what Shi-Xu (2005) calls a "culturally pluralist, in particular in-between-cultural, approach to language, communication and discourse." The tentative exploitation of Gee's model may be justified once compared with many other models in this area which are either ideological in nature or globalized with the assumption that Western culture fits all cases.

This model presents a framework including seven different tasks for discourse as follows:

Task one: significance

How is this piece of language being used to make certain things significant or not and in what ways?

Task two: activities

What activity or activities is this piece of language being used to enact (i.e., get others to recognize as going on)?

Task three: identities

We use language to get recognized.

What identity or identities is this piece of language being used to enact (i.e. get others to recognize as operative)?

Task four: relationships

What sort of relationship or relationships is this piece of language seeking to enact with others (present or not)?

Task five: politics

(The distribution of social goods) What perspectives on social goods is this piece of language communicating (i.e. what is being communicated as to what is taken to be "natural", "right", "good", "correct", "proper", "appropriate", "valuable", the way things are, the way things ought to be, high status, low status, like me or not like me?

Task six: connections

How does this piece of language connect or disconnect things. How does it make one thing relevant or irrelevant to another?

Task seven: sign system and knowledge

How does this piece of language privilege or disprivege specific sign systems (e.g. Persian vs. English, etc.) or different ways of knowing and believing or claims to knowledge and belief?

The Data:

Specific examples of discourse segments in the four works under scrutiny were cited to compare and contrast the role of each task. To do so, the researcher started with the introduction of each of the four works under study.

The Discourse structure in the Opening Acts of Tragedy and *Tazieh*

In Shakespeare's tragedy, the first act is the introduction, where you would meet all the characters. This part is significant since the audience will first have to know about the characters to appreciate the theme. The function of the introduction, therefore, is what seems to be normally the basic part of the structure of any drama. In *Tazieh*, however, this function does not seem essential since the specific audience as well as their previous familiarity with the time and the theme of the performance as represented in the name of it and the time of staging which coincides with the relevant main character will define this purpose. For instance, in the case of the two *Taziehs* in question, they are normally performed on the eve of their martyrdom, that is the eighth and ninth of *Moharram*, or what is called *Tasoua*. The discourse task will, therefore in the introductory part of the tragedy in the Western form of it follows a systematic order which doesn't seem proper in the structure of *Tazieh*. The following examples are samples of discourse used in the four works in question:

Macbeth: Act 1, Scene 1

A desert place.

Thunder and lightning. Enter three Witches

First Witch

When shall we three meet again In thunder, lightning, or in rain?

Second Witch

When the hurlyburly's done, When the battle's lost and won.

Third Witch

That will be ere the set of sun.

First Witch

Where the place?

Second Witch

Upon the heath.

Third Witch

There to meet with Macbeth.

First Witch

I come, Graymalkin!

Second Witch

Paddock calls.

Third Witch

Anon.

ALL

Fair is foul, and foul is fair:

Hover through the fog and filthy air.

This introductory act prepares the grounds for the theme of the story and presents a sketch of the type of characters the audience should expect to witness in the play.

King Lear Act 1, Scene 1:

King Lear's Place

Enter KENT, GLOUCESTER, and EDMUND

KENT

I thought the king had more affected the Duke of Albany than Cornwall.

GLOUCESTER

It did always seem so to us: but now, in the division of the kingdom, it appears not which of the dukes he values most; for equalities are so weighed, that curiosity in neither can make choice of either's moiety.

KENT

Is not this your son, my lord?

GLOUCESTER

His breeding, sir, hath been at my charge: I have so often blushed to acknowledge him, that now I am brazed to it.

KENT

I cannot conceive you.

GLOUCESTER

Sir, this young fellow's mother could: whereupon she grew round-wombed, and had, indeed, sir, a son for her cradle ere she had a husband for her bed. Do you smell a fault?

Enter KING LEAR, CORNWALL, ALBANY, GONERIL, REGAN, CORDELIA, and Attendants

KING LEAR

Attend the lords of France and Burgundy, Gloucester.

GLOUCESTER

I shall, my liege.

As obvious, the two introductory scenes in Macbeth and King Lear both deal clearly with the presentation of the main characters and at the same time give some hints on the theme of the drama. However, as evidenced in the next two examples from *Tazieh*, this may not be said to be the case.

Hazrat Abbas:

زینب:

عباس علمدارم نور بصر زینب

ترسم که شود نیلی معجر به سر زینب

تا سایه تو باشد ما پرده نشین باشیم

بعد از تو به غارت رفت معجر ز سر زینب

ای ماه بنی هاشم خورشیم لقا عباس

ای نور دل حیدر شمع شهدا عباس

English Translation:

Zeinab, Imam Hossein's sister, who is now in charge of the women in the family, is addressing Abbas, who is the strongest man in charge of protecting the privacy of the family:

Oh my Abbas, the Emblem Bearer, the sight of my vision, I am afraid I will have to be wearing black in mourning for you, While you are with us, we are safe in our privacy, After you, I shall be robbed of my head cover, Oh you Moon of the Bani Hashem, good-looking Abbas, Oh you the light of Heidar's heart, the candle of the martyrs.

What can be gathered from these four pieces of discourse in the introduction to the four plays is the significant difference between the patterns of tasks they accomplish in tragedy and *Tazieh*. The significance of the discourse in introducing the characters in tragedy on the one hand, and the fact that there is no need to do so in *Tazieh*, is a drastic difference in type of organization in the discourse structures used in the four works being scrutinized. The rise of complication as seen in the second acts of the Western tragedy, is in fact already there in *Tazieh* where the audience is familiar with the theme and there is no expectation for new developments. *Tazieh*, in fact, represents the ideological *Shiite* ritual which is not telling a story but only performed to provide the necessary atmosphere for mourning. The cultural element of exaggeration in this respect might seem similar in both Western tragedy and *Tazieh*, but it plays a different role in each, as will be shown later.

Identity in the discourse of tragedy and *Tazieh*:

Another task in the discourse of the drama is how it is used to represent the identity of the characters. The question here is:

What identity or identities is this piece of language being used to enact (i.e. get others to recognize as operative)?

The sort of language used in terms of music, metaphor, imagery, meter, rhyme, sound patterns, sonnet form, ethos tone, simile, rhythm, and other rhetorical features are also a discourse factors to be looked at here.

The following are representative examples of language pieces used in the four works with significant differences in rhetorical features:

Macbeth:

Many of the speeches in the plays of William Shakespeare are written in blank verse. The following is an example in *Macbeth*:

Tomorrow, and tomorrow, and tomorrow, Creeps in this petty pace from day to day, To the last syllable of recorded time; And all our yesterdays have lighted fools The way to dusty death. Out, out, brief candle! Life's but a walking shadow, a poor player That struts and frets his hour upon the stage And then is heard no more: it is a tale Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury, Signifying nothing.

The piece of language quoted above quite clearly identifies the theme of the play which is absurdity of the type of life pictured in *Macbeth*. Compare this with the following a similar passage from *King Lear*:

King Lear:

Blow, winds, and crack your cheeks! rage! blow!

You cataracts and hurricanoes, spout Till you have drench'd our steeples, drown'd the cocks! You sulphurous and thought-executing fires, Vaunt-couriers to oak-cleaving thunderbolts, Singe my white head! And thou, all-shaking thunder, Smite flat the thick rotundity o' the world! Crack nature's moulds, an germens spill at once, That make ingrateful man.

As mentioned earlier, most of Shakespeare's speeches were in blank verse: Unrhymed verse having a regular meter, usually of iambic pentameter. The language of the antagonists in *Tazieh* is similarly in rhymed verse of iambic pentameter. This should be compared with language of the protagonists which is full of imagery and emotion. Take the two examples below from *Ibne SA'd*, the antagonist, and *AliAKbar*, the protagonist, in this case the discourse introducing evil and good in two different ways:

In the Tazieh of Hazrat Abbas:

بن سعد:

اي شهنشاھي كه چون بر صدر زين ماواکني
با اشاره رستخيز محشري برپا کني
سيد قرآن نسب طاها لقب ياسين حسب
بايد اينک سرخط مافوق ما امضاء کني
يا که بنما بيعت ما را ز جان و دل قبول
يا که عباست روان بر جانب ميدان کني
که هل من مبارز مني حسين تشنه جگر
مبارزي بفرست يا حسين سوي لشکر

English Translation:

Ibne Sa'd (the commander of the villain army fighting against Imam Hossein) addressing the Imam:

You the King of Kings who when riding your horse, With one hint you can start a resurrection, You Noble descendant of the Holy Qura'n, of sacred origin, worthy of holy verses, You must now sign a peace treaty with our superior, You either accept our superiority, Or send your Abbas to fight us, Is there a worthy fighter from your army, Oh you tired with thirst? Send you a fighter, Oh Hossein to us!

As the tone of the discourse clearly shows, the antagonist is using a threatening voice which although rhymed to some extent lacks the beauty and feeling of the protagonist, the holy character in *Tazieh*, *Hazrat Abbas* in this case. However, it is interesting to note that despite the threat in the discourse, the words are still respectful towards the holy characters. He calls them King of Kings! Noble and sacred! This feature of the discourse in the two works being compare is of significance since it carries a cultural load, again ideological in *Tazieh* but not in Western tragedy.

Now compare the antagonist's speech with that of the protagonist's in the following:

عباس:

اي ولي حضرت خلاق رب العالمين
اي پناه بي کسان بي شرمي اعدا بين
يا علي چندان مسافت از نجف تا کوفه نيست
سر برار از قبر ما را بي سروسامان بين
ما در اين صحرا غريب، بت پرستان مي کشند
انتقام نهروان از شاه مظلومان بين

English translation:

Abbas, the protagonist, the Holy character addressing Imam Hossein:

Oh you sign of God, the Creator of the two worlds:

Oh you supporter of the lonely, behold the ruthlessness of the enemy, Oh Ali, it is not a long from Kufe to Najaf, Rise from your tomb and observe our helplessness, We are not at home in this desert and the idle worshipers are trying, To take revenge of Nahravan on the King of the Oppressed.

The speaker's words are now most appealing and passionate in voice. At the same time that he is speaking of loneliness, his words are melodic and full of sympathy and emotion.

It is the same in the following quotation from Aliakbar:

علي اكبر:

اي زمين كربلا تو حال اكبر را ببين
 كودكان را تشنه لب اندر سر خاك ببين
 آمده بام حسين اندر زمين كربلا
 دور او را لشگر بي حد و مر يكسر ببين

English Translation:

Alakbar, son of Imam Hossein, the protagonist in this case, is addressing the audience indirectly by talking to the Land of Karbala:

Oh, you Land of Karbakala, behold Akbar's situation:

Children thirsty on the dirt! My father Hoosein has come to Karbala, Surrounded by the innumerable army of the enemy!

Hazrat Aliakbar is in some kind of soliloquy in which he arouses the sympathy of the audience who at this point start crying to show their love for Hossein and their hatred for the antagonist, Ibne Sa'd.

This kind of soliloquy is very common in *Tazieh*, as it is in the Western tragedy. Shakespeare's plays are also notable for their use of soliloquies, in which a character makes a speech to him- or herself so the audience can understand the character's inner motivations and conflict. In Shakespearian soliloquy in early modern drama, a person on the stage speaks to himself or herself, as characters in a fiction speaking in character; this is an occasion of self-address. Furthermore, as pointed out by Hirsh (2003) Shakespearian soliloquies and "asides" are audible in the fiction of the play, bound to be overheard by any other character in the scene unless certain elements confirm that the speech is protected.

The dramatic effect of soliloquy in *Tazieh* and tragedy, therefore, seem to serve similar functions or discourse tasks. However, the similarity is only linguistic, not in effect which is arousing sympathy in *Tazieh*, and preparing the grounds for the upcoming events in Western tragedy.

Task six, according to the model presented in this study, indicates:

Task six: connections

How does this piece of language connect or disconnect things. How does it make one thing relevant or irrelevant to another?

This task seems to be what soliloquies accomplish in tragedies. However, the connection in *Tazieh* is of a different type. That is, in *Tazieh* the relevance is based on the audiences' previous awareness of the incidents, while in the tragedy, the audience is only introduced to the following incidents. In fact, soliloquies function as foreshadowing in tragedies, but as re-enforcers in *Tazieh*.

In the area of sign systems, that is English and Persian, the two types of drama in question show certain similarities. However, because of the nature of allusion in Persian which is highly ideological and at the same time loaded with complements, the seventh discourse task, namely sign system and knowledge, is of great significance. Task seven reads as follows:

How does this piece of language privilege or disprive specific sign systems (e.g. Persian vs. English, etc.) or different ways of knowing and believing or claims to knowledge and belief?

For Shakespeare, "natural" behavior includes love for one's family and the loyalty between subject and liege lord; mistreating kinsmen or betraying one's rightful leader is "unnatural". This naturalness or unnaturalness is shown in language used in Macbeth. When authors refer to other great works, people, and events, it's usually not accidental. One of the allusions refers to King Neptune, ruler of the seas.

"Will all great Neptune's ocean wash this blood clean from my hand?" (Act 2, Scene 2). There are also allusions in Act 1 scene 2 lines 40-41 the Golgotha reference refers to the Bible - specifically Matthew 27:33

Act 1 Scene 1 line 12 this doesn't really seem like much at all, but it refers to the Bible also, a mixture of Good and Evil, and how Jesus Christ, while the Crucifixion was bad, helped us to live on.

In King Lear, when Cordelia proclaims "O dear father, / It is thy business that I go about" (4.4.24-25), echoing a biblical passage in which Christ says, "I must go about my father's business" (Luke 2:49). This allusion reinforces Cordelia's piety and purity and consciously links her to Jesus Christ, who, of course, was a martyr to love, just as Cordelia becomes at the play's close.

These allusions are only samples of how Shakespeare employs the knowledge of the readers of the sign, English language, to transfer his message. The following quotations from the two works of *Tazieh* show a similar task of discourse.

Abbass is addressing his brother Imam Hossein in the following referring to him as Quoranic codes, as holy characters, as mythological and metaphysical figures:

عباس:

اسلام اي در اذل شيرازه بند كلف و نون
 بهر تعظيم تو خسم پشت سپهر نيلگون
 السلام اي عرش دوش مصطفي ماواي تو

السلام اي آسمان هفتمين شد جاي تو
السلام اي مهد جنابزات جناب جبرئيل
چيست فرمانت بفرما تو به اين عبد ذليل

English Translation:

Hail to you O the initiator of the Great Being, The world bows you in respect, Hail to you O you whose place is the shoulders of the Holy Prophet, Hail to you O you who are from the Seventh Heaven, Hail to you O you whose caretaker is Gabriel, Tell me what you decree to this humble servant of yours!

As can be seen, almost all references are allusions, rather than just plain language.

In another quotation, *Imam Hossein* is responding *Abbass* in the same type of language:

امام حسين:

عليك من بتو اي نور چشم اشرف ناس
يگانه گوهر بحر شجاعت اي عباس

Hail to you, O you the apple of the eye of the Best of the Human Beings, The only Pearl of the Ocean of Courage, You Abbass!

In both Western tragedy and in *Tazieh*, the discourse task of allusion is a means of privileging the sign system, as well as the knowledge and belief of the reader/audience.

III. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

If Shakespeare's tragedies are to be interpreted as Greek tragedies, the major difference will still hold between *Tazieh* and Tragedy. From this point of view, *Tazieh* seems more like Greek tragedy. In the study of tragedy of these two nations, Iran and Greece, we face two distinct philosophical and social views. *Tazieh* is formed by an external conflict between two forces of power: good and evil. On the contrary, the conflict that forms the Greek tragedies is between men and gods. While the struggle in *Tazieh* finds a socio-political aspect, in Greek plays gods are the central subject. Consequently, other elements such as oppression, innocence, and nobility of the heroes receive a different interpretation since determinism is treated differently.

The present study, however, was concerned more with the type of discourse employed in the tragedies rather than their very basic philosophical rationales, although that was an ever present element in the discussion of the similarities and differences since it is the key element in the choice of discourse.

From the seven tasks of discourse compared and contrasted in the study, one can conclude that despite apparent similarities, the two types of drama, that is Western tragedy and *Tazieh*, show significant differences in function. The following is a possible interpretation of these significant differences.

1. Discourse task one, in which the language used is supposed to make certain things significant or insignificant and the way this is done, seems to be functioning differently in tragedy and *Tazieh*. Take the function of language used in soliloquy, for instance. In tragedy, soliloquy is used to provide some foregrounding for the forthcoming events. However, in *Tazieh*, this is not the case since the audience is already aware of what is going to happen. In fact soliloquy in *Tazieh* is solely a technique to heighten emotions in the audience by making references to the plight of martyrs in Karbala.

2. The type of language, specifically the rhetorical features of the language used, also serve different functions in tragedy and *Tazieh*. The protagonist and antagonist speeches in the two types of drama have little in common. As previously stated, the antagonist in *Tazieh* uses language which is not very melodic and pleasant in tone. Although the structure is similar, the antagonist usually ejaculates war calls. The interesting point, though, is that despite its lack of melody and its rough tone, it is never impolite, never insulting, never without respectful address terms. The reason seems to be the ideological taboos governing the language of the writer: Nothing justifies the use of offensive language towards the off-springs of the Holy Prophet! Compare this with the language used by the antagonists in tragedy in which the rival is described as evil and depicted as negatively as possible.

3. The relationship between characters in drama is another main function of the language used in their discourse. This is another area where the discourse function in tragedy and *Tazieh* differ significantly. The bombastic language used to describe each other, *the apple of one's eyes, the sunshine of the family, the strongest of the men, etc.* is not uncommon in both. The difference, however, is in the degree to which such language is used and the people who use it. In tragedy, the positive emotional expressions are used by people either in love or very intimate ones, or normally between parents and children. In *Tazieh*, on the other hand, much more emotional expressions and metaphors are used, even by negative characters in addressing positive ones.

In conclusion, the findings of the present study seem to suggest that discourse in tragedy shares several features with *Tazieh*, though not very often identical in the two. The similarities between the discourse used in tragedy and *Tazieh*, in turn, seem to be more related with the origins of the human thought, rather than the genre of the works. The tasks mentioned for tragedy and *Tazieh* may be either planned by the authors based on some kind of prototype, as is the case in Shakespeare's tragedies, or just an expression of the writer's inner feelings. In the case of *Tazieh*, no work of this type has been produced by people of other ideologies. That is, in the history of *Tazieh*, not a single one has been produced by non-Shiite believers. This specific characteristic has given *Tazieh* what makes this type of drama unique in

the world. It is ideological in theme, in language, in setting, in plot, in characterization, in structure, even in imagery and metaphors. The allusions are ideological in nature too.

Western Tragedy, on the other hand, has very few cases of ideological language use, even though the language is sometimes misleading. However, the major impetus in both Western Tragedy and *Tazieh*, as the Eastern type of the genre, is cultural issues. What makes *Tazieh* unique, in particular is the *Shiite* ideology rooted in the Islamic tradition of *Imama* and Persian beliefs of innocence in the descendants of the Holy Prophet, *Mohammad*.

What seems to be missing, or at least forgotten in the academic circles, is that we need a return to our own cultural values in analyzing discourse. This is absolutely necessary since it helps us build our own models in this area and do not always depend on the Western solutions. This paper is hoped to have presented one way to start doing so.

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Translators Training: Teaching Programs, Curricula, Practices*

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Abstract—This paper focuses on the investigation of translators' training programs, specifically on the statistical analysis of Canadian universities. Main issues include the current practices and sources of innovation, research problems, methodology, and research findings. As part of the big project undertaking, the current results are on the primary stage. Translation teaching in a textual and contextual vacuum may still have a place in preparing translators of the future if it is accepted for a formative academic exercise and used to reinforce the acquisition of certain structures and vocabulary.

Index Terms—translation teaching, program, curriculum, practice

I. TRAINING TRANSLATORS: CURRENT PRACTICES AND SOURCES OF INNOVATION

Translation as an activity leading to a product has a tradition reaching far back to the beginnings of recorded history and beyond that to the oral tradition. It has always been essential for trading and also a fundamental component of classical education. It was not, however, until the second half of the twentieth century that developments in Translation Studies led to a more systematic view of the attempts to develop a theory of translation. There has been a boom in institutional training of translators and interpreters since the mid-twentieth century and in particular since the 1980s. This also led to a survey of the way in which it could be best taught, in order to enhance the different skills acquired in one or more foreign languages and cultures, in relation to and in conjunction with the mother tongue, for the purpose of more effective communication. The term 'training' and 'education' are both used in the literature and reflect some of the diversity of approaches to the subject. In very general terms, 'training' tends to be preferred by those who adopt a more vocational or market-driven approach to developing translator and interpreter skills, while 'education' is favored by those who situate the acquisition of these skills in the broader social context of higher or tertiary education, although this split is not entirely clear-cut. The term 'pedagogy' is sometimes used to encompass both approaches.

Professional translation has been taught at the University of Ottawa since 1936, at McGill University of Ottawa since 1936, at McGill University in Montreal since 1943, and at the Université de Montreal since 1951. In 1968, the translation section of the linguistics department at the Université de Montreal offered the first full-time three year programme leading to a degree in translation. Soon after, the degree became known as a BA specialization. Translation pedagogy flourished in the 1970s right across the country, but especially in Quebec and Ontario, universities began to offer translator training programs.

The rather fixed continental traditions in the field of interpreter training are in stark contrast with the liberal educational culture in the United Kingdom. A number of Universities offer translator training, but the organization and emphasis of training varies so much between different universities that it is difficult to schematize the British system. This liberal attitude also prevails to a large extent in the organization of translator training in non-Francophone parts of Canada. As the courses are mostly short (one or two years) training programs, students must possess the necessary language skills before entering the program.

In China, the history of training translators to meet social and governmental needs can be traced back to the Yuan Dynasty. After the establishment of the Chinese Republic in 1911, there was no fixed policy regarding translator training, and most of the practitioners were self-trained. Under the People's Republic of China, in-service training was provided to those chosen to work in foreign affairs-related government departments. In Hong Kong, some basic training has been made available to university students in Hong Kong since the mid-1980s. The first university degree course in translation offered by a Chinese community was the BA in Translation started in 1974 by the University of Hong Kong.

Translation courses in the Mainland China were fully integrated into the university system and linked to academic departments. The wide variety of forms is that programs can take in the undergraduate courses from the third year to the fourth year. An MA course in Translation has been running at the Beijing Foreign Studies University in 1950s. In 2007, the first university degree course in translation, the BA in Translation, started, together with the professional training

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MTI program in Translation. 13 Universities were selected across the China as the first group to open the MTI program. The growing need for professional translators has now led to the founding and expansion of programs in an increasing number of universities. By September 2010, the number has amounted to 158.

II. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

This research aims at investigating the state of the art in translator training programs, curricula and practices in the postgraduate level (the MA program) at Fifteen Universities and Translator and Interpreter (T&I) Institutions in the UK, Canada, the Mainland China and Hong Kong, and assesses the degree to which their educational and professional goals are equipped to meet the challenge that perspective translators increasingly have to face in a rapidly evolving world. The survey is to observe and report on the situations where translation is taught as an end in itself rather than as a means of learning a foreign language. Centers of higher education, especially modern language faculties with established professionally oriented translation courses, have been included in the present survey to reflect the changing situation of translation pedagogy.

One of the main aims of the present survey is to shed some light on how the teaching of translation has adapted to the changing conditions of the professional world and to the demands facing translators today. What emerged is a general trend on the part of the majority of institutions to introduce a translation training component into their curricula to satisfy not only market needs but also the growing demands within higher education for professionally oriented degrees. Much still to be done before the teaching of translation in higher education can really be said to be in line with real-world criteria and before all the institutions that have a translation component in their curricular accept the fact that training translators constitutes a serious pedagogical challenge.

In addition, the research to present a methodology for discussion, to share experience and good practice and to offer individual, tried and tested teaching methods for discussion, as well as in order to permit further testing and evaluation of the wider implications. It is thus expected that the research outcomes will contribute to the on-going discussion of the nature, development and assessment of translation competence, to the trainers, and scholars, student of translation, and decision-makers in academic settings. It is hoped that the research will also raise awareness on the part of translation initiators and users. The research also seeks to engage the interest if those Translation Studies scholars who focus on the theoretical aspects of translation to take up the challenge from their own perspectives and contribute to the development of a specific curricular which can then inform a wider audience of translation scholars, translator trainers and trainee translators.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

(1) What does the overall translation program include in each School / Center (of / for translation studies), enrollment requirements, language proficiency, credits, assessment, etc.?

(2) How are translation modules and courses well incorporated in the curriculum design to maximize teaching efficiency? How is the curriculum designed, evaluated and improved according to students' translation competence, the social and cultural development as well as market demands? Are the courses a combination of theory and practice that will allow students to hone their translation skills?

(3) What are the particular translation teaching methods and techniques applied in class and after class? (It depends on specific languages involved in the class and student language proficiency.) How is the teaching procedure and settings arranged in class?

(4) Are there any language support programs provided? If yes, what are they? Are there any cooperations between the School and local, governmental translation sectors and agencies in the case that students have practical experiences? Is it a compulsory requirement in the program?

(5) How is the students' (translators') translation competence finally assessed? What's the theoretical and analytical basis of such assessment?

(6) What kind of jobs will the students be involved after their graduation, academically or what else? Is the translation practice and experience in local translation agencies helpful in job - hunting?

(7) Are there any staff/instructor training programs particular to those who teach translation practice? How and how often do they interact with their counterparts in and out Canada, seminars or other ways?

IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Although much has been written on translator training, empirical research into training is arguably still in its infancy. Much of the empirical research carried out in the field of Translation Studies used inductive, theoretical and observational methods, which was heavily criticized by Toury (1995:1).

This research, however, incorporates seven main stages of the cycle through which the research process develops. It develops as follows: there is a problem, which leads to a hypothesis, which is the basis for a research design, which is followed by a measurement, data collection, data analysis, a conclusion and a possible generalization, which in turn may pose another problem, which lead to another hypothesis, and so on. At each stage, the process interacts with and is interdependent upon a theory (of translation, in this case), located at the center of the research process. The project

overall is a qualitative and quantitative study based on theoretical analysis and statistical analysis coupled with a structured gathering of data from case studies and semi-structured questionnaires and interviews.

Questionnaire includes initial cross-section comparative questions aimed to contextualize the institution in terms of the number of teaching staff, number of student, the translator training programs, how translation -specific courses offered , academic courses on course content and structure (it greatly verified), classroom management, the profile of the translator envisaged, the integration of professional criteria (attitudes to translation-related activities, general/specialized translation, literary/sci-tech translation, theoretical components, authentic assignments and technological aids).

V. KEY ISSUES TO BE COVERED IN THE RESEARCH

Teaching translation in a textual and contextual vacuum may still have a place in preparing translators of the future if it is accepted for what it is: namely, a formative academic exercise, used for instance, to reinforce the acquisition of certain structures and vocabulary. All-round translator education requires greater sensibility to broader communicative purposes. As Neubert (1989:5) has pointed out: "the study of translation and, in particular, the academic institutions where the practice of translation is taught do not exist in an intellectual ivory tower. They serve social needs." coming to terms with this basic concept is a crucial step toward adequately meeting the pedagogical challenge of training translators for the future and of ensuring more effective cross-cultural communication.

Current training practices discuss professional translating, fields of training, organization and content of courses, organizations of translating training in the fifteen cases, academic profile, and translation as prerequisite

Pedagogy translator training includes organization of classes, subject taught, course structure and workload and admission criteria, the minimum requirements for eligibility to a degree course in translation, whether an institution has entrance exam course in translation was in important background information for assessing course structure and content since much teaching methodology and class management depends in the numbers if students attending , again national education polices condition choice.

Question on the distribution of teacher-student contact hours and hours devotes to private study in terms of overall study effort hours. An important component of this section of the questionnaire is the balance between translation activities and translation-related activities in the course content insofar as it provides insights into how real-life criteria oriented toward market needs are integrated into the curriculum. The questions on translation activities are cross-referenced with a question which specifically asked whether the institutions integrated academic and professional criteria within their course content. If the answer is yes, they will be asked whether the professional criteria determine the type of text chosen as a translation assignment and whether information regarding the circumstances that initiates the translation process and all the relevant soci-cultural parameters was given as an integral part of the assignment. The aim of all these questions is again to gauge how far real-life factors are accounted for. A translation activity should reflect 'the realities of future professional needs' (Snell-Horny 1992:19), even within the setting of a training program if it is to be viewed as an authentic task.

The various institutions' position in relation to academic and professional goals will emerge from the settings of teaching. In that case whether the institutions offer both generalist and specialized courses and whether specialized courses are elective or compulsory. Closely linked to this issue is the question of how much scope is allotted to literary and/ or scientific-technical translation and whether these areas are considered as part of a continuum of text typologies or as distinct and even opposing or mutually-exclusive curricula.

This part of the research examines the translation teaching methodology adopted by the various institutions and discusses the rationale underlying features such as classroom arrangement and dynamics, attitudes toward translation and translation-related activities, the use of translation aids, and the availability of generalist and specialist courses all presuppose certain conceptions of translation and translating. More importantly, they are indicative of whether translation is envisaged as the main learning goal and what constitutes translation competence. The issue of translation activities in a professional perspective has to be discussed. The focus then lays on the methodological details of classroom dynamics, the use of translation aids within a professional framework, the theoretical and practical components in translation courses, and the way these aspects of translation teaching connect with translation competence.

The way translation is taught has important implications for students' future professions as translating is no longer an activity that is carried out in isolation. Professional translators generally contact their fellow translators and subject experts on-line and those working in or for translation agencies exchange views and information not only with their peers but also with project supervisor. The classroom dynamics that are applicable to a foreign language-learning environment, the latter two reflect a translation-specific pedagogical approach and regard the status and reliability of the translations produced by the students

Translation scholars agree that translators need to possess two basic kinds of theoretical knowledge: an operative or procedural kind of knowledge by which they know how to translate and declarative or factual knowledge which shapes and models their procedural activity and sets their skill and expertise within a systematic framework. Together, declarative and procedural knowledge enable translators to tackle the multifarious fields of discourse that come their way without necessarily having specific content-based knowledge and to undertake the problem-predicting and

problem-solving processes that constitute the mainstay of any translation training course. Procedural knowledge or, in other words, a theory of translating, is not in itself sufficient.

The kind of competence that translators need to possess in order to practice their profession at their best and consequently regarding the type of knowledge and skills should be included within an educational program. That is to say, the program is geared towards the demands of the professional and market needs. In Particular, discussions revolve around the way translation competence is to be defined and how it is to be distinguished from language competence. Translation competence is multifaceted and includes various components. A real act of translation presupposes that the translator has cognitive, social, and textual skills and access to appropriate stores of linguistics, cultural and real-world knowledge."

Another major development is the new working conditions incorporating ADP tools (term databases, workbench systems, computer-aided translation, information research software, etc) that will at the same time transform the translator's conditions and means of productivity and the means of communication with clients, certain transforming the traditional functions and requirements of freelance translators. The training program is highly aware of the need to incorporate computer skills in the actual practice. It is fundamental that a translator is capable of using modern information and communication technologies. In this regard, courses on CAT (Computer-aided Translation) and terminology management are indispensable. "CATTP" is short for Computer Aided Translator Training Platform. It is a course management system, especially for translator and interpreter training and writing training. CATTP is composed of two modules: Module-based Course Management System and Language Server. With CATTP, instructors can easily manage online translation courses, create translation course resources and share all these resources within departments, universities and communities. Instructors can also set online translation assignments, interpretation assignments and writing assignments. By using peer review tasks and many other ways, instructors can track students' learning process, store and manage all the teaching materials and use corpus analysis tools to study the learner translation corpus generated from students' assignments to improve translation teaching and translation research.

The focus is not to update the trainees' computer equipment, but to stress on a clear, and therefore transferable, understanding of the principles along which data bases or elaborate word processors function. Trainees who are in need of a job that include a certain amount of translating might best opt for taking advanced specialized courses in translating commercial, legal, technical, scientific, and medical documentation. It also depends on their personal interests and the types of careers or companies in which they are employed. There seems thus far to be little use of CAT and MT programs in corporate settings, given the relatively limited need for translations in these settings.

Also, there is a growing demand for the training of technical editors and technical writers. An increasing number of companies or international companies located in and out of China produce high technology products that need manuals written by professional, preferably directly in Chinese. Part of the technical writers employed by the companies are trained translators, part have a linguistics or technical training. However, universities fall to begin training technical writers within the framework of extension studies in the module, including written LSP, terminology, introduction to multimedia, information management.

VI. FURTHER PROSPECTS: TO THE SPECIALIZATION OF TRANSLATION TRAINING AND CANADIAN STUDIES

The number of programs offering such training has grown considerably worldwide. New degrees are being established and curricula are undergoing profound changes. The survey aims to providing penetrating and thought-provoking data and insights into the underlying rationale of translator training programs, a rationale which is destined to survive structural changes and even to provide the conceptual framework for the new curricula.

The choice of postgraduate translator training depends on a number of criteria. National traditions play a decisive role, but also the social status of translation and the perceived need for training on the part of policy-makers. One result of this mushrooming of programs, in response to the demands of globalization of communication and the internationalization of business, has been the move towards a more formalized approach, specially aimed at training translators. This training has come to see as fundamental to its success the achievement of certain objectives relating to comprehension, transfer and message production from a socio-cultural perspective. The emergence and rapid progression of the field of Translation Studies has gone hand in hand with this development, the one making demands on the other and both co-existing in a symbolic state of interdependence.

By examining and comparing the postgraduate translation training programs in five universities of Canada, a tentative of postgraduate translation pedagogy and training model could be framed for translation program conducted in China, from the admission requirements, curriculum design, course structure and content, module requirements, language support programs, competence assessments, and professional skills etc. The research will present a reliable empirical study to arouse attention in the academic field and the Ministry of Education in China. In addition, the collaboration between Chinese universities and Canadian counterparts will be established and strengthened. More Chinese students would like to be enrolled in translation competence training program in Canada; more Canadian academicians in this field will be invited to teach or give lectures in China.

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Doomed Mythic Artist: Sam Shepard's *Angel City*

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Abstract—Sam Shepard is one of the most popular postmodern playwrights. His plays have a mythic quality. The myths he creates are considered as postmodern; they are parodic by nature and emblematic of American pop culture. “Myth of the artist” is highlighted in many of his plays concerned with the notion of art. *Angel City* hinges on the corruption of the artistic imagination and the doom of the American dream; on the whole, it is a postmodern sublime-- a parody of the modernist apocalyptic vision or dystopia. This play, like Shepard's other plays, is considered historiographic in that it deals with the past representations and attempts at reviewing and questioning the past. This article addresses the historiographic quality of Shepard's *Angel City*, with emphasis on Linda Hutcheon's poetics of postmodern historiography and Roland Barthes's conception of modern myths in relation to patterns of culture. The parodic aspect of the play, it is argued, poses a critical stance vis-à-vis the past representations of the myths and the elitist approach of modernist art. In this study, the aim is to show how Shepard has questioned notions such as the myth of capitalism, myth of origin, myth of the savior, myth of the American dream, and myth of mission in the context of art and how the old myths of hero turn into myths of anti-hero in postmodern drama.

Index Terms—Sam Shepard, *Angel City*, historiography, myth of the Artist, parody, the Postmodern

I. INTRODUCTION

Like many other plays of Sam Shepard—the postmodern American playwright—*Angel city* (1976) deals with the notion of art. *Angel City*, blending high art and the popular culture, is a postmodern LA noir, a pastiche and parody of the noir genre. The play is an interplay of clashing elements from various film genres, namely, film noir, schlock-horror, disaster movies, incorporating everything from channel surfing to Hopi Indian lore and Japanese martial arts (Bottoms, 1998). It also incorporates and plays ironically on the fictional patterns found in Nathaniel West's *The Day of the Locust* and other noir texts (Wilcox, 1993).

What all the noir texts and movies share is the dystopianization of Los Angeles which is a common theme in the works of Raymond Chandler, Dashiell Hammett, and Budd Schulberg and directors like Orson Welles (Wilcox, 1993). *Angel City* renders the same theme but with a different technique, that is, historiographic metafiction.

Historiography, generally speaking, is the study of the history and methodology of the discipline of history. La Capra has defined it as a “reconceptualization of culture in terms of collective discourses” (in Hutcheon, 1988, p. 15). Linda Hutcheon uses the term historiography in defining postmodern literature and culture. She maintains that history is a hallmark of postmodernism. According to her, postmodernism suggests a “re-evaluation of and a dialogue with the past” in the light of the present (p. 19). She declares that in postmodernism, the past can no more be denied than unproblematically returned to; it is always “placed critically and not nostalgically in relation with the present” (ibid.). Therefore, she views the past in postmodernism as a critical revisiting.

Unlike Baudrillard who believes in the nostalgic aspect of postmodernism, Hutcheon disproves this nostalgic aspect and does not approve of the theory that calls postmodern representations meaningless and centerless simulacra (Hutcheon, 1988). Instead, she focuses on “parody” which brings about this “reviewing” and “critical” characteristic of postmodernism. Parody, as she argues, calls our attention to the history of the images and icons or, better to say, the representations we meet in today's culture. The paradoxical nature of postmodernism is generated by “parody” for it “paradoxically incorporates and challenges that which it parodies” (ibid, p. 6). Parody seems to offer a perspective on the present and the past which “allows an artist to speak to a discourse from within it but without being totally recuperated by it” (ibid. p. 35). Therefore, parody brings about a critical distance which makes possible a roughly objective reading of the past. It offers a sense of “the presence of the past,” a past that can be known from its documents (ibid. p. 125). Postmodern historiography, using “parody” as a technique, raises questions regarding the nature of identity and subjectivity, reference and representation and the ideological implications of writing about history (Hutcheon, 1988).

Parody contests the assumptions about artistic originality and uniqueness and the notions of ownership and property. With parody – as with any form of reproduction – the notion of the original as rare, single, and valuable (in aesthetic or

commercial terms) is called into question. This does not mean that art has lost its meaning and purpose, but that it will inevitably have a new and different significance. In other words, parody works to “foreground the *politics* of representation” (Hutcheon, 1989, pp. 93-94), to “enshrine the past and to question it” (Hutcheon, 1988, p. 125).

It is worth mentioning that Hutcheon has mostly focused on historiographic metafiction because postmodernism in literature has been mostly defined for fiction; but her definitions and theories are also applicable to literature including drama. In historiographic literature, the historical and literary inscriptions merge and make up intertextuality (ibid, p. 143).

Postmodern drama or generally speaking postmodern art and literature are self-reflexive and simultaneously historically grounded and they bear a history of themselves within their textuality. As we will discuss, Sam Shepard’s postmodernist plays (*Angel City* in focus) are self-reflexive since they are concerned with art, artists and the history of the formation of art.

In this study, myth – as a “mode of representation” chosen by history (Barthes, 1957, p. 108)—is considered a sort of historiography. Sam Shepard’s myths can be classified as Barthesian “modern myths”: Pop culture heroes (who turn out to be parodic anti-heroes) like musicians, actors and actresses, showbiz men, movie producers, rock and rock singers and etc. Shepard produces these mythic figures to review the history of American culture, including the myth of capitalism and myth of origin.

II. DISCUSSION

In *Angel City*, Rabbit Brown, an artist who has been living on the desert, is summoned by two movie producers named Lanx and Wheeler to come and serve as a script doctor on a failing movie project. The plan of Lanx and Wheeler is to exploit Rabbit’s “magic” to save their movie. But ironically, Rabbit who is supposed to be a savior is himself mesmerized by the power of Hollywood and loses his sense of mission.

Angel City hinges on the corruption of the artistic imagination and the doom of the American dream; on the whole, it is a parody of the modernist apocalyptic vision. It is actually directly related to Shepard’s experience when, as a young Off-Off Broadway playwright of 24, he was chosen by Michelangelo Antonioni to write the screenplay for his film about the new generation of American youth, *Zabriskie Point* (1970). However, he left the project for Antonioni wanted a political repartee and Shepard could not handle it (Murphy, 2002).

Although Shepard’s play is critical of many issues, his radicalism, as Innes maintains, is not expressed in terms of any political ideology; rather his attack is on the psychology of the *status quo*, and his target (like that of more conventional playwrights, such as Arthur Miller or Edward Albee) is the American Dream, encapsulated in Hollywood (Innes, 1993).

The play is primarily concerned with “character making”. In the very beginning Lanx states that in their job, what is missing is “a meaningful character” (p. 67) and they have called upon Rabbit to get help in this regard. They are trying to create something transcendental and unearthly. The characters of the play are unable to fulfill this mission for they are themselves fragmented pieces of a whole character. As Shepard explains in *Note to the Actors*:

The term “character” could be thought of in a different way when working on this play. Instead of a “whole character” with logical motives behind his behavior which the actor submerges himself into, he should consider instead a fractured whole with bits and pieces of character flying off the central theme. In other words, more in terms of collage construction or jazz improvisation. This is not the same thing as one character playing many different roles . . . If there needs to be a “motivation” for some of the abrupt changes which occur in the play they can be taken as full-blown manifestations of a passing thought or fantasy. (in Shepard, 2006, pp. 61–62)

The characters of *Angel City* are stuck by the images and myths; in other words, as Wilcox argues (p. 63), their subjectivity is colonized by the images and myths of Hollywood. Hollywood is considered as one of the instances of postmodern sublime, “criminally figured and marked by urbanization, commodification, and technology” (Callens, 2002, p. 199). Sublime rooted in disharmony and disruption has become a vital figure in the postmodern theory (Malpas, 2005, p. 62). Lyotard (1992, p. 14) distinguishes between the modern and the postmodern sublime by arguing that in the former the unrepresentable is “invoked only as absent content, while the form, thanks to its recognisable consistency, continues to offer the reader material for consolation or pleasure”, while the latter ‘invokes the unrepresentable in presentation itself’ (ibid, p. 15).

Angel City has postmodern and surreal characteristics. As Shepard himself explains, characters are collage-like and this quality leads to a parodic intertextuality in the play. The passing thoughts and fantasies of the characters make the play monologic in some parts, revealing a “pure psychic automatism by which it is intended to express... the real process of thought, free from any control by the reason and of any aesthetic or moral preoccupation” (Breton, as cited in Haqiqi, 1383, p. 248). This also brings about a surrealist quality which makes the play easier to *read* than *act out* (emphasizing the pictorial aspect of popular culture).

The postmodern sublime incorporates images of doom and devastation. In *Angel City* “disaster” functions as the postmodern sublime; it is something that is supposed to represent what is unrepresentable, that is, death. Believing that they can save themselves from “total annihilation” (*AC*, p. 71) only by injecting a major disaster in the movie, Wheeler and Lanx assign Rabbit to come up with “something which will in fact drive people right off the deep end . . . something which not only mirrors their own sense of doom but actually creates the possibility of it right there in front of

them . . . we must help them devour themselves or be devoured by them” (AC, p. 71). The descriptions in the beginning of the play are all dystopian images that are presented in the form of a screenplay:

LANX: “Outside, the smog strikes clean to the heart. Babies’ eyes bleed from it. . . Grown men kneel over, Dogs go paralyzed. . . all along through the terrifying shopping centers the doom merchants whisper out fate. . . Even so, it would seem that, after all these years, after all these plagues and holocausts, the city is finally being rebuilt” (AC, p. 64).

But the disaster should remain to bring focus and structure to the city:

WHEELER: [a major world war] brings focus to people. They take sides, us against them. . . Now there’s no war. . . No war, no focus. No focus, no structure. No structure spells disaster. . . And disaster is our business. . . curiosity breeds invention. We’re here to invent and there’s no invention. (AC, p. 95)

Wheeler believes that in order to invent something to bring focus and structure to people’s life, they should “coldly calculate the public mind” (AC, p. 95) and see what is marketable. Thus, art turns into a commodity, a business whose success is determined by invention. For this invention, they need to represent the unrepresentable disaster (Lyotard’s postmodern sublime) which would be the epitome of disaster in postmodern era and they choose Rabbit to help them do that, for he is “supposed to be an artist. . . a kind of magician or something” dreaming things up in the form of a three-dimensional invention (AC, p. 67). What is parodic is that the characters in *Angel City* are not after building up a utopia but a dystopia and therefore, all the mythical figures turn from heroes to mock-heroes. Rabbit as the major artist of the play states:

RABBIT: [something] making me daydream at night. Causing me to wonder at the life of a recluse. The vision of a celluloid tape with a series of moving images telling a story to millions. . . millions seen and unseen. . . effecting their dreams and actions. . . replacing their families, replacing religion, politics, art, conversation. Replacing their minds. And I ask myself how can I stay immune? . . . I’m ravenous for power but I have to conceal it. (p. 69)

Moving pictures, the seventh art, is considered a popular art which can affect millions and millions of people’s lives and dreams. Rabbit, formerly a committed artist knows that he cannot resist movies either and his hunger for power is not going to be satiated. The will-to-power is a part of Rabbit’s motivation for succumbing to the siren lure of L.A. (Murphy, 2002). The target of *Angel City* is not so much Los Angeles or the movie business as the writer who sells out, the artist who succumbs to ambition and the desire for power and money, who becomes a spreader of the disease he was fighting, a promoter of fear through fake disaster. Rabbit is drawn to Hollywood by the power of the image. He is stuck in the world of simulation. Hollywood is a good place to “conceal the fact that the work-real, the production-real has disappeared” (Baudriillard, 2000, p. 411). Through the death of the real image, the simulation of the image has appeared and through the death of the real power has the simulation of power. Rabbit as an originary artist is obsessed with power and its survival and simultaneously threatened with “displacement” (Rabillard, 1993, p. 87). Bottoms (1998, p. 133) calls Rabbit the lone Kafkaesque individual up against the monolithic system modeled directly after Faust (p. 140). He acknowledges that the values of power, money, and ambition have replaced the purer, more spiritual inspirations for creation that he had experienced on the desert, the Spanish missions, and Indian mythology. The old western myths turn out to be dysfunctional here and Hollywood with its plenitude of images replaces them. Hollywood is an entropic principle, a decreative universe. It represents the “dream dump” a region of exhausted cultural icons and debased fantasy and betrayed American dream (Wilcox, 1993, p. 64).

One of the historiographic features of the play is the same parodic nature most apparent in the American dream. Shepard in *Angel City* does not review the past American dreams nostalgically, but critically, since he believes that American dream was betrayed once in the past and drowned many people with itself. The juxtaposition of high culture (Rabbit’s spiritual inspirations) and low culture (movie industry and Hollywood) is one of the other idiosyncrasies of *Angel City* as a postmodern play.

Apart from Rabbit, there is another artist in the play trying to make a big change. Tympani is “experiencing with various rhythm structures in the hope of discovering one which will be guaranteed to produce certain trance states in masses of people (AC, p. 72)”. Tympani describes the fact that the corrupt environment of the city and Hollywood is due to the corruption of the artists deceived by power and money:

TYMPANI: We’re the brain of the city. The brain’s demented. It’s a demented brain. . . if we disturb the demented condition, the city will collapse around us. (AC, p. 78)

The artists as the brains of the city of art are disintegrators rather than integrators. Instead of being Beowulfian heroes who save the city from disasters through their art, they have become producers of disaster themselves. Tympani, like Wheeler and Lanx, is representative of an artist who is planning for something that would drive men crazy and make a catastrophe in the city:

RABBIT: You’re always standing?

TYMPANI: Always. Waiting for it to happen.

RABBIT: What “it”?

TYMPANI: “It.”

RABBIT: Oh. “It.”

TYMPANI: The rhythm. The one, special, never-before-heard-before rhythm which will drive men crazy. (AC, p. 76)

Tympani whose name is also musical, is a parodic artist who does not know how to present his art to people. Like Rabbit, he has also been deceived by the aggrandizing Hollywood and is about to gain power and fame through making

a new never-heard-before rhythm. For Tympani, movies are sources of improvisation and inspiration. In a surreal fashion and in a child-like language, he says that he does not “care about anything else, just the movies”, not about the school, college, jobs, marriage, kids, or whatever else. But only “the dark, dark movies” (AC, p. 81). He muses: “what dya’ say we just lose ourselves forever in the miracle of a film?” (AC, p. 96) The Hollywoodian hyperreality is very attractive for the artists of this play making them fabricate the absolute fake Hollywoodian art. Instead of being an ordinary artist, Tympani has become “the High Prophet of Disaster” but he does not know what best makes life a disaster for men. Rabbit says:

RABBIT: You should know what’s commercial by now... we have to work on fear, not glory! Terror! Devastation! That’s where the money is! Devastation!

RABBIT: WHAT IS THE MOST FRIGHTENING THING IN THE WHOLE WIDE WORLD!

TYMPANI: Dying.

RABBIT: WHAT IS IT THAT EVERYBODY IS SCARED OF!

TYMPANI: the expectation of a death unknown.

RABBIT: what is fear!

TYMPANI: THE IMAGINATION OF DYING!

RABBIT: THE IMAGINATION OF DYING IS MORE SCARY THAN ACTUALLY DYING! (AC, pp. 85-86)

Bizzarely, even fear should be marketable – Hollywood capitalizing on horror – and the more simulated and ‘unreal’ the fear, the more marketable and profitable it is.

Here there is a shift of attention to parodic “imagination” again. It is ironic that the imagination of dying is worse than dying itself. In the world of hyperreality, the simulation of reality is more understandable than the reality itself. “Death” in the movies is the simulation of death in real life. It is more believable and thus more frightening to see someone dead in a movie rather than in real life.

According to Tympani, Romantic comedies like the movies of Micky Rooney, Judy Garland and Dorsey brothers (p. 82) are no more appealing since people are not after “fun” anymore. They need something disastrous and frightening. *Angel City* has so many allusions to pop cultural figures, movies, screenplays etc. comprising the Barthesian myths of today which can be interpreted according to the pop culture of the modern era. Shepard's cultural icons are considered more emblematic, each standing for a specific field of art and each reviewing the history of their formation.

There is another artist figure-- Miss Scoons-- in the play through whom Shepard expresses many of his poetic theories regarding theater and characterization. Shepard has stated that in his earlier plays like *Angel City* the women characters were more “emblematic” (in Roudane, 2002, p. 73). Like Cavale, the artist figure of *Cowboy Mouth*, Miss Scoons is trying to discover herself as an actress but like the other artists of the play, Tympani and Rabbit, she is drowned in the power of the image:

MISS SCOONS: I look at the screen and I am the screen. I’m not me. I don’t know who I am. I look at the movie and I am the movie. I am the star... I hate my life not being a movie... I hate being myself in my life which isn’t a movie and never will be... [I hate] people living in dreams which are the same dreams I’m dreaming but never living. (AC, p. 77)

Miss Scoons identifies totally with the reified image of the star. She loses her “self” and becomes involved in the image the screen presents. In the movies, she sees people who are living in the world of dreams, but, since she cannot live in the same world in real life, she has developed mental problems. In a surrealist fashion, she falls into a trance and her philosophical words come in a 'stream of unconsciousness' manner. In this state, she presents a historiography of Los Angeles and relates it to the myth of capitalism now dominant in Hollywood and art production.

MISS SCOONS: the urge to create works of art is essentially one of ambition. The ambition behind the urge to create is no different from any other ambition. To kill. to win. To get on top

...

Greed is Greed. (AC, p. 88)

MISS SCOONS: the ambition to transform valleys into cities. To transform the unknown into the known without really knowing. To make things safe. To beat death. To be victorious in the face of absolute desolation. (AC, p. 89)

MISS SCOONS: El Pueblo de Nuestra Senora la Reina de Los Angeles de porciuncuta. En la ciudad. En todo el mundo. La muerte, esta es el rey supremo. Viva la muerte. (AC, p. 89)

Miss Scoons starts from the history of Los Angeles and the Spanish conquest with its lust for gold and its imperialistic violence. She talks about the greed and ambition to transform the unknown frontier into the known. The Spanish came to Los Angeles to make everything safe, but ironically they made everything unsafe. The Spanish founded “capitalism” in America and from then on, everything – including art – followed the same rules. The myth of capitalism is one of the main myths dealt with in *Angel City*. Cinema has been corrupted by capitalism and the artists who de-create rather than create. The city looks like a cinema or theater and the characters are more like mere images than real people. According to Baudrillard, The annihilation of reality is the result of capitalism:

For, finally, it was capital which was the first to feed throughout its history on the destruction of every referential, of every human goal, which shattered every ideal distinction between true and false, good and evil, in order to establish radical law of equivalence and exchange, the iron law of its power. (in Constable, 2010, pp. 44-45).

Money is one of the dominant motifs in *Angel City*. Here is Miss Scoons on money:

MISS SCOONS: She slowly became aware of the truth behind the power of money....‘money equals power, equals protection, equals eternal life’ (p. 74)

The world of art depicted in this play is all just a business. Ironically, once in the play Miss Scoons reads a piece of text written by herself which is, according to Rabbit, “surprisingly original” and based on her own experience. The text, which can be considered a parody of art, is about the power of money. Tympani makes fun of Miss Scoons’ outpouring:

TYMPANI: All I know is that you’ll never get to third base with that kinda’ drivel. That went out with Raymond Chandler.

RABBIT: Yeah, he’s right. Ayn Rand sorta’ did it to death too. (AC, p. 75)

Tympani’s reference to pop culture authors such as Raymond Chandler and Rabbit’s mentioning of high culture artists like Ayn Rand indicate Shepard’s parody of the myth of capitalism. Ayn Rand – known as one of the most extreme advocates of reason, capitalism and egoism (Gotthelf, 2000) – is the author of *Atlas Shrugged* which depicts a dystopian United States. Ironically, America in Ayn Rand’s novel is dystopian because its capitalists have gone on a strike and retreated to a mountainous hideaway. In Shepard’s conception L. A. has turned into a dystopia precisely as a consequence of what the capitalists – including those in the art business – have done and do. Hence, Shepard’s reference to Ayn Rand could be considered a parodic pastiche.

The Los Angeles we deal with in this play is a Baudrillardian apocalypse suffused by the parody of the end of reality, truth, knowledge, subjectivity, power, and politics (Constable, 2010, p. 46). Thus, as Hutcheon (1988, p. xii) has argued, the use of parody in postmodern historiographic literature is not for the sake of a nostalgic look to the past but as a means of critical reviewing of the past as part of the politics of representation.

Rabbit mentions the great detective story writer of American pop culture Raymond Chandler. Chandler also wrote screenplays for Hollywood; he wrote in the genre of noir. Besides, his writings were influential in this field. According to Paul Auster, Chandler “invented a new way of talking about America and America has never looked the same to us since” (in Chandler, 1992). The relation between Chandleresque writings and the dark disaster screenplay in *Angel city* is parodic. The screenplay Miss Scoons reads and claims to be hers, is believed to be written not by herself but by figures like Chandler, Fritz Lang or Howard Hawks. Even Miss Scoon’s revelatory history of Los Angeles and her warnings against the commodification of art by the capitalist system of Hollywood cannot escape the reification of filmic pop imagery. What she says is counted as pulp fiction.

In a trance-like state of mind, Miss Scoons discloses more facts about this mysterious system:

MISS SCOONS: We’re only going in circle. We’re only going around and around. We’re only getting nowhere.... There’s nothing in here. The city’s dead. The living are replacements for the dead. (AC, p. 87)

The whole play is structured on a vicious circle – going round and round in a corrupt system – aiming at the production of art and getting nowhere. Miss Scoons calls the artists “the messengers of God” who are “Frozen in the act of creation” (AC, p. 76). This is the parody of the myth of the artist as originator, throwing into high relief the dysfunctional heroes of Hollywood.

Myth of the mission is the last myth discussed in this part. Rabbit as a composite of popular culture and film references parodically refers to the myth of mission, a staple of ersatz history of southern California (Wilcox, 1992, p. 66). In his travels to different parts of the New World, especially the frontier parts, he has become acquainted with different myths and legends of the natives. He explains that the south is the sign of the mouse (AC, p. 97), the place of innocence and trust; the west is the sign of the bear (AC, p. 97) which is the “looks-within” place; and, the east is the sign of the eagle, a place of illumination (AC, p. 98).

Wheeler confesses that he has gambled on imagination and lost while his dream had been to create an industry of imagination! (AC, p. 99) As he is not able to fulfill his wishes, he needs Rabbit and his myth of the west to transform Wheeler’s theories of imagination to reality. Rabbit emphasizes that he is an artist and Wheeler is the producer. He accuses wheeler of not knowing anything about creation and wheeler justifies himself by calling creation a disease (AC, p. 102).

Wheeler begins to narrate a story of Los Angeles at the state of siege (AC, p. 105) and a history of the America of the frontier past. But his story does not ultimately save him and he turns into a monster. Ironically, Rabbit discovers in the course of the act that he has become Wheeler. Wheeler shows him a kind of Ur-movie, an epic battle between a man and a woman that ends with the woman stabbing the man and then embracing him.

Finally, Wheeler picks up the medicine bundle that represents the West and self-knowledge, and they stand watching as out of it “a slow, steady stream of green liquid, the color of their faces, oozes from it onto the stage” (p. 111). Rabbit and Wheeler both turn green, the color of American money and Los Angeles smog (Cohn, 1995, p. 55).

III. CONCLUSION

Postmodern historiography reviews and questions the past representations, using parody as a technique that would bring about a critical distance. What we witness in the contemporary American culture is the remainder of the betrayed American dream of freedom, adventure, fame and fortune. The capitalist system, epitomized in Hollywood, portrays the past values of the Old West in the form of myths and rituals that belong more to the world of fantasy and hyperreality than to the real world of the past. In his artist plays, Sam Shepard manifests the decadence of the myth of the origin. He questions the contemporary condition of art and pictures the original art giving ground to the capitalist system.

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In Defense of a Hybrid Model for EFL Vocabulary Instruction

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Abstract—Vocabulary instruction has been tackled from various perspectives mainly in the form of taking the advantages of Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs), but few validation and verification efforts are traceable in the literature. To fill the gap, this study was an attempt to validate, and then verify the feasibility of a hybrid model against lexical inferencing strategy on the retention rate of Iranian EFL learners. Sixty homogeneous students from different intact classes participated in these studies, who were exposed to treatments. Having received a diagnostic vocabulary pre-test, one group was exposed to inferencing-based strategy, while another received instruction in the form of multiple visualizations called characterized a Hybrid Model. In addition to the statistical analyses on test validation procedures, Leven’s test verified the similar variances between two experimental groups prior to then treatments. However, the results of post-test pointed out that, though both groups had significant progress, the Hybrid Model group outperformed the lexical inferencing group not only in achievement but in retention power of the vocabulary items.

Index Terms—concept map, inferencing, vocabulary retention, vocabulary instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Both declarative and procedural knowledge of vocabulary is the greatest tools that the teachers can give students not only in their education but more generally in life (Pikulski & Templeton, 2004) and our ability to function in today’s complex social and economic world is mightily affected by our language skills and word knowledge. Rupley, Logan and Nichols stated: “Vocabulary is the glue that holds stories, ideas and content together...making comprehension accessible for children” (Sedita, 2005) as she also reported high correlation word knowledge and reading comprehension.

Different researchers have researched and discussed on the importance of vocabulary in SLA and L2 methodology. To this end, Barcroft (2004) defined three points that underline the importance of vocabulary in SLA including: “(1) the relationship between vocabulary and the ability to communicate, (2) student perceptions about the relative importance of vocabulary, and (3) the critical role of vocabulary knowledge in the development of grammatical competence” (p.201).

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Vocabulary Learning and Teaching

Vocabulary development process is unique in that according to Reider (2003) psychological dimensions of learning, such as implicit and explicit focused on other skills and components are debatable as to vocabulary acquisition. Such a confusing and blurred atmosphere has brought about introducing diverse terminologies including ‘incidental’ vs. ‘intentional’ learning, ‘attended’ vs. ‘unattended’ learning, or ‘implicit’ acquisition vs. ‘explicit’ directed learning. however, vocabulary, like any other skills and components of language, has been subject to variety of learning and thereby teaching mechanisms primarily including:

Incidental Vocabulary Learning (Nag, Herman & Anderson, 1985);

Direct instruction (Laufer, 2009);

Indirect instruction (NICHHD, 2000; Lauer, 2009, & Krashen, 1989).

Incidental vocabulary leaning (Barcroft, 2004; Read 2004; Hulstijn et al., 1996; Guo, 2010);

Intentional vocabulary learning (Barcroft, 2004; Guo, 2010; Ellis, 2005; Harmon, 1998; Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001a);

B. Effective Vocabulary Instruction

Using different instructional activities to expand the vocabulary of students is emphasized by educational researchers. For example, Beck and Mckeown (1991) distinguished four major positions in this field (as cited in Fukkink and Gloppe, 1998). The first insists on direct instruction in word meaning. The proponents of second position emphasize on wide reading as an important source for vocabulary learning. The advocates of third position stress that intrinsic complexity of deciphering the meaning of unknown words and encourage students to look up their meanings in a dictionary. The fourth position is a synthesis of the second and third position (cited in Fukkink and Gloppe, 1998).

Meanwhile, Blachowicz and Fisher (2009) identified five guidelines for effective vocabulary instruction including: (a) building a word-rich environment to develop learners' consciousness; (b) developing independent vocabulary learning strategies; (c) using instructional strategies that promote effective teaching and model good word-learning behaviors; (d) developing general vocabulary through scaffold wide reading, writing, and discussion; (e) using assessment that matches the goal of instruction.

Over-viewing current vocabulary studies, Schmitt (2008) summarized the facilitating factors in vocabulary instruction including increased: a) frequency of exposure; b) attention; c) noticing ; d) intention; e) a requirement to learn (by teacher, test, syllabus); f) use (for task or for a personal goal); g) manipulation; h) engagement time (a notion suggested by Mason & Krashen, 2004, too), and i) interaction on the lexical item. Overall, he believed that anything that leads to more exposure, attention, manipulation, or time spent on lexical items furthers the instruction.

C. *Main Approaches and Areas of Vocabulary Instruction*

Coady (as cited in Barcroft, 2004) explained that there are widely varying number of approaches, methods and techniques about vocabulary learning or acquisition. Barcroft (2004) referred to Coady's work and presented ten major areas in vocabulary learning, but first six areas of them relate to vocabulary learning. He indicated that these six areas are points along *incidental* and *intentional* vocabulary learning. The last four areas of research on L2 vocabulary in his table involve other issues related to L2 vocabulary learning. Here the list of different areas in learning vocabulary and their findings is presented. This list is summarized of Barcroft's research (2004, pp. 201-202):

(1) Incidental Vocabulary Learning, (2) Lexical requirement for comprehension, (3) Input Enhancement and Text-Based factors, (4) Vocabulary learning strategy, (5) Combined Indirect and Direct Vocabulary Instruction, (6) Methods of direct instruction, (7) Word-Based Determinants of Learnability, (8) Bilingual mental lexicon, (9) Receptive versus productive vocabulary knowledge, and (10) Lexical Input Processing.

D. *Relationship between Vocabulary Instruction and VLSs*

Kuhn and Stahl (1998) stated that measures of word meanings correlate highly with measures of reading comprehension in general. In addition, Nagy, et al. (1985) stated that knowledge of specific word meanings in a passage is an excellent predictor of how well a person will read that passage. Harley (as cited in Tumolo, 2007) uttered "The relationship of vocabulary knowledge and reading has been a growing area of research. It has been described as a relationship of reciprocal causation". Also, Nation (2001) asserted that vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension are closely and bidirectionally related. Tumolo (2007) referred to Eskey's model on vocabulary learning which is an interactive model between reading and vocabulary and considers two kinds of processing during reading. These two kinds are called top-down and bottom-up processing. In this model vocabulary knowledge is considered essential, since bottom-up processing contributes to reading comprehension.

According to Takač (2008), two directions of research influence on research into vocabulary learning strategies. First one is research of general language learning strategies which showed that many of the learning strategies used by learners are in fact VLSs or maybe used in vocabulary learning. The second one is rooted in exploring the effectiveness of individual strategy application in vocabulary learning. Takač (2008, p.59) made an elaboration on VLSs integrated into reading and offered list of such strategies such as: (1) Dictionary Use; (2) Repetition or Memorization, which contains Repetition, Simple Word Rehearsal, Writing Word and Meaning, and Cumulative Rehearsal; (3) Mnemonic Devices, which contains Verbal mnemonic, Visual mnemonic, and Mixed mnemonics; (4) Rote Learning Strategy; (5) Marginal Gloss; (6) Guessing Method; and (7) Graphic Organizers.

E. *Selected Strategies of Vocabulary Instruction*

Interest in learning strategies first developed in the 1970s. It is commonly believed that when using Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS), learners initially analyze vocabulary learning tasks, subsequently plan, and monitor and evaluate their learning behaviors. Nowadays, researchers believe that successful language learners apply a variety of learning strategies and perform autonomously. Some prevalent and closely pertinent to the present study as briefly addressed here as follows:

Graphic Organizers

They have been used as an instructional activities for a long time that visually present new words while providing students with the opportunity to compare and contrast these new items to already learned words (as cited by Taylor, Mraz, Nichols, Richelman & Wood, 2009). Also they consider Graphic Organizers as tools for increasing students' vocabulary knowledge and incorporating many guidelines for the active processing of vocabulary. Nesbit (2006) uttered that graphic organizers and concept maps have some shared features and are used in similar ways, so graphic organizer research is relevant to analyzing the effects of concept maps. These properties are: 1) Dual coding and conjoint retention, 2) Verbal coding, 3) Learning strategy, 4) Individual differences, and 5) Collaborative and cooperative learning. According to Guastello, Beasley, and Sinatra (as cited in Taylor et al., 2009) graphic organizers have various formats but their use can provide readers with the structure and organization necessary to make difficult and complex concepts more comprehensible. Following two formats are discussed because of their applications in hybrid model.

Concept of Definition Map

A variation of semantic mapping is a strategy that Schwartz and Raphael (1985) devised to help students acquire a concept of definition. This, too, is an explicit instruction strategies based on focusing the students to consider three questions about a concept they are studying: (1) what is it? (2) what is it like? (3) what are some examples? Schwartz and Raphael (1985) also claimed that *concept of definition map* instruction creates a condition that students gain control of the vocabulary acquisition process and act autonomously. Stahl and Shiel's (1992) idea as productive approach orientation, Blachowicz's (2009) view as dictionary-based strategy, Gouveia's (2004) look as multiple-perspective model, Ajideh's (as cited in King, 2011) notion as Socio-Constructivist and Schema Interactive are among many others beliefs that strongly support the applicability and effectiveness of Concept Definition Map strategy.

Frayer Model

The Frayer model (Frayer, Frederick, and Klausmeier, 1969) helps students learn new concepts through the use of attributes and non-attributes. It is recommended for very important and probably new and complex words only (Greenwood, 2010). Frayer et al. (1965) tried to use *concept* based on Bourne's definition, claiming that "a concept exists whenever two or more distinguishable objects or events have been grouped or classified together and set apart from objects on the basis of some common feature or property of each".

Mix Models of Visualizations

Nagy (1992) stated that the approaches that teach words in semantic field are more productive than the other approaches because the teaching of a tiny numbers of words serves as a spring board for teaching sets of related words (as cited in Stahl and Shiel, 1992). Eppler (2006) phrased that there are various types of mapping but each of them has some problems. Thus, he proposed using a mix mode or hybrid form of visualizations. Hybrid forms would combine the strong points of different visualizations to create a more flexible and powerful model. He believed that hybrid formats foster the visual literacy of students and the learners would be able to use them beside the ready-made visualization techniques to learning tasks.

Lexical Inferencing Strategy

Nassaji (2006) defined Lexical Inferencing strategies as any cognitive and meta-cognitive activity that learners use to drive the meaning of unknown words. Then, he categorized these strategies as identifying, evaluating, and monitoring strategies. Its usefulness has also been asserted by Pulido (2007) and de Bot et al (1997). Different researchers stated that inferencing is one of the central cognitive processes in reading comprehension (as cited in Nassaji, 2006). He (2006) also stated that inferencing happens at all the reading comprehension processes, ranging from integrating the text with background knowledge, to connecting the different parts of the text together, to linking known to unknown elements in the text and these processes involve prediction and interpretation of the text for meaning.

III. FOCUS OF THIS STUDY

In this study, a hybrid model made of a combination of "concept definition map", Harmon's list (Harmon, 1998), and "frayer model" and multiple visualizations model was investigated as a strategy of vocabulary instruction. Given the merits and demerits of the strategies mentioned and the elements reported in the literature, and the problems associated with the Frayer model, concept definition map, the word map (Rosenbaum, 2001), conduct of this study as a verification of an integrative model for vocabulary instruction and learning is warranted on the grounds that each of the models individually suffers from certain deficiencies.

Rosenbaum (2001) explained some benefits of *word map* including:

- manipulation of prefixes
- structural analysis and morphology
- completing unique expression, and
- sentence writing

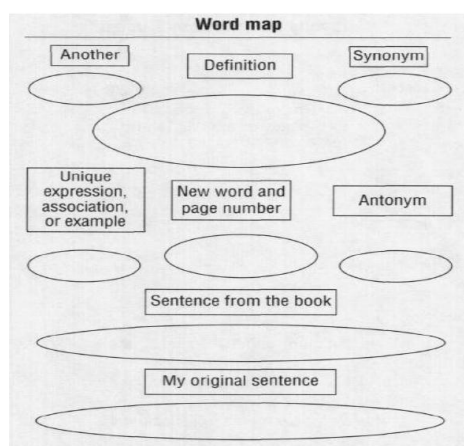


Figure 1: Word map (copied from Rosenbaum, 2001)

This hybrid model was compared with a modification of vocabulary inferencing strategy which is called reading plus.

Wesche and Paribakht (1998, 2000) revealed that knowledge gains from reading followed by comprehension tasks are limited more to word-form familiarity or recognition knowledge of new words but the tasks entail manipulation of target words which first introduced in reading promoted retention of other aspects of word knowledge. Wesche and Paribakht's (2000) work has been guided by an input processing perspective on vocabulary development and it was a Reading plus introspective study. Through reading plus treatment, after reading the core text by learners, they carried out the eight text-based exercises.

The prominent aspect of this study is comparatively investigated the efficacy of lexical inferencing and the mixed model entitled here a Hybrid Model on the process of learner's retention rate. In fact, an integration of various strategies analogous to the Eclecticism in teaching methodology was procedurally implemented.

IV. PURPOSES OF THE STUDY

To meet the purposes of this study and tackle the problem, the following research questions and hypotheses were raised:

1. Does the Lexical Inferencing have any significant impact on vocabulary retention rate?
2. Does the Hybrid Model have any significant impact on vocabulary retention rate?
3. Is the Hybrid Model more effective than the Lexical Inferencing in developing EFL learner's vocabulary retention rate?

V. METHOD

A. Participants

The main participants of this study were 60 Iranian intermediate EFL learners selected based on a version of PET out of first 150, then out of the 100 homogeneous who were recruited for test piloting and any other procedural operations. The final group (N=60), was divided into two equal experimental groups in number.

B. Materials

Text and Lexical Item Selecting

Since strategy use within reading was the approach behind vocabulary instruction, simplicity and topic familiarity were two major principles for choosing the texts. Based on these principles, nine texts were chosen and their readability was computed through the *Flesch reading ease* and *SMOG* (a formula for secondary age - 4th grades to college readers). The results of Flesch reading ease of texts were 58 to 67 that accorded standard level of texts. The texts were presented to piloting group and they tried to write the new words in a separate paper. After investigating the unknown words by the researcher, sixty four unknown words enjoying the highest frequency were included in the pre-test.

Test Preparation

A researcher-made multiple-choice test accommodating sixty lexical items was prepared, and then administered. A post-test composed of various subtests including the following formats was also developed for final achievement purposes.

- Matching items
- Sentence completion
- Synonym/definition
- Translation/equivalence

VI. PROCEDURES

As a quasi-experimental study in design, this study was procedurally conducted through the following steps:

A. Experimental 1: Hybrid Instruction Group.

The group experienced the following treatment steps:

Pre-treatment phase:

- Administration of the pre-test for diagnostic purpose
- Resort to dictionary when required
- Delivery of three simple and short texts and a sample of word map (pre-treatment stage)
- Certain activities to activate the participant's schemata

Treatment phase:

- Delivering of a copy of empty Word map
- Instructing to draw Word map
- Completing the word map
- Encouraging pair-work
- Checking the tasks and feed backing by teacher

- Working on Nine texts including the target vocabulary items
- Treating the texts individually/in pairs to lookup the target words
- Putting the new word in the central bubble
- Recording the context in the elongated bubble
- Copying the essential parts of the context sentence
- Recording word definition/ acronyms/synonym/ antonym/ etc in the small bubbles
- Finding part of speech to putting upper-left bubble
- Encouraging mutual consult
- Writing then independent and appropriate sentences
- Administering the Post-test

B. Experimental 2: Inferencing Group.

Pre-treatment phase: Repetition of the similar steps like those of the Hybrid Model

Treatment phase:

- instruction on using the roots and affixes, analyzing the structure
- instruction on using the strategies for deriving the meaning of new words
- presenting a list of unknown words at the top of the text and the students noted the list of words before reading the text
 - underlying the target words as a “selective attention”
 - inferring the meaning of the words in this stage
 - matching columns
 - doing tasks of various types including underlying, analyzing, using parts of speech, interpretation of form-meaning relationships, matching definition,
 - Administering the post-test

VII. RESULTS

A. Administration and Manipulation of the PET

The PET was administered to 150 participants in order to 1) select 100 homogeneous 2) to investigate the empirical validity of the pre-test and the post-test of vocabulary retention.

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics for the PET. Based on the mean score of 82.01 and the standard deviation of 9.37, 100 subjects were selected to participate in the main study. That is to say, the students whose scores on the PET test fall between 72.64 and 91.38 were selected to participate. The K-R21 reliability index for the test is also .84; an acceptable index.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PET

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance	Skewness		Normality	Kurtosis		Normality
					Statistic	Std. Error		Statistic	Std. Error	
PET 150	150	82.01	9.37	87.79	-.15	1.19	-.77	.67	.49	1.35

B. Test Normalization

To show the normality of the pre-test and the post-test on two experimental groups, the data from both groups on the pre-test and post-test presented respectively in tables 2 and 3 show that the tests enjoy normal distributions. The ratios of skewness and kurtosis are with + / - 1.96, meaning that none of the ratios are beyond +/- 1.96.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND NORMALITY OF LEXICAL INFERENCING GROUP ON THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

		PRE-TEST	POST-TEST
Inferencing	Mean	28.28	35.83
	Median	25.89	36.00
	Mode	21.71	32.00 ^a
	Std. Deviation	7.99	3.48
	Variance	63.84	12.14
	Skewness	0.23	-0.15
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.43	0.43
	Normality Test of Skewness	0.53	-0.35
	Kurtosis	-1.54	-1.23
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.83	0.83
	Normality Test of Kurtosis	-1.85	-1.47
	Minimum	16.70	30.00
	Maximum	40.08	41.00

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND NORMALITY OF THE HYBRID MODEL GROUP IN THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

Hybrid model	Mean	29.61	43.37
	Median	30.06	42.50
	Mode	21.71	42.00
	Std. Deviation	7.76	5.15
	Variance	60.19	26.52
	Skewness	-0.02	0.43
	Std. Error of Skewness	0.43	0.43
	Normality Test of Skewness	-0.05	1.00
	Kurtosis	-1.26	-0.86
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.83	0.83
	Normality Test of Kurtosis	-1.51	-1.03
	Minimum	16.70	35.00
	Maximum	41.75	53.00

C. Test Validation

To evaluate the validity of the pre-test and the post-test, the Pearson correlation between the PET test and the pre-test and the post-test of vocabulary retention were used as the criterion validity of the latter two tests. As displayed in Table 4, the Pearson correlation coefficients between the PET test and the pre-test ($R = .56; P = .000 < .05$) and the post-test ($R = .95; P = .000 < .05$) are both acceptable indices.

TABLE 4.
VALIDITY OF THE PET AND THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

		PRE-TEST	POST-TEST
PET	Pearson Correlation	.569**	.954**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000
	N	100	100

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

D. Pre-test of Vocabulary Retention on Hybrid Model and Inferencing Groups

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the lexical inferencing and Hybrid Model groups on the pre-test of vocabulary retention in order to probe their entry knowledge on vocabulary prior to the treatments. As displayed in Table 5, the t-observed value on the pre-test of vocabulary retention is .65. This amount of t-value is lower than the critical value of 2 at 58degrees of freedom.

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF INFERENCING AND HYBRID MODEL GROUPS ON THE PRE-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.69	.408	.65	58	.514	1.33	2.03	-2.73	5.406
Equal variances not assumed			.65	557.95	.514	1.33	2.03	-2.73	5.406

As displayed in Table 5, the Levene's statistics is not significant ($F = .69; P = .40 > .05$). That is why the first row of Table 5, "Equal variances assumed" is reported. Accordingly, both groups were homogenous in terms of the entry knowledge on vocabulary retention. The mean scores for the inferencing groups and Hybrid Model groups on the pre-test of vocabulary retention are 28.27 and 29.61, respectively. These results are shown in table 6.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF HYBRID MODEL AND LEXICAL INFERENCING ON THE PRE-TEST

GROUPS	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Hybrid Model	30	29.61	7.75	1.41
Inferencing	30	28.27	7.99	1.45

E. Investigation of the Research Question One

To investigate the first research question, a paired-sample t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the lexical inferencing group on the pre-test and the post-test of vocabulary retention. As displayed in Table 7, the t-observed value is 8.68. This amount of t-value is higher than the critical value of 2.04 at 29 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 7.
 PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST OF LEXICAL INFERENCE ON THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
7.55	4.76	.86	5.77	9.33	8.68	29	.000

These results indicate that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the lexical inferencing group on the pre-test and the post-test of vocabulary retention.

TABLE 8.
 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF LEXICAL INFERENCE ON THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POST-TEST	35.83	30	3.48	.63
PRE-TEST	28.27	30	7.99	1.45

As displayed in Table 8, the lexical inferencing group performed better on the post-test of vocabulary retention with a mean score of 35.83. Thus, the first null-hypothesis as lexical inferencing does NOT have any significant effect on vocabulary retention rate is rejected.

F. Investigation of the Research Question Two

Similarly, a paired-sample t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the Hybrid Model group on the pre-test and the post-test of vocabulary retention. As displayed in Table 9, the t-observed value is 17.18. This amount of t-value is higher than the critical value of 2.04 at 29 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 9.
 PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST OF HYBRID MODEL ON THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

Paired Differences				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper				
13.75	4.38	.8004	12.11	15.38	17.180	29	.000	

Then, there is a significant difference between the mean scores of the Hybrid Model group on the pre-test and the post-test of vocabulary retention. As displayed in Table 10, the Hybrid Model group performed better on the post-test of vocabulary retention with a mean score of 43.36. Thus, the second null-hypothesis as the Hybrid Model does NOT have any significant effect on vocabulary retention rate is rejected.

TABLE 10.
 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE HYBRID MODEL ON THE PRE-TEST AND THE POST-TEST

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POST-TEST	43.36	30	5.14	.94
PRE-TEST	29.61	30	7.75	1.41

G. Investigation of the Research Question Three

The third research question was investigated running an independent t-test to compare the mean scores of both groups on the post-test of vocabulary retention in order to probe the achievements. As displayed in Table 11, the t-observed value of the two groups' mean scores on the post-test of vocabulary retention is 6.63. This amount of t-value is higher than the critical value of 2.66 at 58 degrees of freedom for .01 levels of significance. So, there is a significant difference between the lexical inferencing and the Hybrid Model groups' mean scores on the post-test of vocabulary retention.

TABLE 11.
 INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF LEXICAL INFERENCE AND HYBRID MODEL ON THE POST-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	4.640	.035	6.636	58	.000	7.53	1.13	5.26	9.80
Equal variances not assumed			6.636	.957	.000	7.53	1.13	5.25	9.81

The mean scores for both groups on the post-test of vocabulary retention are 35.83 and 43.36, respectively. The Hybrid Model group performed better on the post-test of vocabulary retention. The results of comparison of mean scores between the Hybrid Model and lexical inferencing are presented in table 12.

TABLE 12.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF LEXICAL INFERENCE AND HYBRID MODEL ON THE POST-TEST

Groups	n	mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error mean
Hybrid model	30	43.3667	5.14938	.94014
inferencing	30	35.8333	3.48478	.63623

It should be noted that two groups do not enjoy homogenous variances on the post-test of vocabulary retention – an assumption that must be met for an appropriate independent t-test analysis. As displayed in Table 12, the Levene's statistics is significant ($F = 4.64$; $P = .035 < .05$). That is why the level of significance is reduced from .05 to .01 when calculating the critical t-value mentioned above. Thus, the third null-hypothesis as the hybrid Model is NOT more effective than lexical inferencing in vocabulary retention rate is rejected.

VIII. DISCUSSION

Nelson and Stage (2007) studied about the effect of contextually-based multiple meaning vocabulary instruction on the vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. Their work was a kind of map very similar to the model defended in this study. They concluded that their strategy had a significant effect on their participants. The findings of this study were closely related to Nelson and Stage. Furthermore, Boxtel, Linden, Roelofs, Erkens (2002) proved concept mapping as a collaborative strategy is a useful tool to provoke such student interaction as sustained by this study.

Monroe (1997) investigated the effect of "definition -only model" and "CD – model" on mathematical vocabulary of fourth grade students. CD- frayer model is a combination of "concept definition map" and "frayer model". She (1997) found that CD-frayer model was more effective because the students used more mathematical vocabulary in their writing. Stahl and Clark (1987) used a kind of semantic mapping. The results of their study revealed that students' participation is an important factor in vocabulary learning. So, this study can prove the collaborative nature of graphic organizers.

On the other hand, different studies tried to examine the effect of lexical inferencing on vocabulary learning and each of them probed it from different dimensions. The findings of this study contrasted with Chodkiewicz's (2001) findings, who studied about the vocabulary acquisition through different reading comprehension tasks. She found that medium and high proficient student profited more than low proficient ones and they gained more vocabulary than the weak students through reading tasks.

In contrast with Chodkiewicz (2001), Fraser (1999) indicated that reading for comprehension can be productive for incidental vocabulary learning and the students used more productive lexical strategies like consulting and inferencing than unproductive strategies when encounter the new words. The students could determine the adequate meaning of new words through inferencing and consulting, but they utilized cues of text during inferencing. Fraser (1999) also found that instruction for enhancing lexical processing had rather indirect effect on vocabulary learning. Fraser (1999) also concluded that the reading proficiency level did not affect on retention of new words' meanings and the retention rate of self -selected words by students is higher than the other words. Similarly, Vasiljevic (2008) concluded that lexical inferencing was not as effective as other considered strategies. According to Vasiljevic (2008) Inferring word meaning from context was behind the other models in both productive and receptive uses of the target words, with the impact in productive use being more pronounced. In fact the result of this study verifies the use of reading plus as the strategy of lexical inferencing as Vasiljevic's (2008) findings did because lexical inferencing results were lower in comparison with those of the Hybrid Model one.

Paribakht and Wesche (1997) indicated that lexical inferencing can lead to recognize a large amount of words from text but it does not guarantee the development of complex knowledge of new learnt words. Thus, they (2000) used reading plus strategy which caused increasing elaboration and strengthening of different dimensions of word knowledge. Their study also revealed that text-based vocabulary exercises accompanied by a reading text can promote learning particular words and their lexical features.

Min (2008) also verified Paribakht and Wesche's (2000) findings since he found that reading plus is more effective and efficient than narrow reading in vocabulary learning and retention. Findings on lexical inferencing strategy in this study, was exactly in line with Paribakht and Wesche (2000), and Min (2008). All of them followed the same procedures and gained the same results that showed the effectiveness of lexical inferencing strategy through reading plus.

IX. CONCLUSION

Both of these strategies were in the continuum of incidental and intentional learning. In other words, both of them take the benefits of inferring during the reading phase and the students may incidentally learn or guess the meaning of the words, or they may find information that helps them to recognize the meaning of the words, but every strategy follows a various route for learning the new words. The result of study indicated that both strategies significantly lead to better vocabulary retention but the students who participated in the Hybrid Model instruction gained better results in the light of its more collaborative, mathematical, interactive, productive, autonomous training, flexible and innovative nature among many other features. Pedagogically speaking, teachers can use the Hybrid Model without limitations of other graphic organizers, it enjoys more productive nature required for promoting vocabulary knowledge, and entails inde-

pendent learning contrary to the lexical inferencing model which necessitates teachers and material designers to consider special tasks for its implementation.

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On the Use of Linking Adverbials by Chinese College English Learners*

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Abstract—The aim of this research is, through a general comparison between learners' corpora and NSs' corpora, to probe into the characteristics of Chinese EFL learners with regard to their use of linking adverbials in speaking and writing, and give a detailed description about the non-nativeness that the learners demonstrate in the use of linking adverbials. In this research, we mainly adopt learner corpus based approach. This research has been conducted through three steps. The first step is to find out the related corpora. The corpora used in this study contain two parts, namely, the learner corpora (CLEC and COLSEC) and the native speakers' corpora (LLC and LOCNESS). Second, with the aid of MicroConcord, we search the linking adverbials one by one in the four corpora respectively, and get the normalized frequencies and the context information. The final step is data processing and multifold analyses. We carry out a contrastive study on the individual linking adverbials used by the two groups through investigating the frequencies and the context information and try to find out the differences. It is found: (1) Chinese EFL learners have shown an overall overusing tendency in using linking adverbials in their speaking and writing. (2) Despite the general overusing tendency, Chinese EFL learners display two opposite tendencies in the use of corroborative adverbials in different registers. Namely, they overuse the corroborative linking adverbials in their speaking, but underuse them in their writing. (3) Chinese EFL learners demonstrate a different pattern of writing-speaking difference as the NSs do in the use of linking adverbials, i.e., they tend to use more linking adverbials in their speaking than they do in their writing; conversely, NSs use more linking adverbials in their writing than they do in their speaking. (4) The results have shown that the factors which contributing to Chinese EFL learners' use of linking adverbials are multifold, such as mother tongue transfer, pedagogical instructions, stylistic awareness, semantic understanding, pragmatic considerations. The implications of this research for EFL learning and teaching are also discussed.

Index Terms— corpus, linking adverbials, CIA, Chinese EFL learner

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays linking adverbials are no longer a victim of discrimination in vocabulary learning research, nor in vocabulary teaching. Linking adverbial is now recognized as important as other word categories to any language acquisition process, native, or non-native (Odlin, 2001). Therefore, with regard to the use of linking adverbials, the related researches have been conducted and now become more and more widespread.

Oshima and Hogue (1997) defined linking adverbials as words or phrases that connect the idea in one sentence or clause with the idea in another. However, Halliday and Hasan (1976) called it conjunction. "It is a kind of semantic relation which functions as a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 227). Some linguists have defined this set of linking devices as sentence connectors, which conjoin two independent sentences/clauses and explicitly mark logical relations in discourse (Biber et al, 1998). But Biber et al (2000) described them as linking adverbials, which can "state the speaker/writer's perception of the relationship between two units of discourse" (p. 558-559). These linking devices also have been defined as conjuncts (Schleppegrell, 1996), which indicate how the speaker views the connection between two linguistic units. Such an indication does not conversely entail the use of a conjunct (Quirk et al 1985, p. 631-647). Beside these, there are some other terms that refer to such kind of linking devices, for example, adverbial connectors (Altenberg and Tapper, 1998), discourse connectives or discourse markers (Liu, 2004), discourse particles (Li, 1998), discourse operators (Bomber, 1982), or pragmatic markers (He and Ran, 2009). In this research, we adopt the term linking adverbial to indicate this kind of linking devices.

In order to carry out this descriptive study, we need first develop a framework of linking adverbials. We basically adopt Biber et al's framework and include the six categories of linking adverbials listed by Biber et al (2000). The main reason is that they carried out a systematic analysis which based on a large corpus. Their taxonomy of linking adverbials is more suitable for our computer processing. And for the most important, Biber et al's classification of linking adverbials is a comparatively reasonable one because they consulted much more former researches and absorbed the

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quintessence of them. More specifically, Biber et al have explored the frequencies and functions of linking adverbials in the LSWE corpus which is thus beneficial for us because it provided not only confirmation for our corpus-based methodology, but also some handy findings and conclusions that we can use as reference in our study. Beside this, we also add the corroborative linking adverbials in this research, which include some stance adverbials such as *in fact*, *indeed* and *actually*. Generally speaking, the syntactic forms of linking adverbials used in this research include single adverbs (e.g., *so*, *though*, *therefore*), adverb phrases (e.g., *more precisely*, *even so*), prepositional phrases (e.g., *in addition*, *on the other hand*), finite clauses (e.g., *that is to say*) and non-finite clauses (e.g., *to conclude*). Before we begin our research, we have conducted a preliminary study on all the English linking adverbials, and excluded those which do not appear in these four corpora. The appendix shows the details.

II. DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This study is intended to examine the use of linking adverbials by Chinese EFL learners in their written and spoken productions. It is cross-sectional in that it does not address the question of order in which the English linking adverbials have been acquired, but investigates the ways they are used by the learners and makes comparisons of use between the learners and the native speakers of English, using a corpus-based approach. The research questions addressed in this study are as follows: (1) What are the differences in the use of linking adverbials between Chinese EFL learners and the native speakers (NSs)? (2) Do Chinese EFL learners overuse or underuse the linking adverbials differently between speech and writing? (3) What are the most frequently used linking adverbials employed by Chinese EFL learners and NSs respectively? (4) Do Chinese EFL learners demonstrate a similar pattern of writing-speaking difference as the NSs do in the use of linking adverbials? If not, what are the differences? (5) To what extent can the observed differences in the linking adverbial use be explained in light of the Chinese learners' cultural and educational background?

The aim of the present research, i.e., to carry out a comparative study of linking adverbials in written and spoken productions between NSs and non-native speakers (NNSs), determines the corpora we use in this research contain two parts, namely, the learner corpora and the NS' corpora. In order to investigate the learners' writing-speaking difference with regard to the use of linking adverbials, we choose Chinese Learners' English Corpus (CLEC) and the College Learners' Spoken English Corpus (COLSEC) as two learner corpora, and choose Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) and London-Lund Corpus (LLC) as the NSs' control corpora. The descriptive data of these four corpora are showed in Table I.

TABLE I:
DESCRIPTIVE DATA OF FOUR CORPORA USED IN THE PRESENT STUDY

Type of corpus		Size of the corpus	Total words
The learner corpora	CLEC (ST3, ST4)	474,511	1,182,972
	COLSEC	708,461	
The control corpora	LOCNESS	265,411	798,656
	LLC	533,245	

Using Wordlist Tools (Liang, 2010), a very popular concordancing software, we searched all the linking adverbials included in our framework and try to find the frequencies, the collocates and the contexts of each search word. Then we use one of its main functions of SPSS, namely, Chi-Square Test to see whether there is a significant difference between two sets of variables.

III. RESULTS

A. Overall Frequencies of Linking Adverbials in Learners' Corpora and NSs' Corpora

We have examined the occurrence frequency for each of the 103 linking adverbials in our list one by one by applying Wordlist Tools, calculated the total number of their tokens and types in each corpus (see table II). Here, in order to arrive at comparable frequencies across corpora of different size, normalized data¹ are provided.

TABLE II:
OVERALL FREQUENCIES OF LINKING ADVERBIALS IN THE FOUR CORPORA

	Learners' corpora		NSs' corpora	
	CLEC	COLSEC	LOCNESS	LLC
Name	CLEC	COLSEC	LOCNESS	LLC
Size	474,511	708,461	265,411	533,245
Frequencies of LAs	10,149	11,793	3,239	6,991
Tokens/10,000words	213	167	178	131
Types	91	78	78	51
Total	169		129	

From table II we can see that Chinese EFL learners use much more linking adverbials than NSs, either in their speaking (167>131) or in their writing (213>178). Moreover, the numbers of linking adverbials' types used by Chinese

¹ The raw counts of their frequencies are averaged by the size of the corpus. In this research, we adopted the frequency/10,000 words as our normalized frequency.

EFL learners are bigger than that of NSs' (speaking: 78>51; writing: 91>78). But we cannot say that the use of linking adverbials by Chinese EFL learners tend to be more variable than NSs because the size of the four corpora is different. Normally, the larger one corpus is, the more lemma will appear in this corpus.

B. Semantic Distribution of Linking Adverbials in the Four Corpora

The research question of this study concerns the extent Chinese EFL learners use linking adverbials to mark the same semantic relations as the NSs. Figure 1 is a broken-line diagram of linking adverbials' semantic distribution that based on the normalized frequencies. As shown in figure 1, the distribution of different semantic categories is roughly the same in the four corpora, namely, contrast/concession and enumeration/addition are most common, summative and transitional relations are relatively rare. In these four corpora, both Chinese EFL learners and the NSs frequently use the categories of contrast/concession and enumeration/addition to mark the semantic relations in language productions. These findings have been supported by Biber et al. (2000). As they put it, contrast/concession and enumeration/addition are common in all registers, but transitional adverbials are rare (p: 880). We also find that there is a general tendency of overusing in Chinese EFL learners' corpora. Chinese EFL learners use linking adverbials much more frequently than the NSs, not only in written register, but also in spoken register. However, the type of transition is an exception. There is much more overlapping between CLEC and LOCNESS, while the gap between COLSEC and LLC is much bigger. In the use of certain types of linking adverbials, such as enumeration and addition, summation, apposition and contrast/concession, the overlapping in CLEC, COLSEC and LOCNESS are relatively significant. The results of Chi-Square Test (see table III) have confirmed our conclusion. The value(.000) tells that there is a significant difference between Chinese EFL learners' use of linking adverbials and that of the NSs. So we conclude that there is a general tendency of overusing linking adverbials in Chinese EFL learners' written and oral communications.

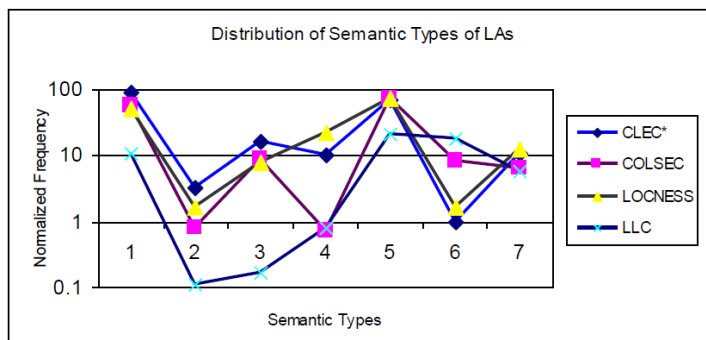


Figure 1: Distribution of semantic types of linking adverbials in the four corpora

Note: On X axis, from 1 to 7, the numbers indicate enumeration and addition, summation, apposition, result/inference, contrast/concession, transition and corroboration respectively.

TABLE III:
CHI-SQUARE TEST

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	35.768(a)	6	.000
Likelihood Ratio	35.500	6	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15.390	1	.000
N of Valid Cases	584		

Giving a closed examination figure 1, we can find that Chinese EFL learners overuse corroborative adverbials in speaking, but underuse them in their writing. The only reason we can suggest is that Chinese EFL learners seem to establish a somewhat more objective and impartial persona in their writing by using less corroborative adverbials; however, they try to state their own views and persuade others to accept their opinions in conversations by using more such kind of adverbials.

C. Findings of the Specific Study

In this section, we will conduct a specific study on some of individual linking adverbials, namely, the top fifteen linking adverbials (TFLAs) in NSs' corpora and the learners' corpora. We first concordance each linking adverbial in NSs' corpora and the learners' corpora and work out a list of TFLAs in these two kinds of corpora. Then, on the basis of TFLAs which appeared in NSs' corpora, we carry out a series of studies on the individual use of TFLAs by Chinese EFL learners and the NSs. By doing this, we can discover the features of Chinese EFL learners' use of linking adverbials in their English production. Through a close examination of the TFLAs, we can get a clear picture that the use of some linking adverbials in which learners deviate notably from the NSs, however, some are used similarly by the two groups.

1. TFLA Use in Learners' Written Corpus

TABLE IV:
COMPARISON OF TFLA USE BETWEEN CLEC AND LOCNESS

	LAs	CLEC	LOCNESS	Difference	Tendencies
1	so	38.30	12.15	26.15	4 overused Average normalized frequency difference: 7.85
2	in fact	6.68	3.74	2.94	
3	then	15.66	13.91	1.75	
4	of course	2.57	2.03	0.54	
5	finally	3.10	3.08	0.02	1 similar 10 underused Average normalized frequency difference: 3.29
6	anyway	0.15	0.77	-0.62	
7	also	23.39	24.14	-0.75	
8	well	0.19	1.43	-1.24	
9	indeed	0.32	2.20	-1.88	
10	though	2.70	5.17	-2.47	
11	actually	0.72	3.57	-2.85	
12	still	4.03	8.96	-4.93	
13	yet	0.55	5.55	-5.00	
14	even	8.51	13.53	-5.02	
15	therefore	2.85	11.00	-8.15	
Total		109.72	111.23	-1.51	

At first sight, we will misunderstand that Chinese EFL learners and the NSs are identical in the use of TFLAs in their writing. Chinese EFL learners totally use 109.72 TFLAs in ten-thousand-word writing. The NSs use 111.23 TFLAs in the same length writing. The difference (-1.51) of their total normalized frequencies is minor. However, a close examination to the frequencies of each TFLA shows the complexities of the picture. Among 15 linking adverbials, Chinese EFL learners overuse 4 TFLAs. There are 10 TFLAs underused by the learners. They use only one TFLA similarly (here, we set 0.1 as the boundary of overuse and underuse. We believe that there is a difference between two groups if the absolute value is bigger than the value of 0.1 or vice versa). This finding indicates that Chinese EFL learners overuse certain TFLAs but underuse others in writing. Moreover, the average normalized frequency difference (7.85>3.29) shows that Chinese EFL learners underuse 10 TFLAs but overuse only 4 ones, their overusing tendency is stronger than their underusing tendency. There are big differences between Chinese EFL learners and the NSs with regard to the use of other TFLAs in their writing, such as *so*, *in fact*, *therefore*, *even* and etc.

2. TFLA Use in Learners' Spoken Corpus

As the data shown in table V, TFLAs are considerably more common in Chinese EFL learners' speaking than in their writing. Chinese EFL learners use 124.96 TFLAs in average ten thousand word speaking but 109.72 ones in the same length writing. Conversely, the NSs tend to use much more TFLAs in their writing. There are 111.23 TFLAs used in average ten thousand word NSs' writing. However, NSs only use 36.80 TFLAs in the same length speaking. Chinese EFL learners use 88.16 TFLAs more than the NSs. Form table V we can find that Chinese EFL learners overuse 13 TFLAs, i.e., *so*, *also*, *well*, *of course*, *therefore*, *then*, *even*, *yet*, *still*, *finally*, *in fact*, *indeed*, and *anyway*. Only *though* and *actually* are underused by Chinese EFL learners. Moreover, the data demonstrates a pattern different from that found in the comparison between CLEC and LOCNESS: Among 15 linking adverbials, Chinese EFL learners not only overuse 13 TFLAs but underuse 2, therefore, the average normalized frequency difference of overusing tendency (7.09) is far greater than that of underusing tendency (1.99). It indicates that Chinese EFL learners' overusing tendency is much stronger than their underusing tendency. Finally, Chinese EFL learners rely heavily on several linking adverbials especially the words *so* and *also* while they are speaking. The normalized frequencies of *so* and *also* are 61.82 and 25.75 respectively. The sum of their normalized frequencies of these two words occupies more than one half of the total ones.

TABLE V:
A COMPARISON OF TFLA USE BETWEEN COLSEC AND LLC

	LAs	COLSEC	LLC	Difference	Tendencies
1	so	61.82	11.51	50.31	13 overused TFLAs Average normalized frequency difference: 7.09
2	also	25.75	1.29	24.46	
3	well	7.90	2.27	5.63	
4	of course	4.12	0.53	3.59	
5	therefore	2.82	0.28	2.54	
6	then	10.91	8.85	2.06	
7	even	3.47	2.57	0.90	
8	yet	1.43	0.71	0.72	
9	still	2.30	1.63	0.67	
10	finally	0.54	0.02	0.52	
11	in fact	0.96	0.53	0.43	
12	indeed	0.35	0.19	0.16	
13	anyway	0.34	0.19	0.15	
14	though	1.33	1.82	-0.49	2 underused 1.99
15	actually	0.92	4.41	-3.49	
Total		124.96	36.80	88.16	

3. Chinese EFL Learners' and the NSs' Writing-Speaking Differences in TFLA Use

Table VI is a detailed description of the writing-speaking difference of TFLA use both in Chinese EFL learners' corpora and the NSs' corpora. Figure 2 is a pattern-diagram of writing-speaking difference which based on each group's register difference in using TFLAs. Table VI and figure 2 show that the writing-speaking difference in the NSs' corpora is positive (4.96). That is to say, the NSs use fewer TFLAs in speaking than they do in writing. In contrast, the writing-speaking difference in the learners' corpora is negative (-1.02). It indicates that Chinese EFL learners use more TFLAs in speaking than they do in writing. Therefore, we can draw a conclusion that Chinese EFL learners' and the NSs' writing-speaking difference patterns are skewed in opposite directions. Figure 2 gives us a general picture of each TFLA's register: most of the TFLAs used by NSs are written register sensitive. The NSs' curve rises and falls gently. However, more than one half of the TFLAs used by Chinese EFL learners are spoken register sensitive. Its curve rises and falls strongly.

TABLE VI:
A COMPARISON OF REGISTER DIFFERENCE

	Word	Difference (LOCNESS-LLC)		Word	Difference (CLEC-COLSEC)
1	also	22.85	1	in fact	5.72
2	even	10.96	2	even	5.04
3	therefore	10.72	3	then	4.75
4	still	7.33	4	finally	2.56
5	then	5.06	5	still	1.73
6	yet	4.84	6	though	1.37
7	though	3.35	7	therefore	0.03
8	in fact	3.21	8	indeed	-0.03
9	finally	3.06	9	anyway	-0.19
10	indeed	2.01	10	actually	-0.20
11	of course	1.50	11	yet	-0.88
12	so	0.64	12	of course	-1.55
13	anyway	0.58	13	also	-2.36
14	well	-0.84	14	well	-7.71
15	actually	-0.84	15	so	-23.52
Average		4.96	Average		-1.02

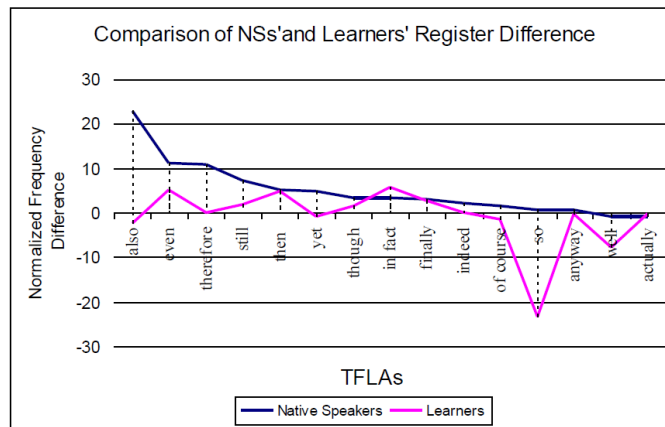


Figure 2: Comparison of NSs' and learners' register difference

Note: On this figure, X-axis is the boundary of written register and spoken register. If the fall point of a word is above X-axis and its value is higher than zero, it suggests that this word is written register sensitive; conversely, if the fall point of one word is under X-axis and the value is lower than zero, it indicates this word is spoken register sensitive; if by chance, the fall point is on the X-axis, the word is register neutral.

Through a close examination of TFLAs we find that the NSs are more likely to use *also, even, therefore, still, then, yet, though, in fact, finally, indeed, of course, so* and *anyway* in writing than in speaking, but tend to use *well* and *actually* in speaking than in writing. Differently, Chinese EFL learners demonstrate another writing-speaking difference pattern of TFLA use in terms of register. As shown in table VI and figure 2, they tend to use *in fact, even, then, finally, still, though* in writing than in speaking, but are more likely to use *anyway, actually, yet, of course, also, well, so* in speaking than in writing. Chinese EFL learners are likely to use *therefore* and *indeed* equally.

IV. CONTRIBUTING FACTORS

From the corpora alone, it is difficult to pin down the reasons for the differences between Chinese EFL learners and NSs in the use of TFLAs. However, several factors might be underlying what was observed in corpus analysis.

A. Mother Tongue Transfer

We find that Chinese EFL learners tend to use such linking adverbials as *first(ly)*, *for example*, *so*, *then*, *of course* and *in fact*, but underuse or not use the ones such as *instead*, *yet*, *anyway* and etc. The reason why Chinese EFL learners overuse the former but underuse or not use the latter might come down to their Chinese mother tongue transfer. In Chinese, there are translational equivalents to the linking adverbials such as *first(ly)*, *for example*, *so*, *then*, *of course* and *in fact*, namely, 首先 (第一), 例如, 因此, 然后, 当然, 实际上 in Chinese.

B. Pedagogical Instructions

Chinese EFL learners overuse the enumerative linking adverbials *first(ly)*, *second(ly)*, *third(ly)* and *finally* to list their arguments and use many appositive linking adverbials such as *for example* to exemplify a point, reformulate the information they express or state it in more explicit terms (Wen and Ting, 2003). These writing patterns are very popular in senior high school students' and non-English major college students' writing. This is most probably due to the pedagogical instructions they have accepted. English teachers and some English writing handbooks usually tell the students that they can get high marks in composition test if they adopt such fixed writing patterns in their writing (Ellis, 1985; Gass and Selinker, 1983). Students themselves believe that if they use these linking adverbials to mark the relations overtly, their essays would become more coherent and well organized.

C. Register Awareness

Chinese EFL learners usually use very formal words (written-register sensitive) such as *moreover* alongside the ones preferred in speech such as *anyway* and *actually*. From this research we find that there are many occasions that it would be better to replace the informal LAs by the more formal equivalents in essay writing. Here it may be due to their poor awareness of different registers. It needs to have a further study later.

D. Semantic Understanding

Apart from the lack of register awareness, Chinese EFL learners also seem to lack a full understanding of semantic properties of some linking adverbials, especially their hidden and slight differences in meaning. The reflections of such linguistic deficiency is, on the one hand, Chinese EFL learners tend to use the words that they are familiar with and avoid to use the ones that they are not.

E. Pragmatic Considerations and Other Possible Factors

One of the reasons that why some linking adverbials (for example, corroborative linking adverbials) are underused by Chinese EFL learners may partly come down to learners' pragmatic considerations (Granger & Tyson, 1996). We know that corroborative linking adverbials are typically associated with registers that reflect the speaker's or writer's convictions, which a low frequency of such kind of linking adverbials is characteristic of language users' attempts of being depersonalized or impartial.

Apart from the above five reasons, there are some other possible factors contributing to the observed differences, such as different communication tasks, language users' cultural backgrounds and writer's style in choosing linking adverbials. With the limitation of time and scope, we did not investigate linking adverbial use from these aspects. This may point to a direction for future study to extend the present research.

V. IMPLICATIONS IN THE FIELD OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

For Chinese EFL learners, they should: (1) learn to differentiate the choices of linking adverbials and try to acquire linking adverbials in a direct manner; (2) place more emphasis on the restrictions imposed on certain linking adverbials and improve semantic understanding of linking adverbials; (3) expose to a greater range of registers to improve register awareness; (4) be aware that learning the native English writing and speaking conventions is inextricable from learning to write and speak in English.

For English teachers, they are suggested to: (1) urge their students to learn not only how to use linking adverbials, but how to use them appropriately; (2) help students internalize the English language conventions and the specific language patterns in the teaching process; (3) provide a large range of different registers and help students acquire a better understanding of the strategies of linking adverbial use typically in speech and writing.

APPENDIX: A SUMMARY OF LINKING ADVERBIALS USED IN THE PRESENT STUDY

1. Enumeration and addition: *first(ly)*, *second(ly)*, *third(ly)*... *in the first place*, *in the second place*, *in the third place*, *first of all*, *for one thing*...(and)for another(thing), *to begin with*, *next*, *then*, *finally*, *last(ly)*, *last but not least*, *likewise*, *similarly*, *in the same way*, *also*, *further*, *furthermore*, *moreover*, *too*, *what's (is) more*, *in addition*, *besides*, *additionally*, *in particular*, *above all*, *as well*.

2. Summation: *altogether*, *overall*, *(all) in all*, *in conclusion*, *in sum*, *to sum up*, *to summarize*, *in general*, *generally speaking*, *on the whole*, *in short*.

3. Apposition: *namely (viz)*, *that is(i.e.)*, *that is to say*, *in other words*, *for example (e.g.)*, *for instance*, *specifically*.

4. Contrast/concession: *rather*, *on the other hand*, *conversely*, *instead*, *on the contrary*, *in contrast*, *by contrast*, *in*

comparison, by comparison, anyhow, anyway, however, nevertheless, nonetheless, at the same time, still, though, even, so, yet, in any case, in spite of that, after all, all the same, admittedly.

5. Result/inference: accordingly, consequently, hence, so, therefore, thus, in consequence, as a result, somehow, (or) else, otherwise, then, in other words, in that case.

6. Transition: incidentally, meantime, meanwhile, in the meantime, in the meanwhile, well, now.

Corroboration: actually, in fact, as a matter of fact, in effect, of course, indeed, apparently.

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Technical Translation: A Study of Interference in Three Persian Translations of “*Software Engineering*”

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Abstract—The present work is a study of technical translation to examine the negative impact of the source text’s lexis and syntax on the target text. In this respect, a technical text – a university textbook – and its three Persian translations were investigated. The focus of the study was on the notion of interference in translation which has been less touched in translation studies. The objective was to specify the ways interference affects comprehensibility. Based on G öpferich (2009), comprehensibility encompasses six dimensions from which the dimension of simplicity was scrutinized in this study. The results showed that most cases of lexical interference were due to choosing wrong or meaningless equivalents. They also showed that the extent of lexical interference was higher than that of syntactic interference. The findings will hopefully have some implications for professional translators and translation students in producing more accurate translations.

Index Terms—technical translation, interference, comprehensibility, literal translation, translationese

I. INTRODUCTION

Technical translation covers the translation of many kinds of specialized texts in science and technology, and also in other disciplines such as economics and medicine (Williams and Chesterman, 2002). It is believed, as stated by Williams and Chesterman(2002), that the translation of these texts needs a high level of subject knowledge, and a mastery of the relevant terminology. There are other scholars, however, who believe that additional types of mastery are needed for a technical translator (Bédard 1986, Kastberg 2009, Stolze, 2009). Bédard (cited in Hatim and Mason, 1996) explores the myth of technical translation being a matter of one for one exchange of technically precise vocabulary tokens. Hatim and Mason imply that in different areas of translation the common thread is communication (Hatim and Mason, 1996) and for this reason there is similarity between these areas. This means that in their view there exist similarities between literary translation and technical translation. Translating technical texts in the professional environment or in scientific communication is more than handling terminology (Stolze, 2009). Discourse, science, genres and writing techniques are formed in a cultural and historical context. Even at the level of terminology, serious problems exist in technical texts for translation. Both Kastberg (2009) and Stolze (2009) insist that internationally standardized terminology is very much in the minority. For instance, a common technical word such as ‘driver’ which indicates a computer program enabling the computer to work with a specific additional hardware has got two different equivalents by two different translators: ‘اداره کننده’ (/edare konande/) and ‘محرک’ (/moharrek/) and at the same time none of them is a good definition for the term. A better translation could be: ‘راه انداز’ (/rah andaz/).

In general, like in any other type of translation, a high level of mastery in the source language is also needed. Translation is connected with the problem of understanding the source text. As an example, to support this idea, notice the following: In *software engineering: a practitioner’s approach*, the author talks of concerns about software in near future and uses an idiomatic title: “software: a crisis on the horizon?” The translators’ choice is “نرم افزار: بحرانی در افق؟” (/narm afzār buhrāni dar ufugh/) – totally meaningless in Persian. The translators have not understood the English expression “on the horizon” which means “something that is about to happen in near future” and could not decide on an idiomatic equivalent. A possible equivalent is: “نرم افزار: بحران قریب الوقوع؟” (/narm afzār: buhrāne gharib ulvoghū’/)

Understanding the source text is the first step in the process of translating and this step could only be taken by mastery in the source language and mastery in the subject domain. Mastery in the subject domain itself is vast and needs checking the cultural context which itself includes the relevant discourse field.

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Having studied software engineering, the researchers have faced serious problems regarding textbooks in this field. Textbooks are important sources of information and knowledge for university students. A majority of students in

computer science are unable to use original textbooks because of lack of knowledge of language. On the other hand, the translations of such books are of low quality and the students cannot make use of them and, therefore, they are only dependent on the knowledge of the instructor of the course. Searching for the reasons, the researchers decided to focus on one of the most important textbooks of software – *software engineering: a practitioner's approach* (Pressman, 2001).

In the present study the focus is on interference and its influence on the comprehensibility of the text. "Interference refers to the influence of linguistic and other elements of the ST on the TT" (Munday ed., 2009) and is related to the second law of translation proposed by Toury (1995): "the law of interference."

The comprehensibility of translations is assessed by one of the six dimensions Göpferich (2009) has proposed for comprehensibility assessment of a text – simplicity. Simplicity itself is divided into two categories: lexical simplicity and syntactic simplicity.

Research questions

Based on the aforementioned points, the following two research questions were addressed in the present study:

A) In what ways do lexical and syntactic interference result in incomprehensibility in technical translation in terms of simplicity?

B) Which type of interference (lexical or syntactic) is more frequent in the translation of technical texts?

II. METHOD

A. Materials

The materials examined in this study were three available Persian translations of an English university textbook in the field of software engineering titled *Software Engineering: a practitioner's approach*. The rationale for selecting a computer textbook was the researchers' familiarity with this field, the great importance of this university textbook in computer engineering all over the world, and the difficulty that the students of this field face when using each of the three translations. The Persian translators are: 1) E. Jafarnejad Ghomi and E. Amel Mehrabi (2006), 2) M. M. Salkhordeh Haqiqi (2006) and 3) N. Hashemi Taba (2006).

B. Design

The study was designed in two phases: 1) identifying instances of interference and 2) assessing comprehensibility.

1. Interference

To identify instances of interference, different definitions and ideas about interference were examined. The intention was to identify cases of negative interference. The following could be relied on as certain indicators of negative (lexical) interference, given that they would result in "unusual patterns" (Newmark, 1991) in TT or they have been done "apparently inappropriately" (Newmark, 1991):

- 1) Transference
- 2) Literal translation
- 3) Calque
 - a) Lexical calque
 - b) Structural calque
- 4) False friends

It has to be emphasized that the above four cases are considered negative interference when they result in: non-normal or unusual TT patterns indicating the reflection of SL rules and norms or, formal correspondences of linguistic items or structures with different functions in SL and TL, deviations from the code, or deviations from the norm of usage. This applies to both lexical and syntactic cases.

It is worth mentioning that not all the cases of transference (the first and most visible type of interference) are considered negative interference in technical translation. One reason is that in technical writings, there is a need for "precision and clarity" (Aixela, 2009). For example, an expression such as "use-case" in software engineering must be preserved because any translation would distort its clarity.

Syntactic interference, according to Newmark (1991), occurs when:

- 1) We face totally ungrammatical structures;
- 2) The SL structure exists but is less common in the target than the source language;
- 3) The translator neglects the peculiar properties of his or her own language's grammar.

2. Comprehensibility

In her paper (2009), Göpferich presents a communication-oriented framework for the evaluation of pragmatic texts including their translations with regard to their comprehensibility as one of the central factors of their skopos adequacy. In the resulting framework, a distinction is made between six comprehensibility dimensions, 'perceptibility,' 'simplicity,' 'structure,' 'correctness,' 'concision,' and 'motivation.' Requirements derived from the latter four of these dimensions do not only have to be fulfilled by the textual code itself, but also by the mental models to be conveyed by the code. The first two dimensions, 'perceptibility,' and 'simplicity' are related to the textual code itself and not to the mental models. The focus of the present study was only on 'simplicity' – lexical and syntactic – since the 'perceptibility' dimension is to assess extra-textual properties of a text.

3. Simplicity

According to Gopferich, the dimension of ‘simplicity’ or ‘linguistic simplicity’ refers to the lexis and syntax only. Gopferich offers a framework for assessing a text’s simplicity in the form of seeking answers to a number of questions as follows:

For lexical simplicity:

- 1) Is the lexical item familiar to the target group? (in this case software engineering students)
- 2) Are unfamiliar specialized terminology explained sufficiently?
- 3) Is ambiguity avoided?

For grammatical simplicity:

- 1) Can sentence complexity be reduced?
- 2) Can nominalizations be transformed into more verbal constructions?
- 3) Can passive-voice constructions be transformed into active-voice constructions?
- 4) Can negative sentences be transformed into affirmative ones?
- 5) Is ambiguity avoided? (pp. 46-48)

Since the simplicity dimension of comprehensibility is related to lexis and syntax only, the present study focused only on lexical and syntactic interference. It is possible to make a relationship between interference and the simplicity dimension of the text in their overlapping area. As mentioned earlier, the study’s objective was to assess the effect of interference on comprehensibility (i.e. the textual dimension of comprehensibility called simplicity of a technical text).

C. Procedure

In order to check lexical and syntactic interference, 100 sentences and semi-sentences like titles and subtitles and their translations were selected from the original book and the three translations. Although the original book consists of 32 chapters, two of the translations encompass only the first 24 chapters and therefore, the selection range was also from chapters 1 to 24. First, ST sentences were selected without any observation of TTs in order that TT would not affect the selection. Sentences were selected from all the 24 chapters and from different parts of each chapter including the beginning, the end and the middle. It was also tried to pick up sentences from different parts of the text, sentences at the beginning and at the end or in the middle of a paragraph or a part, bulleted or numbered sentences, titles and subtitles, definitions, quotations and examples.

After selecting the sentences, each sentence was searched for lexical and syntactic interference. All instances of interference were listed in tables, together with their type and a short justification on selection. For each translation, two tables were made, one for lexical and another for syntactic interference. For each table, percentage tables were made based on the number of occurrences of each type of interference.

After collecting instances of interference, simplicity questions were answered about each interference case (the above questions). These answers were then presented in tables. At the end, frequencies and percentages were calculated for each table.

III. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

A. Interference

1. Lexical interference

Results for lexical interference in the first translation (Jafar Nejad Ghomi, 2006) are shown in table 1. The translation may be totally “wrong”. This means that a term may have different dictionary meanings from which the translator has chosen the wrong one. The reason may be that one equivalent is more common, or the translator has neglected the context which is computer science here. An example for the latter is سازه (/sazeh/) for “construct” which is correct in architectural engineering but not in computer engineering (ساختار (/sakhtar/)). “entity” is another example of this type which is translated as موجودیت (/mojoodiat/) in software engineering not نهاد (/nahad/). “Application” has to be translated as برنامه کاربردی (/barnameye karbord/) or برنامه (/barnameh/) not کاربرد (/karbord/). Another example is “refinement” which is translated as پالایش (/palayesh/) which may be correct in oil engineering but it is better to be translated as کاهش (/kahesh/) in software engineering. In fact a close examination of the original book confirms the second equivalent.

The translation may be “meaningless”. This means that: a) the translation is not wrong generally but in its specific co-text or sentence it does not convey any meaning; b) the reader does not know the meaning like some instances of interference accompanied by no extra explanation like “macroscopic” translated as ماکروسکوپی (/makroskopi/).

The translation may be “unnatural”. Unnatural here covers those terms or phrases which are uncommon or odd in Persian. For example “automobile business” is translated as تجارت خودروهای موتوری (/tejarate khodro haye motori/) which is very uncommon in Persian.

Some translations are “not clear”. They are not wrong or meaningless but the readers cannot understand them. For instance, “technical kernel” is translated as هسته فنی (/hasteye fanni/) whose meaning is not clear. Some terms like these are better to be translated by a sentence rather than one term.

“Macro element” in not translated correctly because referring to Longman Exams Dictionary states that Macro- (as a prefix) means “large and concerning a whole system rather than particular parts of it”. Such a definition brings the translation واحد سیستمی (/vahede sistemi/) or جزء سیستمی (/joz’e sistemi/) rather than عنصر بزرگ (/onsore bozorg/).

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF GHOMI'S LEXICAL INTERFERENCES

WRONG	MEANINGLESS	UNNATURAL	BETTER TRANSLATION	NONE
31 / 89	28 / 89	10 / 89	13 / 89	7 / 89
35 %	31 %	11 %	15 %	8 %

Results for lexical interference in the second translation (Salkhordeh Haghighi, 2006) are shown in table 2 below.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF SALKHORDEH'S LEXICAL INTERFERENCES

WRONG	MEANINGLESS	UNNATURAL	BETTER TRANSLATION	NONE
31 / 98	22 / 98	10 / 98	22 / 98	13 / 98
32 %	22 %	10 %	22 %	13 %

Results for lexical interference in the third translation (Hashemi Taba, 2006) are shown in table 3 below.

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF HASHEMI'S LEXICAL INTERFERENCES

WRONG	MEANINGLESS	UNNATURAL	BETTER TRANSLATION	NONE
33 / 96	28 / 96	5 / 96	19 / 96	11 / 96
34 %	29 %	5 %	20 %	11 %

Not all transferences are considered negative interference since in technical prose, sometimes it is necessary to preserve the exact term or phrase for the sake of clarity or unity or in cases where no equivalent exists to replace the original term. For example, 'class' is replaced by کلاس (/kelas/) and not رده (/radeh/) as the accepted equivalent in the context. This type of transference is preferred to any translation and is not considered as negative. Table 4 below shows some instances of positive transference.

TABLE 4.
INSTANCES OF POSITIVE TRANSFERENCE

Original term	Accepted equivalent	Explanation
Calss	کلاس (transcription)	Technical notion
Computer	کامپیوتر (transcription)	Technical notion
System	سیستم (transcription)	Technical notion
ROM	ROM	Technical notion A type of memory
SEI	SEI (بنیاد مهندسی نرم افزار)	Important Acronym

2. Syntactic interference

Syntactic interference of the first translation, Jafar Nejad Ghomi (2006), is presented in table 5 below. Type 3 is related to type 3 of syntactical interference (section 2.2) in which the translator forgets the peculiar properties of his or her own language's grammar.

TABLE 5.
SYNTACTIC INTERFERENCE IN GHOMI'S TRANSLATION

	Ungrammatical	Uncommon	Type 3
Frequency	13	13	7
Percentage	41 %	41 %	22 %

For the second translation, Salkhordeh Haghighi, syntactic interference is shown in table 6 below. For the third translation, Hashemi Taba, syntactic interference is shown in table 7.

TABLE 6.
SYNTACTIC INTERFERENCE IN SALKHORDEH'S TRANSLATION

	Ungrammatical	Uncommon	Type 3
Frequency	7	17	5
Percentage	22 %	53 %	16 %

TABLE 7.
SYNTACTIC INTERFERENCE IN HASHEMI TABA'S TRANSLATION

	Ungrammatical	Uncommon	Type 3
Frequency	8	11	7
Percentage	31 %	42 %	27 %

B. Comprehensibility

As mentioned before, only one dimension of comprehensibility – simplicity – is under focus in the present study. Three questions have to be answered for lexical items and five questions have to be answered for syntactic items.

1. Lexical simplicity

In this part lexical simplicity tables are presented. The cases important to be considered are those which are not familiar to the audience and not explained sufficiently i, e. the answer to the first two questions for them are ‘no’. These cases are called “unfamiliar or unexplained” in Table 8 below and Tables 9 and 10. Those cases for which the answer to the third question is ‘yes’ are called “ambiguous” in the above-mentioned three tables.

TABLE 8.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF LEXICAL SIMPLICITY CHECK IN GHOMI

unfamiliar or unexplained	Ambiguous
42 / 90	32 / 90
47 %	35 %

TABLE 9.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF LEXICAL SIMPLICITY CHECK IN SALKHORDEH

Unfamiliar or unexplained	Ambiguous
57 / 98	29 / 98
58 %	30 %

TABLE 10.
FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF SIMPLICITY CHECK IN HASHEMI

Unfamiliar or unexplained	Ambiguous
56 / 96	29 / 96
58 %	30 %

2. Syntactic simplicity

As mentioned in section 2.2, five questions must be answered in order to identify the extent of simplicity for sentences and syntactical structures. The results are presented in the following tables.

TABLE 11.
FREQUENCY RESULTS FOR SYNTACTIC SIMPLICITY

	complexity	Nominal/verbal	Passive/active	Negative/affirmative	ambiguity	total
Ghomi	7	10	2	0	5	20
Salkhordeh	9	3	4	0	4	19
Hashemi	6	5	2	0	3	15

TABLE 12.
PERCENTAGE RESULTS FOR SYNTACTIC SIMPLICITY

	complexity	Nominal/verbal	Passive/active	Negative/affirmative	ambiguity
Ghomi	22%	31%	6%	0%	16%
Salkhordeh	28%	9%	19%	0%	12%
Hashemi	23%	19%	8%	0%	11%

IV. DISCUSSION

The present study had two major phases. Although the objective was to answer the research questions, each phase had its own importance. The phases were: a) finding instances of interference; b) checking simplicity. A detailed discussion of results and findings of each phase is presented below:

a) Interference

1) Lexical interference

Trying to find lexical instances of interference, the researchers needed justifications on selecting a lexical item as a case of interference. In this regard, it was found that some lexical items were translated in a completely wrong way. But being wrong was not enough to consider the item as interference. The fact that the source of a translation mistake was the influence of the most common dictionary meaning of a term was fascinating in considering it as interference. Such wrong translations show the close relationship between interference and word for word translation. Newmark (1991:82), where discussing interference, points out that “much more often, it is the mark of a bad translator to translate literally, to look at the words without regard to the sense, to remain on the surface of the text.” A good example is the word “development”. It has been translated “بسط” (/bast/) or “توسعه” (/tusa’eh/) in software-related issues and it is used by instructors of software engineering courses. But, its correct equivalent for software in Persian is “ایجاد” (/ijād/) or “روند” (/ravand/) (/ravande ijād/). The reason is that “development” is commonly translated as “توسعه” (/tuse’e/) and the translator has not noticed the special context of the word. Longman Dictionary defines the word as follows:

Development:

For new plan/product: the process of working on a new product, plan, idea, etc to make it successful. Example: software development.

In one of the translations, “application” is translated as “کاربرد” (/kārburd/) where “application” is actually a software program and must be translated as “برنامه کاربردی” (/barnāme-ye kārburdi/).

In general, all wrong translations are indicative of translators’ negligence of making sense. They have “remained on the surface of the text” (Newmark, 1991:82).

A distinction between wrong and meaningless is in order here. A slight difference exists between wrong equivalents and meaningless translations. Meaningless translations are those translator-made equivalents which convey no meaning. For example, the term “real-time” is translated as “زمان حقیقی” (/zamān haghghi/) by using the first dictionary meaning of each of its parts. The question is what does “زمان حقیقی” (/zamān haghghi/) mean in Persian especially when someone is unfamiliar with the source language? The fact is that there is already an equivalent for the term in Persian which is “بلادرنگ” (/belāderang/). Another example is “prepackaged software components”; the translator translated each word separately and put the translations together: “مولفه های نرم افزاری بسته بندی شده” (/mualefehaye narm afzārie baste bandi shude/). The question for a Persian reader is “what is the relationship between “بسته بندی کردن” (/baste bandi kardan/) and “نرم افزار” (/narm afzār/)?” The translator could simply use “اجزاء آماده” (/ajzāe āmāde/).

Besides wrong or meaningless equivalents, some translations could be categorized as unnatural. Translating “analysis component” as “مولفه تحلیل” (/mualefeye tahlil/) shows the influence of the source language phrase on the translator. It is not wrong or meaningless and the reader could infer its meaning, but it is more natural to use an equivalent like “تحلیل گر” (/tahlil gar/) or “تحلیل کننده” (/tahlil kunande/).

Naturalness or readability of a text is influenced when very long phrases consisting of many words are used in translation. Although natural and flowing in the source language, this may make the translation difficult to understand and may need some adjustments. “Read-only memory” is an accepted term in English; its translation as “حافظه فقط خواندنی” (/hāfezeye faghat khāndani/) is understandable especially for the computer people; yet, there is an easier to read and more accepted equivalent for the term in Persian which is “حافظه دائمی” (/hāfezeye dāemi/). Also, “computer-based system” is better to be translated as “سیستم کامپیوتری” (/sisteme kāmپیūteri/) rather than “سیستم مبتنی بر کامپیوتر” (/sisteme mubtani bar kāmپیūter/).

It is important to note that making a technical or scientific text easier to read and understand is more helpful for a reader of such texts. Unlike literary translation, in which one might claim that surface structure carries meaning, in scientific or technical translation, the most important point may be to make sense in any way possible. The translator may even need to re-organize the main parts of a technical text if he/she feels this would help his/her reader to better understand.

Some terms and expressions have been translated in a correct, meaningful and even natural way but they still show signs of interference and could have been translated better. Using “نهاد” (/nahād/) as an equivalent for “entity” sounds perfect at the first glance; but “موجودیت” (/mujudiat/) is a better translation in this context.

The above categories were proposed by the researchers based on definitions of interference. They are just for elucidating the point. Still, another important case has been missed so far. It is total transference. Most of the time, transference is the basic type of interference. Examples are: “systematic” as “سیستماتیک” (/sistemātik/), “institute” as “انستیتو” (/anstitū/) and “modular” as “ماژولار” (/māzhūlār/). At the same time, not all transferences are considered negative; they are even necessary like “computer” as “کامپیوتر” (/kāmپیūter/), “class” as “کلاس” (/kelās/) and “system” as “سیستم” (/sistem/).

Finally, the researchers could not make any claims about the extent of interference in the data; a standard threshold is needed for one to indicate if interference is high, normal, or low. But it could be concluded that, mistranslations are higher in appearance than bad translations. This is a negative point. It means that accuracy is more in danger than naturalness in the three translations while it occupies higher importance in translation than naturalness.

2) Syntactic interference

Syntactic interference was more difficult to specify than lexical interference. The researchers had to look for unusual syntactic patterns which were a sign of SL norms influence in translation.

In 100 sentences, the total number of recognized lexical and syntactic interference was as follows:

TABLE 13.
THE FREQUENCIES OF LEXICAL AND SYNTACTIC INTERFERENCE IN ALL TRANSLATIONS

	Ghomi	Salkhordeh	Hashemi
Lexical interference	89	98	96
Syntactic interference	33	32	27

The second research question – only related to interference – can be answered as follows:

As it is seen in the above table the frequency of syntactic interference in each translation is lower than that of lexical interference.

According to Newmark (1991), “Lexical interference is more dangerous than grammatical interference. Whilst the latter is usually stylistic, lexical interference can distort the meaning of a sentence.” Based on Newmark’s viewpoint, it could be concluded that it is a weakness for the three translations to suffer from lexical interference more than syntactic interference. This could partially explain why the translations of this special book are misleading in terms of the intended information.

b) Simplicity

1) Lexical simplicity

Regarding simplicity, the first major question to be answered about lexical terms (those suffering from interference in this study) is: “Is the term familiar to the reader? If not, is it explained sufficiently?” It is to be noted that the answers to these questions must have been sought in translations only. The objective was to check the simplicity of the text which

was to be used by readers. Even if a term had been explained sufficiently in the original text but the explanation was translated literally so that it was not clear enough for TL readers, the answer to the above questions is no.

Based on the above, the researchers checked lexical items one by one to see whether a translation is able to help its readers to understand a term without extra effort (like using other sources). In this respect, the researchers found that a term may be understandable without reference to external sources but that extra effort does exist: the reader had to search for the meaning of a term – refer to different chapters, going forward and backward throughout the book. For such cases as well, the answer was no. Nearly, half of the cases were not explained sufficiently in each translation.

The second question concerning simplicity was: “is ambiguity avoided?” Using the same equivalent for different terms could produce ambiguity. For example, Hashemi translated both the verbs “to develop” and “to extend” as “بسط دادن” (*bast dādan*). This results in confusion and must be avoided. Translation of both “job” and “task” as “کار” (*kār*) is another example.

2) Syntactic simplicity

Syntactic simplicity was checked by answering 5 questions. Two important points could be mentioned here:

- A sentence can be written in a simpler way;

In Salkhordeh and Hashemi most cases suffered from complexity whereas in Ghomi a need to change nominalizations to verbalizations and vice versa (the second case) is seen more than others.

- Passive constructions in many cases are better to be written as active.

The first research question can now be answered:

Comprehensibility is affected by interference in the following ways (they are numbered in order of severity):

Concerning lexical simplicity:

(1) Lexical interference results in terms which are not familiar to the target reader and such unfamiliar items are not explained sufficiently.

Translators' ignorance of meaning implications causes problems for target audience. Incomprehensibility and confusion is the result of translators' sticking to the surface structure;

(2) Lexical interference results in ambiguity. Lexical items may mislead a reader and make him/her infer a meaning which had not been originally intended by the author.

Concerning syntactic simplicity:

(1) Syntactic interference results in unnecessary long and complex sentences and structures which could affect comprehensibility. The reader may have to spend more time and effort to understand a sentence which could otherwise have been written in a simple and straightforward way;

(2) Syntactic interference results in nominalizations that could be written in the form of verbal constructions and sometimes vice versa so that it would be easier for the reader to understand the intended meaning;

(3) Syntactic interference results in ambiguous constructions; constructions which are very shaky in conveying the right meaning to the reader;

(4) Syntactic interference results in passive constructions that are better to be written in active form;

Lexical interference, together with syntactic interference, both denoting word for word translation, could result in unnatural ambiguous constructions which might be difficult to understand and even cause wrong perception. The present study thus aimed at focusing on the specific translation issue that technical translation is not only as difficult as other types like literary translation but also it even demands more attention and expertise.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The aim of the present study was to examine closely the translations of an academic technical text. The researchers had to set out with the level of lexis and syntax since they are prelude to further considerations for translation.. For this reason, the focus was laid on interference in translation because this phenomenon has been less touched upon in translation studies. Furthermore, there is a link among interference, word for word translation and surface structure – words and grammar. Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions can be driven:

Although without a threshold in hand one cannot conclude that the level of interference is high or low, the ratio of lexical and syntactic interferences (negative interference) to the amount of data was disappointing. The disappointment becomes worse when one realizes that interference mostly results in choosing wrong equivalents. When the accuracy of translation rather than its naturalness is endangered, the problem of negative interference is serious and must be noticed.

Regarding comprehensibility, interference does influence simplicity – one dimension of comprehensibility pertaining to lexis and syntax. This fact answers the questions “why do translations not satisfy students?” and “why do translations partially occupy an inferior place compared to original texts?” to some extent. The answer is that students do not feel themselves easy in reading and understanding translated texts. In fact, there was not much difference among the three translations regarding interference. This shows that the problem is not limited to one translator. ‘Meaning’ was in many cases the missing part of the translations under study.

Finally, the translators neglected the target language structure. Following the SL structure, they forgot that a long and complicated sentence could be stated in a very simple form; or a short structure in the SL text may have to be written in a longer form in the TL. They did not notice that the reader must first understand, and second feel himself/herself easy with the text since the book was a technical textbook based on which the student must learn and work. They did not

notice the preferred equivalents in the context. These are serious weaknesses in translation in general and in translation of technical textbooks in particular.

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The Impact of Collaborative Writing on the Writing Fluency of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—Writing is no longer an individual activity but an interactive process through which social abilities of the learners are reinforced. To promote interaction in the writing class, collaboration has been suggested to be advantageous. The present study aimed to examine the impact of practicing in pairs on the writing fluency of Iranian EFL learners. To this end, an OPT test was administered to female EFL learners according to which 90 homogenous learners at an intermediate level comprised the research sample. Afterwards, the participants were randomly divided into two groups including a control group of 30 students, each producing a written text individually and an experimental group of 60 learners working in pairs. Since each pair produced a single text, the numbers of texts rather than the number of participants was considered. In order to compare the data collected from two groups, a *t*-test was used. The results obtained from the essays written in the first session of the writing phase revealed that pairs produced less fluent texts than the individual writers. More specifically, the average number of words, T-units, and clauses in individual essays was less than that of pairs. The essays written in the last session revealed that there was a considerable improvement in the use of T-units and clauses produced by pairs; however, the fluency of the written texts was not noticeably significant in comparison with the fluency of essays produced by the individuals. The findings also revealed that practicing in pairs did improve the overall quality of the learners' writing productions even though the fluency of written texts did not change significantly.

Index Terms—collaboration in writing, individual and pair work, fluency

I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to write effectively and fluently in English is becoming increasingly important in today's modern world, since communication through language has become more and more essential. Writing is known as an important skill for multifarious reasons in education and business. In fact, it plays a significant role in personal and professional life. Consequently, it has become one of the major requirements in English for General Purposes (EGP) as well as English for Academic Purposes (EAP) syllabi. Evidently, the pedagogical purposes of writing range from improving, training, and practicing language in the early stages of learning to communicating fluently and accurately at intermediate and more advanced levels (Raimes, 1987).

Indubitably, writing is a complicated process through which ideas are created and expressed. Learning to write in a foreign language is even harder and it takes a considerable amount of time and effort to write skillfully. To become a skillful writer, the role of English writing instruction in foreign language education is quite prominent (Weigle, 2002). Admittedly, composing an accurate and fluent paragraph is by no means an easy task. Since learning to write is an inseparable part of language learning without which effective acquisition cannot be obtained, writing has been drawing more and more attention in language teaching and learning. In fact, writing is mostly a hard-laden task and skill for both native and non-native speakers, Iranian EFL learners being no exception. Over the last decade, research on writing has received a lot of ink in the review of the literature and it has been regarded as one of the most important communicative skills in English language teaching (see Hayes & Flower, 1986; Sharples, Goodlet, & Pymberton, 1989).

Over time, the interest in a more communicative approach to language teaching has resulted in the growth of pair work in second language contexts (see Hawkey, 2004). This provides language learners with opportunities to interact in collaborative situations, in which two or more learners do activities together. For a situation to be collaborative, the pairs should be more or less at the same level. According to Roschelle and Teasley (1995), collaboration is a coordinated, synchronous activity that results from a continued endeavor attempt to build and maintain a shared conception of a problem. It has been said that students can learn best in a more learner-centered, collaborative learning context compared with individualistic and competitive learning settings (D. W. Johnson & R. T. Johnson, 1994). Learners participate actively in a collaborative learning context and construct their linguistic knowledge through interacting with other learners. AS such, Boud (2001) has introduced the term *peer learning* as an effective way for pairs to learn from and with each other.

Although writing is generally considered an individual activity through which ideas are transmitted from an addressor to an addressee, collaboration in writing has been drawing an increasing attention in language teaching and

assessment (e.g., DiCamilla & Anton, 1997; Storch, 2005; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Collaborative writing, which is maximizing learners' engagement and involvement in language learning practices, has turned into a value-laden, purposeful, and communicative objective. This collaboration provides the students with opportunities to interact and challenge their language knowledge in a more effective learning environment (J. Willis, 1996). However, collaboration makes the writing task more difficult compared to individual writing. To reduce such complexity, the present study makes use of pair writing in which only two students collaborate and interact to create a composition.

Topping (2001) defines paired writing as a structured system for effective learning in writing. Since the paired or group approach is potentially a viable alternative which addresses some of the concerns surrounding the more traditional approaches, the purpose of this study is to investigate how learners working together perform in a writing task. Therefore, the goal was to collect a sample of Iranian EFL learners writing at an intermediate level working in pairs and then compare them with another writing sample of EFL learners working individually. The basic assumption behind the research was to find out the effect of collaboration on the writing fluency. This has been previously done by Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) on EFL advanced-level learners but the writers focused on collaboration in an assessment context. As a result, the present study aimed to investigate whether collaboration between members of a pair helps them to write more fluent texts through interacting, giving and receiving feedback from each other. Similarly, the current study also tried to examine the influence of collaboration and pair working for duration of seven sessions to compare the degree of improvement in the writing fluency of text written individually or in pairs.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Writing as the visual channel and the productive mode of language is a vital skill for the L2 learners to develop their language knowledge and the teaching of this skill has become central in second language classrooms (Hyland, 2003). Writing, like listening, is often slighted in language classes. Especially because of the powerful influence of audio-lingual method in ELT, the oral skills have received major attention and writing has been considered less important (Matsuda, 2003). This view toward writing makes speaking the focus of language teaching in the classroom. However, White (1981, as cited in Nunan, 1989) suggests that writing should be taught separately from speaking in L2 learning.

Thus writing, as a way of expressing ideas, thinking, and learning content (J. Foster, 2008), must be regarded as an essential tool for language learning as well as communication (Tynjala, Mason, & Lonka, 2001; Weigle, 2002). Hudelson (1988) states that L2 learners can learn how the target language works through producing language output. According to Hinkel and Fotos (2002), the role of language output in L2 learning is not less than language input because one has to be understood, as well as to be able to understand while communicating.

Along with the shift from the teacher-centered classroom to the student-centered acquisition of communicative competence, communicative approaches encourage the language students to learn the second language through contextualized and meaningful communication. Collaborative learning as a system of concrete teaching and learning techniques underlying the communicative language teaching emphasizes active interaction between students with different skills and background knowledge (Tsai, 1998). Collaborative learning is a situation in which two or more people interact with each other to trigger learning mechanisms (Dillenbourg, 1999).

In the same vein, Social constructionists claim that knowledge is negotiated and best acquired through interaction (Kurt & Atay, 2007). One of the most well-known theories of interaction is Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which refers to the discrepancy between the student's actual developmental level and potential or proximal level (Vygotsky, 1978).

Collaborative learning focusing the active role of students in the class has owed much credit to constructivism. The main focus of constructivism has been student-centered learning (Cheek, 1992; Yager, 1991). Constructivism embraces Vygotsky's perspective regarding social interaction as well as Piaget's approach to learning in which students play an active role to learn on their own. It is evident that L2 learners take accountability for their own learning, especially when they contribute to collaborative language output activities. Tsui (1995) defines SLA as:

Input refers to the language used by the teacher, output refers to language produced by learners and interaction refers to the interrelationship between input and output with no assumption of a linear cause and effect relationship between the two. (p. 121)

Since a great deal of attention has been paid to input and interaction in SLA (Gass, 1997), researchers have perceived that L2 learners should be also placed in situations of producing target language (see Gass & Selinker, 2008, for a review of input, interaction, and output research). Swain (2005) states that learners' speaking or writing facilitates language learning when engaging in collaborative learning activities. Participants make use of problem-solving dialogue to solve their linguistic problems regarding the task. Furthermore, collaborative dialogue forms an important part of peer interaction.

A great number of studies in L2 have established that interaction enhances the collaborative learning experience of learners (Doughty & Long, 2003; Gass & Mackey, 2006; Gass & Selinker, 2008). It is evident that learning occurs when students participate actively in collaborative activities. Along with the shift from the teacher-centered to learner-centered classrooms in CLT, group work has applied to learning contexts with the aim of intensifying communication and interaction (Sullivan, 2000). With the emerging of TBLT, group work emphasis on peer interaction has resulted in

more negotiation for meaning (Pica, Holliday, Lewis, & Morgenthaler, 1989). Ohta (2001) reported that peer interaction in a classroom corpus of adults learning Japanese increased their accuracy due to peer feedback and peer correction.

Morris (2008) points out that based on ZPD, peer feedback can help the learner to move from an actual level to a potential level. Peer feedback provides opportunities for the learners to negotiate meaning, to give comments and suggestions, and to make corrections (Jiao, 2007; Kamimura, 2006; Y. Zeng, 2006) so that they can find their strengths and weaknesses (Hyland, 2003; Spear, 1988; Williams, 1957). Peer feedback requires collaborative dialogue in which two parties negotiate meaning to foster language learning (Rollinson, 2005). Peer learning is a two-way reciprocal activity in which peers of the same level learn from and with each other (Boud, 2001). Since learners in peer collaboration follow a single goal, they share their cognitive resources, modifying solutions, and make joint decisions.

Although classroom peer interaction may not always result in peer learning (Kumpulainen & Wray, 2002), more recent studies on peer-peer interaction have shown that it facilitates both peer and language learning (Lantolf, 2000). Swain and Lapkin (1998) examined peer learning in a French immersion classroom through applying a story construction task. They found that learners' accuracy was developed because of peer-peer interaction. In an examination of negotiation for meaning and correction feedback, Oliver (2002) found that peer interaction among 5- to 7-year-old L2 children could lead to language learning improvement. Pinter (2005, 2007) also examined 10 year-old Hungarian EFL children who benefited from peer-peer interaction and developed their social and independent skills. There is no doubt that peer interaction enhances social relationships as well as linguistic knowledge. On the other hand, peer feedback increases learners' motivation toward language learning because they feel more confident and less anxious (Tapping as cited by Kurt & Atay, 2007).

Applying pair work to classroom context is more practical than group work since two students can learn to work effectively on activities and they can more easily come to an agreement with each other. It is obvious that pair work offers language learners with more chances to use the language. In a study on pair work activities, Macaro (1997) notified that pair interaction promoted L2 use in a two-way information exchange in contrast to a large group exchange. Storch and Wigglesworth (2007) also reported that learners working in pairs outperformed those working individually.

Cooper (1986) expresses that writing is not only a cognitive activity but a social activity which requires L2 students to interact and discuss ideas in pairs or small groups. Since L2 writing is an invaluable process and product, requiring social exchange of meaning, there is a need to find out the importance of collaboration in L2 learning.

In 2000s, researchers like Y. Zeng (2006), Kamimura (2006), Jiao (2007), and Hirose (2009) studied the influence of peer feedback in L2 writing. They stated that peer feedback had positive impact on students' writing. Although Hong (2006) found that students' attitude toward peer feedback activity in L2 was negative, Jacobs, Curtis, Braine, and Huang (1998) believed that students usually accept peer feedback in writing because feedback which is given by peers makes them feel more comfortable and confident in the writing learning environment. Rollinson (2005) mentions that peer feedback in ESL writing is recently used in learning context because of its social, cognitive, affective and methodological advantages. In contrast to teacher feedback which is product-oriented occurring at the end of the task (Lee, 2009), peer feedback is given during the task as a process, so it is more conducive and practical.

It is clearly observed that the role of peer interaction, peer feedback and socialization is important in learning language skills, more specifically writing skill. All in all, it is essential for the teachers to notice the usefulness of letting students to assist with each other in improving their language knowledge.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Although the role of writing in language learning, if not more, is not less than the role of the other three language skills, it has long been ignored. Compared with the other three language skills, writing seems to be too difficult and time-consuming to teach, so little attention has been given to teach and practice writing in the class (D. Zeng, 2005). Students need enough knowledge to create and generate ideas in order to write a composition. In Iranian educational system even private language institutes, students receive little practice in writing in English. Due to students' limited proficiency, time limitation, and poor motivation, writing still remains a big hurdle. Considering learners are always hesitant to make grammatical mistakes, Al-Jarf (2007) found that peer support and feedback could help the learners to reduce such stress and improve their language knowledge as well.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

The purpose of this study is to investigate the utility of collaborative writing, more specifically pair writing and its effect on the writing performance of Iranian EFL learners at an intermediate proficiency level. The main focus is the students' writing development in the case of fluency. To this end, this study addresses the following research questions.

1. Is there any difference between the degree of *fluency* of the essays produced by Iranian intermediate EFL learners working in pairs and those of learners working individually?
2. Does pair work influence the degree of improvement in fluency of the writing tasks?

Based on these research questions, the following null hypotheses were designed:

H₀₁: There is no difference between the degree of *fluency* of the essays produced by Iranian intermediate EFL learners working in pairs and those of learners working individually.

H₀₂: Pair work does not influence the degree of improvement in fluency of the writing tasks.

V. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were selected from the population of Iranian EFL students studying English in one of the institutes in Isfahan (Iran). An OPT test was administered to choose 90 participants with an intermediate level of proficiency. The reason for selecting intermediate students is that they were required to write essays of 250 words and it is believed that students of elementary with low level of L2 proficiency cannot write scripts with significant difference. On the other hand, advanced students are so developed that may not provide a clear picture of the effect of pair versus individual writing. They were all native speakers of Persian who learned English as a foreign language. This study was carried out in summer 2010 and conducted with Iranian female English learners only whose age range was from 18 to 30. Their average age was 24 years.

The sample population was divided into two groups; namely, control and experimental. From the 90 intermediate learners selected as the result of proficiency test, 30 were randomly assigned to the control group and 60 served as the experimental group. The reason why the number of the participants in the experimental group was twice that of the control group was because the participants in the experimental group were required to write paired assignments; as a consequence, the number of writings rather than of the participants was regarded as the accessible samples.

B. Design

An OPT test was utilized for assigning the students randomly to control and experimental groups. All participants were then taught how to develop an essay through an instruction phase during which they were asked to complete, seven writing tasks.

C. Material

This study enlisted two kinds of materials. First, an OPT (Oxford Placement Test) test was administered to choose 90 EFL learners at an intermediate level of proficiency. The language proficiency test consisted of 100 listening and 100 grammar test items. The subjects were chosen on the basis of their scores on the OPT test, that is, those participants who scored 120-149 for intermediate level. Second, seven writing tasks were completed by the learners within seven sessions. Afterwards, 60 written texts, 30 of which produced by 30 individuals and another 30 by 60 students working in pairs in the first session as well as 60 essays of the last session were manually typed into a computer. The AntConc 3.2.1 w software was employed to count the number of words.

D. Procedure

This study consisted of two phases, an instruction phase and a writing phase respectively. In the instruction phase which lasted for seven sessions, the objective was to provide all the participants with somehow the same background knowledge about paragraph development and essay writing. Afterwards, the two samples were randomly assigned to the control and experimental groups.

The control group consisted of 30 learners who were asked to write essays individually. However, the 60 students of the experimental group completed the writing tasks in pairs. Since each pair was writing one text, 30 texts were produced by 60 learners in each session. The writing phase also took seven sessions, in which different topics of general interest were given to both groups. What the learners were asked to write in each session was an essay of about 250 words under time limitation. According to Storch (2005), pairs need more time to complete tasks; as a result, the pairs were given 90 minutes each session to write an essay while the individuals were given 60 minutes. At the end of the sessions, the first and the last essays were examined in terms of fluency.

VI. RESULTS

A. Null Hypothesis/H₀₁

H₀₁: There is no difference between the degree of *fluency* of the essays produced by Iranian intermediate EFL learners working in pairs and those of learners working individually. Fluency of essays written by individuals was compared with that of essays produced by pairs through measuring the average number of words, T-units, and clauses per text. The following tables show the results of the comparison for the words, T-units, and clauses as well as the fluency.

1. First Session Essays

Table I incorporates the descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the means regarding the essays written by all participants in the first session of writing phase.

TABLE I.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR SUB-MEASURES OF FLUENCY IN THE FIRST SESSION ESSAYS

	x7	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Words	Individual essays	30	257.10	27.174	24.972
	Pair essays	30	249.90	24.972	4.559
T-units	Individual essays	30	16.53	3.839	.701
	Pair essays	30	17.10	3.078	.562
Clauses	Individual essays	30	24.00	3.206	.585
	Pair essays	30	24.70	3.261	.595

TABLE II.
INDEPENDENT SAMPEES T-TESTS OF SUB-MEASURES OF FLUENCY

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					(2-tailed)			Lower	Upper
Words	1.066	.306	1.069	58	.290	7.200	6.738	-6.288	20.688
T-units	2.073	.155	-.631	58	.531	-.567	.898	-2.365	1.232
Clauses	.069	.794	-.839	58	.405	-.700	.835	-2.371	.971

Note. Equal variances assumed

Since the two means obtained from two independent groups of students were compared, Independent Samples *t*-test was used for analyzing the data. Table II, by contrast, shows the results of the Independent Samples *t* test according to the means of words, T-units, and clauses for individual and pair essays. For words, the level of significance was 0.290 (bolded in Table II, under [Sig/2-tailed] column); the difference between the two groups was not significant. It means that there is no significant difference between individual and pair essays regarding the average number of words in the first session. The *p*-value for T-units ($p = 0.531$) was greater than the selected significance level of .05; therefore, the difference in the means of the two groups was not significant. The same result was obtained for clauses. As can be seen, the *p*-value for clauses was 0.405 and thus, the difference between the two means was not statistically significant at the 5% level of significance.

TABLE III.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR TEXT FLUENCY

	x7	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Fluency	Individual essays	30	102.1005	11.61427	2.12047
	Pair essays	30	100.0188	10.66587	1.94731

Table III illustrates the descriptive statistics of fluency as a single measure for the two groups. As can be seen, the difference in the means is not significant.

TABLE IV.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF FLUENCY BY PAIRS AND INDIVIDUALS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					(2-tailed)			Lower	Upper
Fluency	.845	.362	.723	58	.473	2.08171	2.87896	-3.68115	7.84457

Note. Equal variances assumed

Table IV reveals the results of Independent Samples *t* test based on the mean of fluency in individual and pair essays written during the first session. Considering significance value $p < .05$, the difference between the mean of fluency in the two groups is not significant ($p = 0.473$).

2. Last Session Essays

The following tables express the results obtained from the analysis of essays produced by two groups of individuals and pairs in the last session of writing phase.

TABLE V.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR SUB-MEASURES OF FLUENCY IN THE LAST SESSION ESSAYS

	x7	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Words	Individual essays	30	294.23	32.149	5.870
	Pair essays	30	289.47	31.075	5.673
T-units	Individual essays	30	20.50	2.360	.431
	Pair essays	30	22.00	2.901	.530
Clauses	Individual essays	30	31.00	3.543	.647
	Pair essays	30	37.90	3.458	.631

Table V shows descriptive statistics for the two groups. Measures of fluency including words, T-units, and clauses were analyzed separately. Although the mean score of words in individual essays was higher than that of words in pair essays, the mean scores for T-units and clauses were higher in pair essays.

TABLE VI.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF SUB-MEASURES OF FLUENCY

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					(2-tailed)			Lower	Upper
Words	.009	.926	.584	58	.562	4.767	8.163	-11.574	21.107
T-units	.980	.326	-2.197	58	.032	-1.500	.683	-2.867	-.133
Clauses	.005	.941	-7.634	58	.000	-6.900	.904	-8.709	-5.091

Note. Equal variances assumed

Table VI reveals the results of the Independent Samples *t* test which was done on both groups according to the mean of words, T-units, and clauses. Considering significance value $p < .05$, there was no significant difference between the mean of words in essays written by individuals and those written by pairs. The p -value for T-units equals 0.032 which is less than the significance level of .05. It can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the mean of T-units in individual and pair essays. For clauses, the p -value is 0.000 which shows clauses were used significantly more in pair essays than in individual essays. As a whole, the average number of T-units and clauses for pairs were higher than those of the individuals.

TABLE VII.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR TEXT FLUENCY

	x7	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Fluency	Individual essays	30	115.2444	12.38771	2.26168
	Pair essays	30	116.4556	12.24729	2.23604

The descriptive statistics of fluency have been shown in Table VII. Looking at fluency as a single measure, the difference between the two means is not significant.

TABLE VIII.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR FLUENCY BY PAIRS AND INDIVIDUALS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					(2-tailed)			Lower	Upper
Fluency	.065	.800	-.381	58	.705	-1.21111	3.18042	-7.57741	5.15518

Note. Equal variances assumed

Table VIII shows the results of the Independent Samples *t* test according to the mean of fluency for individual and pair essays. Considering the alpha level $p < .05$, there was no significant difference between the fluency of essays written by individuals and that of essays written by pairs in the last session.

Based on the results drawn from the study, there was no significant difference between the mean of fluency in individual and pair essays written in the first session of writing phase; therefore, null hypothesis H_{01} was not rejected in this regard. Although there was a significant difference between the average number of T-units and clauses of individual and pair essays in the last session of writing phase, the difference between the mean of fluency as a single measure was not significant. Thus, null hypothesis H_{01} was again not rejected for the texts written in the last session.

B. Null Hypothesis/H₀₂

H_{02} : Pair work does not influence the degree of improvement in fluency of the writing tasks. To this point, the fluency of the scripts produced by individuals and pairs in the first session of the writing phase and in the last session has been analyzed separately. At this stage, it is noteworthy to investigate what is the difference in percentage. To put it differently, the aim of posing the last research question was to find out the effect of pair work on the degree of improvement in fluency of the writing task. For this purpose, the essays written by individuals in the first session of the writing phase have been compared with those produced by them in the last session in terms of mean for each measure. The same was done for the scripts written by the pairs in the first and last session of the writing phase. What has been said so far can be better illustrated in the following tables. Each table is further followed by some figures which display the degree of improvement in percentage. It should be kept in mind that the results will be presented within two tables first of which referring to the sub-measures of fluency and the second one to the fluency as a single unit.

In Table IX, the essays written in the first and last session of the writing phase are compared with regard to the average number of words, T-units, and clauses per text. As can be seen, the means for all measures in the last essays produced by all learners, either individuals or pairs, were higher than those in the first essays.

TABLE IX.
MEANS VALUES OF SUB-MEASURS OF FLUENCY IN THE FIRST AND LAST WRITING TASKS

Groups	First Writing Mean	Last Writing Mean
Words		
Individual essays	257.1	294.23
Pair essays	249.9	289.47
T-units		
Individual essays	16.53	20.5
Pair essays	17.1	22
Clauses		
Individual essays	24	31
Pair essays	24.7	37.9

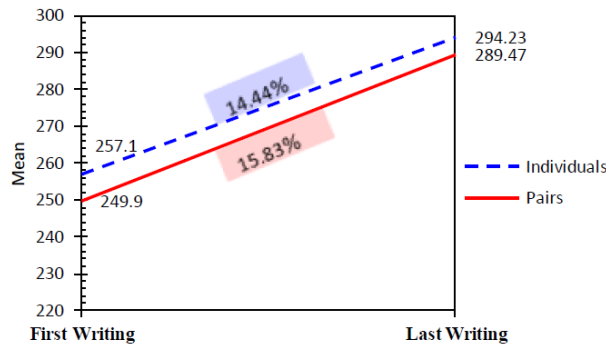


Figure 1. Degree of Improvement in Word Use

The above figure shows that there was a rising order in the average number of words per text for both groups. In comparison with pairs, individuals used more words in both sessions. However, the difference between two groups for the rates of improvement in the use of words in percentage was not noticeable.

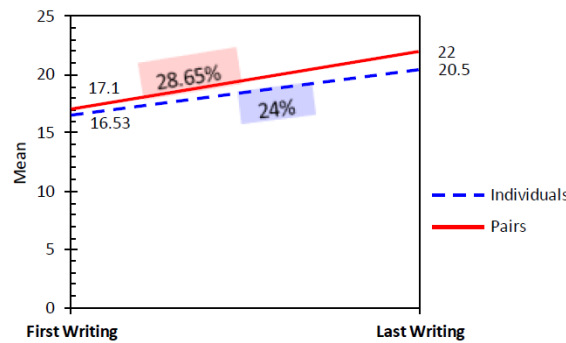


Figure 2. Degree of Improvement in T-unit Use

Figure 2 is the illustration of using T-units in the first and the last writings produced by individuals and pairs. The average number of T-units was more in the last writing which shows an increasing trend in the chart. Considering the percentage of improvement, the pairs had improved about 4.5% more than the individuals with regard to the use of T-units.

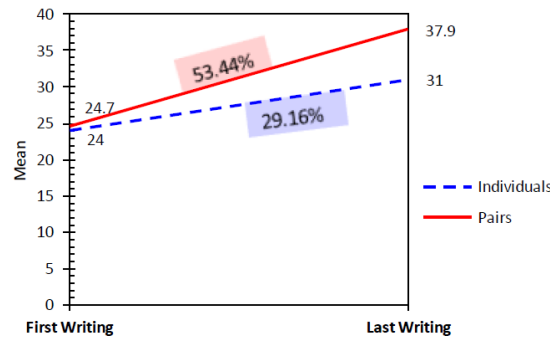


Figure 3. Degree of Improvement in Clause Use

According to Figure 3, the average number of clauses per text for the first essays written by pairs and individuals was almost the same. Although progress can be seen in both groups, the degree of improvement in the use of clauses was higher for pairs than individuals. Pairs had progressed about 24% more than individuals in this regard. This difference in percentage was significant.

TABLE X.
MEAN VALUES OF TEXT FLUENCY FOR THE FIRST AND LAST WRITING TASKS

Groups	First Writing Mean	Last Writing Mean
Individual essays	102.1005	119.5233
Pair essays	100.0188	120.3123

Table X expresses the mean of fluency as a whole in the essays written by individuals and pairs during the first and the last sessions.

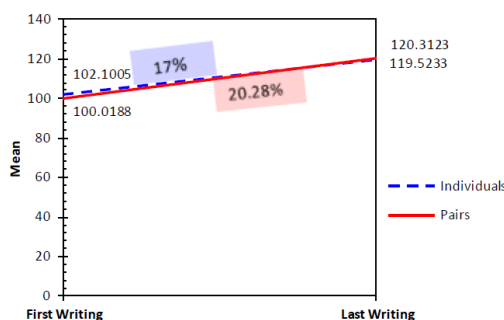


Figure 4. Degree of Improvement in Text Fluency

As it can be seen in Figure 4, the texts produced in the last session are more fluent than those produced in the first session. However, the percentage of improvement between the two groups was not significant.

VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Referring to the first question of this study about the difference between scripts produced by individuals versus pairs in terms of fluency, Table II and IV show that there is no difference between the fluency of the individual essays and pair essays ($p = 0.473$) in the first session of the writing phase. (It is here worthy to mention that for the null hypothesis to be rejected, the observed value of p must be smaller than the significance level of .05 [$p < .05$]. If the observed p -value is equal or greater than the significance level of .05, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected.) Since the p -value for fluency of the texts written in the first session is 0.473 and it is greater than .05, the null hypothesis cannot be rejected in this regard. This is supported by the study of Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) in an assessment context according to which performance for both groups were similar across all measures of fluency. Therefore, working collaboratively for only one session has not affected the fluency of the texts. Table VI and VIII reveals the results of all sub-measures of fluency and fluency itself respectively for the essays written in the last session. Even after practicing for more six sessions, pairs have not produced more fluent texts than individuals ($p = 0.705$). Although the fluency of the texts for both groups is similar based on Table VIII, Table VI shows that pairs have used more T-units ($p = 0.32$) and clauses ($p = 0.000$) than individuals as a result of practicing in pairs for seven sessions. Generally speaking, collaboration in pair writing task does not lead to producing more fluent texts in comparison with individual writing.

According to the second question put forward in this study, one can see the effect of pair work on the degree of improvement in fluency of the writing tasks. Figures 1, 2, and 3 illustrate the rate of improvement for the three sub-measures of fluency including words, T-units, and clauses. As it can be conveyed in Figure 1, each group has developed a growth in number of used words; however, the difference between the degrees of improvement for the average number of words used per text is not noticeable (14.44% in individual essays and 15.83% in pair essays). This figure also shows that collaboration not only has not helped the pairs to use more words per text but also slowed down their writing pace. According to Figure 2, there is a rising tendency in the use of T-units by individuals (24%) and pairs (28.65%). Considering the percentage of T-unit improvement, collaboration has provided the pairs with the opportunity to progress about 4.5% more than individuals. One of the most appreciable results gained from the data in this study is the effect of collaboration in pair work on using more clauses per text (Figure 3). Individuals have developed 29.16% while pairs have developed 53.44% whose difference is about 24%. We can conclude that the degree of improvement in the use of clauses for individuals is about half as much as pairs. Regarding the sub-measures of fluency, collaboration leads to learners improvement in T-units and clauses but not words. Figure 4 shows that fluency of individual texts has developed 17% whereas fluency of pair texts has developed about 20%.

In summary, this study was designed to investigate the effect of pair working on the fluency of scripts written by Iranian intermediate learners. The findings imply that although there was rising progress in the use of T-units and clauses by pairs, the fluency of the written texts was not significant enough in comparison to the fluency of essays produced by individuals.

APPENDIX A: NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE OF EACH MEASURE IN INDIVIDUAL ESSAYS FOR THE FIRST SESSION OF THE WRITING PHASE

Individuals	Words	T-units	Clauses
1	295	23	28
2	289	23	29
3	287	22	29
4	286	22	30
5	285	21	28
6	284	21	27
7	284	20	27
8	281	20	26
9	281	19	27
10	279	19	26
11	278	18	25
12	274	18	24
13	273	17	25
14	272	17	24
15	271	16	24

Individuals	Words	T-units	Clauses
16	264	16	22
17	253	16	23
18	251	15	23
19	245	15	23
20	239	15	21
21	235	14	24
22	233	14	22
23	231	13	22
24	228	13	23
25	227	13	21
26	224	12	20
27	220	12	20
28	219	11	20
29	215	11	19
30	210	10	18

APPENDIX B: NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE OF EACH MEASURE IN PAIR ESSAYS FOR THE FIRST SESSION OF THE WRITING PHASE

Pairs	Words	T-units	Clauses
1	287	23	30
2	283	21	30
3	279	21	29
4	278	20	29
5	275	20	28
6	274	20	27
7	271	20	26
8	270	19	28
9	269	19	27
10	267	19	27
11	265	19	26
12	264	19	25
13	263	18	28
14	261	18	26
15	258	18	25

Pairs	Words	T-units	Clauses
16	255	18	24
17	254	17	25
18	249	17	24
19	248	16	24
20	237	16	23
21	231	16	21
22	228	15	23
23	225	15	22
24	224	14	22
25	221	14	23
26	220	13	21
27	218	13	20
28	212	12	20
29	207	12	19
30	204	11	19

APPENDIX C: NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE OF EACH MEASURE IN INDIVIDUAL ESSAYS FOR THE LAST SESSION OF THE WRITING PHASE

Individuals	Words	T-units	Clauses
31	335	28	36
32	334	25	35
33	331	23	35
34	329	23	33
35	327	23	34
36	325	22	32
37	322	22	30
38	321	22	34
39	319	21	34
40	318	21	35
41	316	21	33
42	314	21	30
43	313	21	29
44	311	20	33
45	307	20	34

Individuals	Words	T-units	Clauses
46	299	20	32
47	294	20	29
48	288	20	31
49	283	20	33
50	281	19	34
51	278	19	33
52	276	19	29
53	265	19	32
54	265	19	28
55	264	19	27
56	259	18	26
57	247	18	24
58	245	18	25
59	241	17	26
60	220	17	24

APPENDIX D: NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE OF EACH MEASURE IN PAIR ESSAYS FOR THE LAST SESSION OF THE WRITING PHASE

Pairs	Words	T-units	Clauses
31	341	29	45
32	332	27	42
33	329	26	43
34	328	25	41
35	325	24	42
36	324	24	43
37	322	24	38
38	319	24	41
39	315	24	35
40	312	23	40
41	311	23	38
42	309	23	40
43	305	23	37
44	299	22	41
45	289	22	40

Pairs	Words	T-units	Clauses
46	288	22	39
47	280	22	37
48	270	21	36
49	271	21	36
50	266	21	34
51	264	21	35
52	262	20	35
53	261	20	35
54	259	20	40
55	258	20	34
56	255	19	36
57	252	19	35
58	249	19	34
59	245	17	34
60	244	15	31

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An Empirical Investigation of the Critical Factors Affecting Students' Satisfaction in EFL Blended Learning

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Abstract—The present study intended to examine to what extent students are satisfied with EFL (English as a Foreign Language) blended learning and identify factors affecting students' satisfaction in EFL blended learning. This study used SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) and questionnaire as research instrument. Data was collected from 360 first-year non-English major undergraduates and postgraduates in Dalian University of Technology (DUT). The findings were: 1. In general, students showed positive attitude towards EFL blended learning model. They are greatly satisfied with this model and willing to study in EFL blended learning environment. 2. Postgraduate students showed higher satisfaction than undergraduate students. 3. Learning climate, perceived enjoyment, perceived usefulness, system functionality, social interaction, content feature and performance expectation are significantly related to students' satisfaction in EFL blended learning. This study provided more evidence for study on students' satisfaction in EFL blended learning in China. Additionally, constructive suggestions for English Teaching in China were put forward so as to give full play to the advantages of blended learning.

Index Terms—EFL blended learning, students' satisfaction, factors

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditional mode of classroom teaching invariably play the dominated role in teaching. With the advancement and innovation of information and technology, teaching terms such as distance education, online-learning or web-based learning were put forward. Although they shed light on teaching practice, there also exist some disadvantages. The educators are therefore triggered to seek a better and more effective learning environment that integrates the merits of traditional teaching and online-learning to stimulate even enhance teaching and learning process. Consequently, a novel educational concept called blended learning was developed and regarded as the most promising learning approach. (Graham, 2006). Chances are that the combination of both traditional environment and online environment integrates the merits of two approaches ideally. Indeed, blended learning enjoys a wealth of advantages for instance: instructional richness, access to knowledge content, social interaction, personal agency, cost effectiveness and ease of revision (Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003).

With the advent of blended learning, many colleges and universities start to put blended learning method into teaching practice because it is an increasingly prevalent methodology in effective course delivery. Once the blended learning is employed, additional questions also arise. Are the students willing or reluctant to accept this new learning approach? Do students perceive this new approach as positive or negative? Then some scholars embarked on figuring out how students view or perceive blended learning (Akkoyunlu & Soylyu, 2006; Giannousi, Vernadakis, Derri, Maria, Michalopoulos & Kioumourtzoglou, 2009; Abdulrasool, Mishra & Khalaf, 2010). Researches indicated that most EFL students show positive attitude towards EFL blended learning. (Al-Jarf 2007; Harrington, 2010; Adas & Shmais, 2011). In Chinese higher education, blended e-learning is only at an early stage. (Zhao, 2008). It is significant to know what Chinese students think of this brand-new approach. Numerous domestic scholars studied how Chinese student perceive blended learning environment (Gao, 2007; Zhao, 2008; Chen, 2010; Zhao & Yuan, 2010). However, only few studies specifically discussed factors affecting students' satisfaction in blended learning, especially in EFL blended learning. Much as scholars have study on it (McDonald, 2004; Aska, Altun, Ilgaz, 2008; Ahmed, 2010; Wu, Tennyson, Hsia, 2010; Zhao & Yuan, 2010), their researches are quite limited and less comprehensive. Therefore, in-depth and comprehensive studies are demanded to find the best answers.

This research, from the students' perspective, attempts to figure out the critical factors that exert influence on students' satisfaction in blended learning and aims to establish a tentative model under the guidance of Social Cognitive Theory, Theory of Planned Behavior and Technology Acceptance Model to account for causal relationship between those factors and the students' satisfaction in blended learning. In short, this study intends to seek answers to questions as follows:

1. What do students think of blended learning environment? Are they willing to adopt EFL blended learning?
2. What factors affect students' satisfaction in EFL blended learning environment?

Meanwhile, it is with the hope that the findings of this research will provide insight into developing more effective learning system and shed light on blended teaching practice in current English teaching environment.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Blended Learning*

Though the name of blended learning has been widely used in literature, there are still some alternative names such as mixed learning, hybrid learning and blended e-learning. Various definitions of blended learning are existed in literature. The definitions vary from different scholars.

It is pointed out that blended learning concentrates on perfectly realizing learning objectives by utilizing the suitable personal learning method to watch the best learning style to transfer the appropriate learning skills to the potential student at the correct time. (Singh, 2003). Blended learning is the integration of the advantages of both traditional learning method and e-learning, so it can display professors' guidance and develop students' initiatives in the meantime. (He, 2004). Blended learning could be simply defined as a desirable e-learning environment with traditional learning. That is to say, blended learning takes advantage of various delivery methods to perfectly achieve the course objectives (Akkoyunlu & Soylu, 2006). Graham regarded blended learning as the combination of traditional face-to-face learning and e-learning (Graham, 2006).

In general, blended learning refers to a pedagogical approach that combines multiple learning delivery means with traditional classroom teaching to perfect teaching efficiency and effectiveness. In this research, blended learning is to depict students' learning through traditional classroom teaching with an online EFL self-access system. The EFL self-access system is a software environment developed by DUT that provides English learning materials and resources and self-learning management for students.

B. *Students' Satisfaction*

Satisfaction has become a gauge to evaluate training effectiveness in company and learning effectiveness in teaching. It has been often used as one of the important parameter to judge students' attitude in researches related to learning and assess learning effectiveness in academic institution. Students' satisfaction a vital indicator to estimate teaching effectiveness in a blended learning. (Akkoyunlu & Soylu, 2006). Even though blended learning has been acknowledged as a crucial term to evaluate learning process, the concept is still complex to define and measure.

Knowles deemed that learning satisfaction represents that students are content with current learning. Joyful or delightful attitude means satisfaction. (Knowles, 1970). Long maintained that learning satisfaction means students' positive attitude or feeling during the learning process (Long, 1989). LaPointe and Guawardena offered their definition of blended learning which highlighted students' intention for follow-up learning: a positive or negative emotional experience to the learning environment and an in-depth thought for follow-up involvement in learning activities (LaPointe & Guawardena, 2004). Students' satisfaction has been defined as the integration of learners' attitudes and perceptions that come from combining all the benefits that learners expect to gain from interaction with the blended e-learning system (Wu, Tennyson, Hsia, 2010).

Several factors which influence students' satisfaction in blended learning have been identified. Jacquelin McDonald (2004) indicated that compatibility with learning style and perceived usefulness were two important causes for satisfaction while perceived risk to study performance and time-consuming print were undesirable factors for satisfaction. Petek Askar and Arif Altun Hale Ilgaz (2008) confirmed there are six factors related to learner satisfaction: learner-learner and learner-teacher interaction, online environment, technical support, printed materials and face to face environment. Hassan M. Selim Ahmed (2010) used instructor characteristics, information technology infrastructure and organizational and technical support to assess hybrid e-learning acceptance. Jen-Her Wu, Robert D. Tennyson, Tzyh-Lih Hsia (2010) pointed out six factors which influence students' satisfaction in blended learning: computer self efficacy, performance expectations, system functionality, content feature, interaction and learning climate. Guodong Zhao & Shuai Yuan (2010) pointed out that students' satisfaction is closely related to e-learning adaptability, perceived usefulness, timely response from the teachers, perceived ease of use and course applicability.

C. *Factors Involved in This Study*

1. Self-efficacy and Performance Expectation

Social cognitive theory which was put forward by Bandura (1986) is well received. It is a great theory to explain and predict human behavior. Self-efficacy and Performance Expectation are two critical elements in Social Cognitive Theory. In this study, self-efficacy can be defined as students' assessment of their abilities to organize and implement activities required to specific performance, it is not only related to the skills one possesses but also the assessment of what one enable to do with skills one possess. Performance expectations can be defined as students' anticipation concerning ideal rewards after certain behavior. It is no doubt that students are willing to do what will assist them to obtain desirable achievement in study as they hoped.

2. Perceived Behavioral Control and Subjective Norm

Theory of Planned Behavior deals with the relationship between attitudes and behavior(Ajzen, 1980). Ajzen put forward this theory for explaining human behavior. Perceived behavioral control and subjective norm are two key concepts. In this study, perceived behavioral control is students' perception of ease or difficulty of acting certain behavior. In other words, it means students' perceptions of internal and external conditions to perform certain behavior. Internal behavioral conditions include students' skills and knowledge, while external behavioral conditions contain the resources and opportunities available to students for carrying out certain behavior. Subjective norm refers to students' perception of social normative pressures, or relevant others' beliefs that he or she should or should not perform such behavior. Many students choose to use self-access learning system frequently on the ground that their teachers or classmate recommend and encourage them to take advantage of it.

3. Perceived usefulness, Perceived ease of Use and Perceived Enjoyment

Davis proposed the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) in 1989. The model has been widely applied to explain user acceptance research of various technologies. There are two important concepts of TAM. They are perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use. In this study, perceived usefulness can be defined as the degree to which students perceive that involving in blended learning would improve their learning performance. Perceived ease of use can be defined as the degree to which students perceived that involving in blended learning would be free from effort and easy to operate. Once EFL learners enjoy usefulness and ease in blended learning environment such as improving their learning performance and learning efficiency, helping them to interact with their classmates and teachers more conveniently, they could possibly adopt blended learning and feel satisfied with blended learning.

Davis et al. (1992) considered perceived enjoyment as the intrinsic motivation. Perceived enjoyment was defined as "the extent to which the activity of using the computer is perceived to be enjoyable in its own right, apart from any performance consequences that may be anticipated" (Davis et al., 1992). It has been confirmed that perceived enjoyment places emphasis on the pleasure and inherent positive feeling from specific behavior. Venkatesh (2000) defined it as the degree to which using a specific system is enjoyable and pleasant regardless of any consequences due to system use. In this study, perceived enjoyment can be defined as students' rich entertainment and enjoyable experience in EFL blended learning. Because blended learning offers students fun and pleasure, EFL students can enjoy themselves in blended learning environment and be willing to accept it from the bottom of heart.

4. System Functionality, Content Feature, Social interaction and Learning Climate

Jen-Her Wu, Robert D. Tennyson, Tzyh-Lih Hsia (2010) defined blended e-learning in terms of technological environment and social environment. Technological environment is composed of system functionality and content feature. In this study, system functionality is defined as flexible access to learning and assessment function in EFL blended learning system. Content feature can be defined as the traits and manifestation or presentation of learning contents in blended learning system. Social environment includes social interaction and learning climate. Social interactions refer to interactions among students themselves, the interactions between teachers and students, and the cooperation in learning. Learning climate refers to a positive and pleasant learning atmosphere that makes learning easy and relaxing.

III. RESEARCH MODEL

Drawing upon The Research Model for Student Learning Satisfaction in the BELS Context (Wu, Tennyson, Hsia, 2010) and other relevant literatures, a new research model was proposed. (see Fig. 1). This model suggested that there are eleven factors associated with student satisfaction: self-efficacy, performance expectation, perceived behavioral control, subjective norms, perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, perceived enjoyment, system functionality, content feature, social interaction and learning climate.

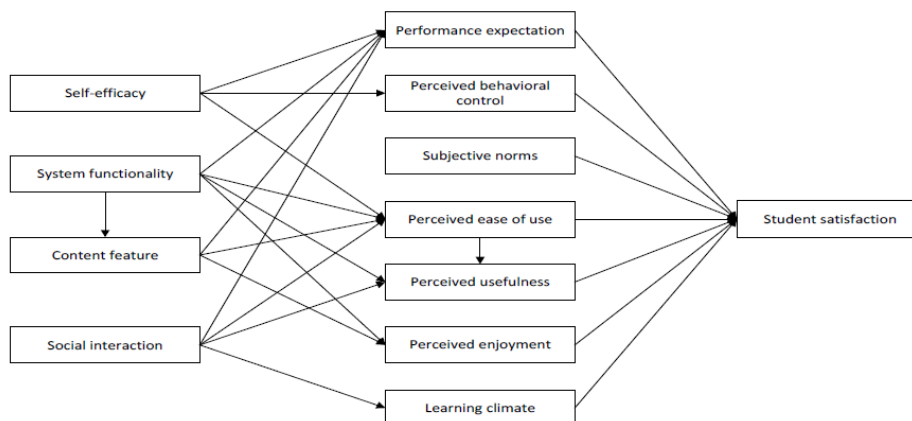


Figure. 1 Research Model for Factors Affecting Students' satisfaction in EFL Blended Learning

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Subject

360 non-English majors of undergraduates and postgraduates in Dalian University of Technology (DUT) are the research subjects. They are chosen at random. Most of the respondents are males (males account for 63.4%, females 36.6%) They ranged in age between 18 and 30 years old. Both undergraduate (48.4%) and postgraduate (51.6%) participated in this survey. The survey data shows that more than half of students spend 2-4 hours in English study after class. 66.7% of the subjects have more than 3 years network experience. 65.5% of the subjects consider their computer skill is intermediate. Besides, almost students could easily have access to computers. 40.9% of the respondents used computers in school computer room. 47.3% students have their own computers at dorm. 8.6% students use computer at home. Only 4.3% students went to the internet bar. 88.2% students spend 1-3 hours in self-access English Learning system every week.

B. Instrument

Based on the above research model and related study, a blended learning satisfaction questionnaire was designed. The questionnaire includes two parts. The first part deals with the subjects' basic information. The second part touches on the subjects' understanding of the variables. It includes 37 questions in terms of 11 variables with students' satisfaction as dependent variable. All measures employ a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all true of me) to 7 (very true of me). The construct validity and internal reliability were checked by the statistical software Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

1. Construct Validity

The KMO and Bartlett's test reveals that the KMO measure of sampling adequacy is 0.836 and the significance is 0.000. This confirms that the component analysis is feasible. Thus principal component analysis was employed to test the construct validity. Twelve variables whose eigenvalues are greater than 1.477 are extracted and consistent with the hypothesized construct. The communality of every variable is above 0.501 and 0.849 and the cumulative variance of the twelve variables is 75.084%, which proves that each variable is helpful to find the answers to the questions. (Table 1). As a result, the questionnaire possesses high construct validity according to the data.

2. Internal Reliability

The internal reliability of the questionnaire was assessed by Cronbach's alpha. Table 2 presents the corresponding cronbach's alpha values. The reliability of each construct is larger than the 0.7 threshold. This confirms that the measurement scales are both valid and reliable. Consequently, the questionnaire displays a high internal reliability to some extent.

TABLE 1.
TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

Component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	19.444	35.352	35.352	8.351	15.184	15.184
2	4.360	7.927	43.279	6.613	12.023	27.207
3	3.614	6.570	49.849	4.473	8.132	35.339
4	2.317	4.218	54.063	4.180	7.600	42.939
5	2.064	3.753	57.815	3.306	6.010	48.949
6	1.858	3.378	61.194	2.824	5.135	54.084
7	1.711	3.112	64.305	2.412	4.386	58.470
8	1350	2.454	66.759	2.939	4.350	62.820
9	1.271	2.310	69.069	1.938	3.524	66.344
10	1.199	2.180	71.250	1.732	3.150	69.493
11	1.108	2.015	73.265	1.628	2.959	72.453
12	1.001	1.819	75.084	1.477	2.631	75.084

TABLE 2.
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Construct	Acronym	Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Self-Efficacy	SE	3	0.709
Perceived Behavioral Control	PBC	4	0.775
Performance Expectation	PEX	4	0.863
System Functionality	SF	3	0.876
Content Feature	CF	3	0.859
Social Interaction	SI	3	0.772
Subject Norm	SN	2	0.928
Perceived Ease of Use	PEU	3	0.787
Perceived Usefulness	PU	3	0.905
Perceived Enjoyment	PEn	2	0.723
Learning Climate	LC	3	0.880
Students' Satisfaction	SS	4	0.903
Overall		37	0.940

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Students' Satisfaction in EFL Blended Learning

The means and std. deviation of the satisfaction items are presented in Table 3. It is obvious that most students are positive towards blended learning and willing to adopt blended learning. (Mean scores are all above 4). In general, students are satisfied with EFL blended Learning. What's more, postgraduates' mean of satisfaction subscale and total score is greater than that of undergraduates. That is to say, postgraduate students have higher satisfaction in EFL blended learning. The descriptive statistics of the mean and standard deviation of each variable are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 3.
MEANS OF SATISFACTION ITEMS FOR UNDERGRADUATE AND POSTGRADUATE

Grade		Item34	Item35	Item36	Item37	Total
Undergraduate	Mean	4.8953	4.6512	4.3779	4.9767	19.6512
	Std. Deviation	1.26610	1.26830	1.40683	1.26099	4.40831
Postgraduate	Mean	5.2447	5.3138	5.3511	5.6330	22.0106
	Std. Deviation	1.42316	1.34539	1.19453	1.06895	4.11205
Total	Mean	4.8861	5.3194	5.4500	5.2278	20.8833
	Std. Deviation	1.38670	1.20845	1.26788	1.25265	4.41102

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF EACH VARIABLE

Items	Mean	Std. Deviation
Self-efficacy	15.0778	3.34623
Perceived Behavioral Control	21.2556	4.64881
Performance Expectation	20.0753	4.81672
System Functionality	15.0583	3.16482
Content Feature	15.7139	2.99095
Social Interaction	14.8333	3.39342
Subject Norm	10.6333	2.28937
Perceived Ease of Use	15.3139	2.88861
Perceived Usefulness	15.3333	3.50646
Perceived Enjoyment	10.0750	2.50068
Learning Climate	15.4444	3.16267
Students' Satisfaction	21.5028	4.40625

B. Correlations between Each Variable

In order to identify the correlation between each variable, bivariate correlation is conducted on the data collected. The correlation results are shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
CORRELATIONS

	SE	PBC	PEx	SF	CF	SI	SN	PEU	PU	PEn	LC	SS
SE	1											
PBC	.529**	1										
PEx	.346**	.447**	1									
SF	.225**	.296**	.301**	1								
CF	.235**	.205**	.229**	.644**	1							
SI	.172**	.299**	.200**	.620**	.485**	1						
SN	.277**	.440**	.256**	.472**	.530**	.618**	1					
PEU	.356**	.294**	.312**	.393**	.518**	.326**	.412**	1				
PU	.376**	.215**	.146**	.542**	.478**	.468**	.493**	.446**	1			
PEn	.425**	.236**	.290**	.501**	.354**	.517**	.440**	.319**	.551**	1		
LC	.267**	.231**	.276**	.685**	.591**	.600**	.610**	.413**	.614**	.662**	1	
SS	.400**	.224**	.709**	.550**	.538**	.567**	.537**	.407**	.673**	.712**	.754**	1

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

According to the data in Table 5, we can easily see that all dependent variables are related to the independent variable satisfaction. Learning climate ($r=0.754^{**}$) has the highest correlation to the dependent variable students' satisfaction. Perceived behavioral control and student satisfaction show lower correlation ($r=.224^{**}$). The easy access to computer use and technical support and easy operation of the system for most people may explain this result. However, it is possible that small correlation coefficient could be significant in large-sampled investigation. Other independent variables that significantly correlated with the dependent variables are: self-efficacy ($r=0.400^{**}$), performance expectation ($r=0.709^{**}$), system functionality ($r=0.550^{**}$), content feature ($r=0.538^{**}$), social interaction ($r=0.567^{**}$), subjective norm ($r=0.537^{**}$), perceived ease of use ($r=0.407^{**}$), perceived usefulness ($r=0.673^{**}$), perceived enjoyment ($r=0.712^{**}$).

C. Regression Analysis

In order to know whether the 11 independent variables have a significant bearing on students' satisfaction or not as the dependent variables, a linear regression analysis has been conducted. The results of the stepwise regression are

presented in Table 6, Table 7 and Table 8.

TABLE 6.
COEFFICIENTS

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.564	.806		1.942	.000
LC	.514	.068	.369	7.590	.000
PEn	.508	.074	.288	6.905	.000
PU	.350	.057	.281	6.174	.000
SF	.256	.066	.184	3.854	.000
SI	.132	.051	.102	2.589	.010
CF	.128	.062	.087	2.080	.038
PEx	.110	.035	.099	3.195	.002

Table 6 lists the regression coefficients of the seven regression models constructed via stepwise regression method. Seven independent variables are significantly related to students' satisfaction: learning climate, perceived enjoyment, perceived usefulness, system functionality, social interaction, content feature and performance expectation. The non-standardized regression equation can be described like this:

$$Y = 1.564 + 0.514 \times \text{learning climate} + 0.508 \times \text{perceived enjoyment} + 0.350 \times \text{perceived usefulness} + 0.256 \times \text{system functionality} + 0.132 \times \text{social interaction} + 0.128 \times \text{content feature} + 0.110 \times \text{performance expectation}$$

Obviously, Learning Climate is most influential factor of students' satisfaction in EFL blended learning. It has a great bearing on students' satisfaction in blended learning. Students are willing to participate in blended learning due to its sound learning atmosphere and they perceived that the sound learning atmosphere will improve their academic performance. Perceived Enjoyment is also a crucial factor affecting students' satisfaction. Once they feel this new learning approach is interesting, they will enjoy the learning process in blended learning. They tend to be satisfied with blended learning. When students perceived the system is beneficial to their learning, they are pleased with the powerful learning system. System Functionality presents powerful function of self-access learning system. Students could log in at anytime at anyplace. It provides diverse forms of information and new ways to communicate and interact with teachers and classmates. Students could hand in online exercises and conduct self-assessment. More powerful the system is, more satisfaction students possess. Social interaction is of great importance in the learning process. In traditional class room teaching, the interaction between students and teachers is rather limited. In blended learning, when students have questions after class, they could contact teacher or classmates through E-mails, forum and other forms. Timely feedback made them involved and motivated to learn. It is no doubt that course content is associated with students' satisfaction in blended learning. As long as the course content is well designed, be personalized, easy to understand and clearly display the important learning points, students would have intention to learn this course. Performance expectation also plays a vital role in students' satisfaction. Student have their own learning expectations such as good scores in exam, high learning efficiency, flexible learning schedule, good interaction with classmate and teachers.etc. Only when these learning expectations are satisfied, can they be positive toward blended learning.

Table 7 shows the R Square values, adjusted R square values, and Std. Error of the estimate for each of the four constructs. R2 is a statistic that shows the degree of the regression line approximating the real data points. An R2 of 0.709 means that the regression line is in accordance with the data. And the seven independent models can explain 70.9% of the variance. The Durbin-Watson value of 1.874 almost reaches 2. So there is no autocorrelation.

TABLE 7.
MODEL SUMMARY^h

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.754 ^a	.569	.568	2.89697	
2	.806 ^b	.650	.648	2.61562	
3	.828 ^c	.686	.684	2.47813	
4	.832 ^d	.693	.690	2.45522	
5	.836 ^e	.699	.695	2.43362	
6	.840 ^f	.706	.700	2.41139	
7	.842 ^g	.709	.703	2.40012	1.874

Table 8 shows Model Dimension, Eigenvalue, Condition Index, Variance Proportions calculated via Collinearity Diagnostics. The largest condition index is 27.442. This proves that no strong collinearity problem exists. Therefore, we can ignore the effect of multicollinearity.

TABLE 8.
COLLINEARITY DIAGNOSTICS^A

Model	Eigenvalue	Condition Index	Variance Proportions							
1	7.817	1.000	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00
2	.062	11.188	.01	.00	.01	.04	.68	.00	.02	.00
3	.035	14.967	.06	.01	.50	.00	.01	.02	.00	.10
4	.026	17.437	.03	.00	.01	.26	.03	.00	.63	.02
7 5	.023	18.512	.65	.00	.08	.03	.19	.08	.12	.00
6	.015	22.996	.05	.34	.00	.52	.04	.12	.17	.05
7	.012	25.532	.17	.01	.01	.01	.02	.59	.06	.56
8	.010	27.442	.02	.63	.39	.15	.02	.20	.01	.26

Fig. 2 presents the normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual. The following normal probability plot is also a kind of test of normally distributed residual error. If the plot forms a 45-degree line, then it is perfect normality. From the figure, it is easy to observe that the actual residual almost forms a 45-degree line. Consequently, this study does not violate the basic assumption of regression. The conclusion is reliable.

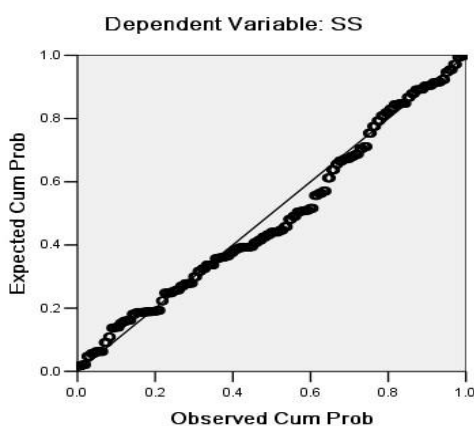


Figure 2. Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

According to the results above, the final model was established.

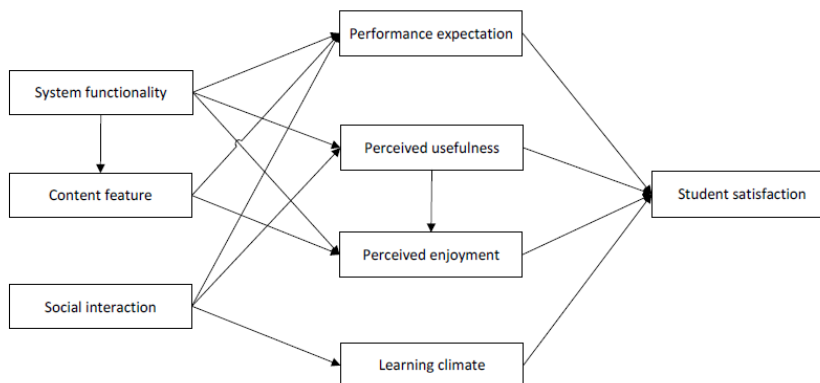


Figure 3. The Final Model

VI. CONCLUSION

In this study, Social Cognitive Theory, Theory of Planned Behavior and Technology Acceptance Model serve as the theoretical framework to explore to what extent student are satisfied with EFL blended learning and the fundamental factors that influence students’ satisfaction in EFL blended learning. EFL blended learning was defined as traditional classroom instruction and Self-access English Learning system. Data were collected through questionnaires from 360 undergraduate and postgraduates of non-English majors in Dalian University of Technology. Valuable findings are gained from the present study: 1. In general, students showed positive attitude towards EFL blended learning model. They are greatly satisfied with this model and willing to study in EFL blended learning environment. 2. Postgraduate students showed higher satisfaction than undergraduate students. 3. Learning climate, perceived enjoyment, perceived usefulness, system functionality, social interaction, content feature and performance expectation are significantly related to students’ satisfaction in EFL blended learning.

To increase students’ satisfaction in EFL blended learning, the following suggestions are raised. Teachers and

students should make joint efforts to promote and build up good learning climate. As for the system developer and administrators, they should pay more attention to improve the system interaction and function by devising various and useful contents to increase students' learning interests. With regard to teachers, they should improve their computer skills and provide necessary assistance when students are involved in online learning. Apart from that, teachers should give timely feedback and interact with students frequently and encourage students to learn and participate in group activities by giving participation marks and encourage them to interact with others and share learning experience and exchange ideas. In addition, they need conduct student need analysis and bear students' expectations in mind so as to better design and organize teaching activities and balance the classroom teaching and online teaching activities. Thus students would enjoy the learning process in blended learning and be satisfied with blended learning.

This study still has certain limitations. First, even though this research indicated that a majority of students' are satisfied with EFL blended learning in Dalian University of Technology, some negative answers deserve further research attention. Secondly, our results were merely obtained from one questionnaire in Dalian University of Technology, the samples need to be enlarged to make the conclusion more representative. Third, other possible factors that affect students' satisfaction in EFL blended learning need to be deeply explored. Fourth, other research methods should be employed such as SEM (Structure Equation Model), LISREL, EQS, PLS. or neural network to examine cause-effect relationship among variables with more convincing figures.

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APPENDIX 英语混合学习学生满意度调查问卷

您好!本问卷是针对**英语混合学习**(课堂学习+网络自主学习系统学习)情况的调查,本问卷所获取的信息只用于科学研究,不会对您本人产生任何的影响,希望您根据自己实际的情况认真填写,感谢您的配合与帮助!

第一部分:个人基本信息

请您如实填写如下个人信息,在相应的答案代码上画:“√”。

1. 性别:	1=男 2=女
2. 年龄	1=18-22 2=23-25 3=26-30
3. 入学年份	1=2010 2=2009 3=2008 4=2007 5=2006 6=2005 及以前
4. 年级:	1= 非外语专业本科生 2= (非外语专业) 英语辅修 3= 外语专业本科生 4= 双学位学生 5= 英强学生 6= 硕士研究生 7= 博士研究生
5. 你每周用于英语学习的时间大概是多少?	1=只是在课堂上的时间 2=课外 2—4 小时 3=课外 5—7 小时 4=课外 8—10 小时 5= 10 小时以上
6. 你的网络经验	1=1 年以下 2=1-3 年 3=3 年以上
7. 你的计算机水平	1=熟练 2=一般 3=不熟练
8. 你上网的主要场所	1=学校机房 2=宿舍 3=网吧 4=家里
9. 你每周用于英语自主学习系统的时间是	1=1-3 小时 2=4-6 小时 3=6-9 小时 4=10 小时以上

第二部分 问卷

以下是针对英语混合学习(课堂+网络自主学习系统学习)设置的一些问题.请您仔细阅读每一句话,并用下面

的数字量度来回答问题,如果你认为叙述非常符合你,就在数字7上画:“√”。如果该叙述根本不符合你的情况,请画数字1。如果叙述或多或少符合你,请在1到7之间的数字中画一个最符合你情况的。

7 完全符合←	6	5	4	3	2	1 → 完全不符合我	
1. 我相信我可以很快接受并适应混合学习(课堂学习+网络自主学习)的学习模式。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
2. 不需要太多支持帮助,我也能顺利使用英语自主学习系统。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
3. 使用过程中如果遇到技术操作问题,我相信自己可以很好地处理。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
4. 混合学习将会提高我的学习成绩。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
5. 混合学习将会提高我的学习效率。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
6. 混合学习将会使我的学习更加丰富和多样化。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7. 混合学习将会加强我与老师同学间的交流与沟通。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
8. 我会操作英语网络自主学习系统。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
9. 我具备进行网络自主学习系统学习的基本知识。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
10. 我拥有进行网络自主学习系统学习的必要资源,比如:电脑,网络等。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
11. 技术支持和指导服务(如新手入门指导培训、模拟操作、过程演示)在系统使用说明中均有展示。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
12. 系统可以不限时不限地反复登录进行学习,这使我的学习活动更加灵活自由。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
13. 系统运用语音、文字、图片、视频等多媒体技术,提供全面实用的学习资源,满足不同学习者需求。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
14. 网络自主学习系统可以让我自主安排学习活动。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
15. 课程内容个性化,容易理解。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
16. 目前所学的英语课程适合用网络自主学习系统学习。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
17. 课程学习任务清楚了,充分展示了学习重点与难点活动安排合理。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
18. 我和同学们能够通过学习系统中的邮件、讨论区、留言板等随时讨论学习内容并交换各自意见,巩固所学。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
19. 我会主动参与课堂讨论,积极参与老师组织的网上教学活动,及时获得老师关于作业或考试反馈。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
20. 混合学习是促进我和同学及老师之间的互动交流很好的学习方式。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
21. 混合学习模式下,学习氛围非常好。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
22. 混合学习模式下,学习氛围越浓厚,我越愿意参与。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
23. 混合学习良好的互动氛围促进我的学习。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
24. 对我来说,学习系统的操作非常简单。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
25. 系统导航清晰布局合理,操作方便	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
26. 网络自主学习系统中的学习资源容易查阅,方便下载。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
27. 利用网络自主学习系统的混合学习,能加深我对课堂学习内容的理解,使我更快地完成课程学习任务掌握学习内容。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
28. 混合学习促进我的自主学习,使我能更好安排学习活动,管理学习进程。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
29. 混合学习模式激发我的学习兴趣,给我更多学习信心。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
30. 老师对利用英语自主学习系统态度很积极,鼓励我们进行英自主学习。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
31. 周围同学系统学习的参与情况影响我使用系统学习的情况。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
32. 我很喜欢并很享受丰富有趣的混合学习过程。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
33. 混合学习(课堂学习+网络自主学习系统学习)是一种令人愉快的经历。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
34. 实施英语混合学习是非常明智的。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
35. 混合学习满足我的学习需求,是非常有效的学习方式。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
36. 整体而言,我对英语混合学习模式持积极肯定态度。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
37. 总的来说,我对这种学习模式很满意,打算今后更多参与混合学习。	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

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A Comparative Analysis of the Frequency and Function of If-clauses in Applied Linguistics and Chemistry Articles

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Abstract—This study investigated the differences and similarities between form and function of if-clauses as one type of conditional clauses within the applied linguistics and chemistry published academic Articles. These articles were examined and after determining the frequency of if-clauses, they were analyzed based on the model proposed by Sweetser (1990). According to the findings, if-clauses were more frequent in applied linguistics than chemistry articles. Results of function analysis indicated that, content is the major function in both applied and chemistry articles and comparing two genres, it is more frequent in applied linguistics articles. Next function in the line is epistemic, and it is again more frequent in applied linguistics articles and speech act was the last function that was more frequent in applied linguistics articles too. In addition, the verb forms of if-clauses were analyzed. Findings indicated that present + present pattern was the most predominant pattern across these two disciplines and it was more frequent in applied linguistics articles, therefore, there can be a relationship between verb pattern and function.

Index Terms—conditional clauses, function, content, epistemic, speech act, genre analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

Having command of the structure and function of conditional constructions is essential in second language acquisition/learning to enable L2 learners to express themselves accurately and fluently. As a result, conditional constructions are important in English language study, especially for EFL and ESL students.

As mentioned by Warchal (2010) academic communication receives its rhetorical profile by two forces: consensus and disagreement. These two antagonistic needs involve different values. Consensus emphasizes shared knowledge, commonality, as well as shared concepts and attitudes, modesty and respect for the established norms, politeness, but disagreement refers to authority, individuality, and expertise of the author. Interlocutors can use conditional constructions to express their consensus or disagreement.

There has been an extensive interest in conditional structures that indicates the importance of this construction. Many philosophers, linguists and grammarians proposed numerous typologies, like Comrie (1986) on semantic distinctions; Sweetser (1990) on the conceptual domains, and Kitis (2002) on verb morphology and tense sequencing. He discussed the rhetorical function of some conditional structures that can have a concessive or even antithetical (contrastive) force. Ferguson (2001) in his research about conditional in medical discourse focuses on a variety of semantic, pragmatic, and formal aspects of conditionals, and Dancygier & Sweetser (2005) analyzed the function of if-clauses. Later Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet (2008) analyzed the function of if-Conditional in medical discourse. In 2008 Max M. Louwerse, Scott A. Crossley and Patrick Jeuniaux investigated the linguistic features of conditionals that have extensively been studied in philosophy, psychology and education. Warchal (2010) investigated the function of conditional clause in linguistic research articles.

Function of if-clause based on Sweetser's model has been the interest of some researchers as: Lily I-wen Su (2005) who investigated the Chinese conditional as used in conversation, her findings showed that, content conditional was more than epistemic and speech act ones, with about %60, epistemic conditional about %29 and speech act conditional about %11. The paper has shown the important roles played by context and the pragmatic concerns necessary in the interpretation of Chinese conditionals as they are used in spontaneous spoken discourse.

Warchal (2010) investigated the function of conditional clause in linguistic research articles. He analyzed 200 electronically research articles from linguistic journals for the frequency and function of if-clauses according to Sweetser's model (1990). The author reported that the most frequent functional category among if-clauses found in the corpus of linguistic research articles under study is content conditionals, accounting for 57% of all data. The next

predominate function was epistemic conditionals, with 23% of the occurrences. By using epistemic conditionals, the writer is able to share the responsibility for the claim made in the main clause with the receiver.

According to Warchal (2010, p.147)

“The knowledge of the truth of the proposition in the protasis leads to the acceptance of the proposition in the apodosis. Once the reader concedes that the former is true, s/he is likely to arrive at the same conclusion, presented in the main clause, as the author. In this way rather than authoritatively supplied, the claim can be formulated by both parties seemingly independently.”

The examined data in Warchal’s research shows that, If-clauses function predominantly as content conditionals. As Warchal (2010) puts it

“this prototypical type of if-conditionals expresses the subject-matter relation of condition in discourse and aims at showing the way in which one state of affairs is contingent on another. Its predominant function is therefore ideational. In addition, a high percentage of conditional clauses express presentational relations in discourse and aim at creating conditions in which the reader can favourably receive the author’s claim. It is in these cases that the interpersonal potential of if-clauses comes to the fore as part of the dialogue established between the author and the audience in search for shared understanding and consensus.”

This paper focuses on one type of these linguistic tools (if-clauses) employed by scholars in their academic texts to reach consensus, express disagreement or communicate their ideas, in other words it studies if-clauses as a rhetorical device for gaining acceptance for one’s claims. It will present an analysis of functions and forms if clauses play in research articles in an attempt to identify the differences between two fields of study in applying these devices for writing scientific articles. For this purpose, Sweetser’s (1990) theoretical framework of dividing if-clauses based on their function to content, epistemic and speech act was used.

II. THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

A. Content Conditionals

Warchal (2010, p.143) gives the following definition for content conditional

“The conditional clause typically conveys a condition which, if fulfilled, ensures the truth of the proposition in the main clause. The central issue in such direct conditions is then the relationship between the main and the subordinate clause, as the former expresses a situation that is contingent on that expressed by the latter.... Content conditionals are the only group of conditional clauses where the ideational function clearly prevails, although in the case of hypotheticals the interpersonal meaning seems to co-occur with the content function.”

In the content conditional, a causal relation exist between the consequent of a conditional and the events and situations in the content domain. Dancygier and Sweetser (2005) stated that, content conditional is a predictive conditional. They referred to mental spaces theory, according to which, there exist three kind of spaces, content, epistemic and speech act space.

As an example, they mentioned:

If I tie my handkerchief around it, it’ll stick.

They stated, “We might say that this speaker is first engaged in setting up a space of mental content, this is a space which is about a possible state of affairs in his world, namely the situation where he ties his handkerchief around the cut. Within this space, the speaker predicts an added aspect of the content of this mental space: The handkerchief will stick to the cut.

They predict this result only in the space set up by the if-clause: there is no prediction about the handkerchief sticking to the cut if it is not being used to bandage it. These contingency relations are part of the structure of the represented content: that is, the speaker is talking about a possible attempt at bandaging, and the conditional construction marks his representation of a contingent relationship between that portrayed event and its predicated result”. (Dancygier & Sweetser, 2005).

B. Epistemic Conditionals

Sweetser (1990) states that in epistemic conditionals:

“knowledge of the truth of the hypothetical premise expressed in the protasis would be a sufficient condition for concluding the truth of the proposition expressed in the apodosis” (p. 116).

Warchal (2010, p.144) believes that “their function may resemble that of emphatics, since they present the proposition in the main clause as a logical and necessary consequence of the already negotiated or unquestioned premise.”

As Sweetser (1990) mentioned in the epistemic domain, an inferential relation exists between what is assumed in the antecedent of a conditional and what is concluded in its consequent. Moreover, according to Dancygier and Sweetser (2005), speakers set up an epistemic space, unlike causality in the world and reasoning processes may operate either from known cause to likely effect, or from known effect to possible cause. Sweetser (1990) and Dancygier & Sweetser (2005) provided the following examples for this type of conditionals:

- If the lights are on then he will be at home. (Sweetser, 1990)
- If he typed her thesis, he loves her. (Dancygier & Sweetser, 2005)

According to above examples the reasoning (If he typed her thesis) is performed, and the conclusion (he loves her) is drawn, and in the other example, there is a reasoning (If the lights are on) and then conclusion (he will be at home).

C. *Speech act Conditionals*

Sweetser (1990, p. 118) writes about speech act conditionals as follows:

“the performance of the speech act represented in the apodosis is conditional on the fulfillment of the state described in the protasis (the state in the protasis enables or causes the following speech act).”

In addition, she provides this example "If you wouldn't mind, please sit here".

Dancyiger and Sweetser (2005) state that in speech act conditional, there is an "appropriacy" relation between the antecedent and consequent. They clarify this point by giving an example:

- If I do not see you before Thursday, have a good Thanks giving! (Dancygier & Sweetser, 2005)

The speaker does not predict something about a good Thanksgiving on the basis of information about seeing the addressee before Thursday. Rather, the speaker sets up a discourse context, a speech-act space wherein Thursday has arrived without her seeing the hearer, and then utters a speech act which is to be taken as effective within that space. Any contingency relationship marked by *if* must be interpreted as holding not between the contents of the two clauses, but rather between the possible scenario portrayed in the *if*-clause and the speaker's act of well wishing. (Dancygier & Sweetser, 2005).

This division between three types of if-clauses by Sweetser (1990) constitutes the theoretical foundation of this study.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The first aim of this study is, to examine the frequency of if-clauses in applied linguistics and chemistry articles. A second aim is to investigate the functions of if-clauses in these two disciplines, based on Sweetser's (1990) model. A valid description of if-clause patterns in applied linguistics and chemistry articles allow us to make comparison across disciplines. A third aim is to address the question of whether there are any differences between applied linguistics articles and chemistry articles in terms of the frequency and function of if-clauses used in them.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

For the above-mentioned aims the following questions were developed:

1. What is the frequency of if-clauses used in published articles of applied linguistics and chemistry?
2. What are the most predominant functions to which if-clauses are put in these two disciplinary areas?
3. To what extent is there evidence to support similarity and/or differences between the two disciplines in terms of frequency and function of if clauses?

V. CORPUS

Firstly, in terms of the selection of the discipline, the present study collected texts from the disciplines of applied linguistics as a representative of soft sciences and chemistry articles as a representative of hard sciences. Applied linguistics is of particular interest to EFL community for pedagogic reasons and chemistry is a common course that is thought in universities. The data for this study comprise fifty research articles from two disciplines, twenty-nine articles belonging to chemistry, and twenty-one articles belonging to applied Linguistics. Applied linguistics articles are all taken from leading international and EFL journals during 2007-2010, and chemistry articles are taken from journals in science direct database during 2007-2010 too. This study focused on only the body part of each article. The total number of words in the body parts of applied linguistics and chemistry articles was almost the same.

VI. DATA

A. *Frequency of Occurrences of the If Clauses*

For finding frequency of if-clauses in applied linguistics and chemistry articles, all articles were analyzed twice (all footnotes, endnotes, and reference lists were deleted). Then the frequency of occurrence of if-clauses in each discipline was determined and recorded. Table 1 presents the frequency of occurrences of the if-clauses across applied linguistics and chemistry articles.

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF IF-CLAUSES IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND CHEMISTRY ARTICLES

	Applied linguistics articles	Chemistry articles	total
Frequency	70	52	122
%	%57.4	%42.6	%100

B. *Functions of If-clauses in Applied Linguistics Articles*

The functional categories used in this study are based on Sweetser's (1990) division of if-clauses into content, epistemic and speech-act conditionals, which act as the framework for the present analysis. For this purpose two

examiners distinguished the type of if clauses. The inter rater reliability based on Pearson correlation was 0.71. Table 2 shows if-clauses function and their frequency across these two disciplines.

TABLE 2.
FUNCTIONS OF IF-CLAUSES AND THEIR FREQUENCY ACROSS TWO DISCIPLINES

Applied linguistics			Chemistry		Total	
function	frequency	%	f	%		
Content	36	%29.5	32	% 26.1	68	%55.6
Epistemic	25	%20.5	17	% 14	42	%34.5
Speech act	9	%7.4	3	%2.5	12	%9.9
Total	70	%57.4	52	%42.6	122	%100

C. Verb form Patterns in Conditionals: Variation across Genres

Table 3 provides an overview of the frequency distribution of the most common verb forms in protasis and apodosis across the two disciplines.

TABLE 3.
VERB FORMS IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES: VARIATION ACROSS TWO DISCIPLINES

Verb forms in protasis +apodosis	applied linguistics	chemistry	Total(n=122)
Present+present	31(%25.3)	26(%21.3)	57(%46.6)
Present+modal (e.g might, can)	14(%11.4)	13(%10.5)	26(%21.9)
Present+will	9(%7.4)	7(%5.6)	16(%13.1)
Past+would	9(%7.4)	4(%3.2)	13(%10.5)
Past perfect+would	1 (%0.7)	—	1(%0.7)
Past+past	5(%4)	—	5(%4)
Past+modal (e.g. might, can)	4 (%3.2)	—	4(%3.2)
Sub total	70	52	122

Note. The percentages were calculated based on the total number of if-conditionals in two disciplines.

In terms of the first question, as the findings show and presented in table 1, if-clauses are more frequent in applied linguistics articles than in chemistry articles. According to this table, in applied linguistics 70 (%57.4) and in chemistry 52 (%42.6) occurrences of if-clauses were found.

Concerning the second question, table 2 indicates that if there should be a hierarchy, most of the if-clauses belong to content domain, then enter the epistemic domain, and end in speech act domain. According to the finding presented in table 2, content if-clauses should be taken as the major type we identified among if-clauses found in these two corpora, with %29.5 in applied and % 26.1 in chemistry articles. The next predominant function in both corpora is epistemic, with %20.5 and % 14 in applied linguistics and chemistry articles respectively. As the results show speech act if clauses are the less frequent ones in chemistry and applied linguistics articles.

According to table 3 the majority of patterns is present + present in both corpora. They are more frequent in applied linguistics articles with %25.3 and %21.3 in chemistry articles. Present + modal is the next pattern with about %11.4 and %10.5 in applied and chemistry articles respectively. This pattern is again more frequent in applied articles. Present + will pattern is more frequent (%7.4) in applied linguistics articles than chemistry articles (%5.6) too. Also past + would pattern is more frequent in applied (%7.4) than chemistry (%3.2) articles. Other patterns like Past perfect + would, Past + past and Past + modal (e.g. might, may, can) were not found in chemistry articles but they were rare in applied linguistics articles with %0.7, %4, and %3.2 respectively.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

The results of this study indicated that if-clause constructions were more frequent in applied linguistics than chemistry articles and analyzing their functions shows that content if-clauses are the predominate function in two corpora, and then epistemic and at the end speech act ones. Regarding the frequency of content if-clauses, they are more frequent in applied linguistics articles than chemistry articles.

Examining the verb form of if-clauses, the present + present pattern was the predominant pattern across these two disciplines and it can be concluded that most content conditional should have present + present pattern.

The other purpose of this thesis was to compare the function of if-clauses in applied with those in chemistry, representative of hard science and soft science. Findings indicated that there was a difference between these two disciplines. Content, epistemic and speech act if-clauses were more frequent in applied than chemistry articles. Also finding of verb forms indicated that present+ present, present + modal, present + will and Past + would patterns are the predominate forms in applied linguistics and chemistry articles but this patterns are more frequent in applied linguistics articles. Past perfect + would, past + past and past + modal are the forms that cannot be found in chemistry articles.

This finding somehow is in line with Warchal (2010), investigated the function of conditional clause in linguistic research articles. He analyzed 200 electronically research articles from linguistic journals for the frequency and function of if-clauses according to Sweetser (1990). The author reported that content conditionals are the most frequent

functional category among if-clauses found in the corpus of linguistics research articles under study, accounting for 57% of all occurrences.

Also Carter-Thomas and Rowley-Jolivet (2008) in their analysis of three genres of medical discourse: research articles, conference presentations, and editorials, showed that the preferred function was factual conditionals (68% of occurrences). He mentioned, that the need to 'facticity' establishment in medical research and to detail the precise conditions under which the research was conducted are the effective factors. As Warchal (2010, p.146) puts it:

"This prototypical function of if-clauses also reflects the major preoccupation of academic texts, which is that of establishing the relationship between states that have the status of facts, drawing conclusions from these relationships and promoting these conclusions to the status of facts."

According to Sweetser (1990) content conditional, which can be named predictive conditional, if fulfilled, ensures the truth of the proposition in the main clause.

The next predominant function in both corpora is epistemic, %35.5 and %32.5 in applied linguistic and chemistry respectively. In findings of the other researchers like Warchal (2010), epistemic is the second predominant function of if-clauses, about % 23 of the data. It seems that the writer employs epistemic conditionals to share the responsibility for the claim made in the main clause with the receiver.

Speech act conditional is the remaining percentage of the if-clause's function, about %13 and %6 in applied linguistic and chemistry articles respectively. An indirect condition can be expressed by Speech act conditional and it is not related to the situation expressed in the main clause. In addition, the knowledge that the proposition in the if-clause is true is not sufficient to conclude that the other proposition is true as well. "In these cases," writes Sweetser (1990, p. 118), "the performance of the speech act represented in the apodosis is conditional on the fulfillment of the state described in the protasis (the state in the protasis enables or causes the following speech act)."

VIII. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

In terms of pedagogical implications, instead of focusing on the verb-form paradigm in EFL setting, this study can introduce and help instructors consider other categorizations of the if-clauses based on the findings in other points of view. Second, as genre analysis is an important part of ESP courses and if-clauses vary across genres, preparing pedagogic activities and material with an orientation toward the differences between genres and how if-clauses are employed can be useful for the students.

Accordingly, analyzing the functions of if-clauses in this study provides an explicit model, however incomplete, of these genres. Since this study compare applied linguistic and chemistry articles, it can also help language teachers and learners to develop a conscious recognition of the difference between function of if-clauses across these two disciplines. Besides, it provides information about the tense patterns of if-clauses in these two genres, and as a result, the difference of these two text types not only in the type of if-clauses but also in tense patterns becomes explicit. Therefore, the findings try to provide the model expressed before for these two genres explicitly and help the text writers to apply it for writing effectively.

The finding of the present study can also clarifies the dimensions in which applied linguistic and chemistry articles differ. Therefore, it can contribute to a kind of conscious awareness of the function of if-clauses that can assist the students in writing articles that are more comprehensible. Besides having enough knowledge of type and tense pattern of if-clauses help students to use more effective and precise sentences in their writing different texts and avoid using inappropriate type and tense patterns in expressing their opinions.

IX. SUGGESTION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this study, the frequency and function of if-clauses in chemistry and applied linguistic articles were analyzed. It would also be interesting to look into the function of conditional clauses in various academic disciplines. This study analyzed the functions of conditionals in written academic discourse, spoken form can be consider too. It would also be interesting, and necessary, to contrast data from applied and chemistry with other disciplines. The order of clauses, protasis and apodosis- in conditional sentences, in different disciplines can be analyzed too.

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The Effect of Lexical Glossing Types on Reading and Listening Skills of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—Knowing what factors influence, positively or negatively, the reading and listening ability of language learners is of crucial importance. Amid these factors the type of glossing can be named which number of studies on it, especially in our country, Iran is rare. The present study, therefore, aimed at investigating the lexical glossing impact on such skills as reading and listening comprehension of a group of Iranian EFL learners. To put it clearly, the study is, in fact, an attempt to ascertain if L1 or L2 lexical glossing may make any difference in their effectiveness on L2 reading and listening comprehension processes. To achieve the intended purpose, 60 female students learning English as a foreign language in an English language school in Isfahan, Iran were randomly selected and were grouped into two intact classes. They were required to take two TOEFL tests: one as a pretest to ensure their homogeneity concerning language proficiency, and one to specify the impact of glossing on their listening and reading comprehension, respectively. Conducting a one-way analysis of variance (MANOVA) and two independent sample *t* tests, the study revealed that first, there was a significant difference between the two groups receiving Persian and English glosses. Besides, the study indicated that the class receiving native language gloss (i.e., Persian lexical gloss) outperformed compared with the class getting the second language gloss (i.e., English gloss) in both reading and listening comprehension although this effect was more on the former than the latter one. The study may have some pedagogical implications in the realm of L2 research that the present researchers will point out throughout the paper.

Index Terms—glossing, listening skill, reading skill, Iranian EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary or lexicon can be considered as one the crucial facets of an L2. Its significance is to the extent that even some L2 researchers (e.g., Nagata, 1999; Sanaoui, 1996) make an equivalence between L2 learning process and knowing L2 words. Although someone may consider this claim an overstatement, the crucial role of L2 vocabulary should not be overlooked. Further, L2 researchers (e.g., Dufon & Fong, 1994; Nagata, 1999) have mentioned that vocabulary knowledge is multi-faceted (Harley, 1996). Therefore, L2 classroom teachers need to take a more complete approach regarding vocabulary development in order to help L2 learners to access a higher level of L2 output (Sanaoui, 1996; Swain, 1996). The aforementioned researchers state three aspects for word difficulty: a) receptive versus productive vocabularies, b) breadth versus depth of vocabularies, and c) direct teaching versus contextual inferencing of vocabulary.

In order to improve vocabulary learning, different discussions (Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Jacobs, Dufon, & Fong, 1994; Mondria, 2003; Nagata, 1999; Rott, 2007; Rott & William, 2003; Watanabe, 1997; Yoshii, 2006) concerning the effectiveness of various reading text enhancement have been proposed. There is a general agreement on the topic that glosses utilization can improve L2 learners' vocabulary learning while reading. The aforesaid positive impacts of gloss in order to enhance vocabulary learning are due to several factors. First, as Hulstijn et al., 1996 puts it, in comparison to dictionary, gloss is more accessible and easier to use because it provides accurate meanings for words. Second and based on Nagata (1999), due to its bold-faced design, gloss can attract L2 learners' attention to L2 words; and therefore, support the notions of "consciousness-raising" and "input-enhancement". Carrying the least amount of interruption in reading process and providing the form-meaning connection, Gloss also helps to connect word forms to meanings (Rott & William, 2003). Last but not least, glossing may persuade L2 learners to read back and forth. Thus, as Jacobs et al. (1994) mentions, it can trigger more lexical processing resulting in word retention.

One profitable line of enquiry might be the focus of attention on gloss types (Gettys, Imhof, & Kautz, 2001; Grace, 1998, 2000; Nagata, 1999; Watanabe, 1997). In other words, a significant amount of attention has been paid to specifying what gloss types can make positive learning effects. Regarding this issue, various researchers (Hulstijn et al., 1996; Mondria, 2003; Rott, 2007; Rott & William, 2003; Watanabe, 1997) have focused on the possible impact of gloss on L2 learners' decision-making process. The argument is that the use of gloss might deprive L2 learners of inferring that, in turn, it reduces the amount of processing. In order to activate L2 learners' processing through fostering learners'

involvement, Hulstijn (1992) is in favor of providing multiple-choice meaning-inferred gloss rather than direct meaning-given gloss.

Besides, as to the progresses in glossing, some of the properties of advanced glossing (i.e. glossing in L2 not mother language) making it separated from traditional glossing formats originate from its different purposes. Hulstijn further adds that utilizing glossed texts as a basis for a complete language description can make a suitable place for such different type of information as phonetic, phonological, orthographical, prosodic, categorical, structural, relational, and semantic.

In addition, studies to compare the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glosses have led into mixed results. Some studies show no difference between the two types and others propose the superiority of one gloss type over the other type (Chen, 2002; Jacobs et al., 1994; Miyasako, 2002). Jacobs et al. (1994), for instance, compared L1 with L2 glosses among 85 English-speaking participants studying Spanish as an L2. A Spanish text was presented with 613 words under three conditions: 1) L1 (English) gloss, 2) L2 (Spanish) gloss, and 3) No gloss. After reading the text having 32 boldface-glossed words, the researchers gave two vocabulary tests to participants: one immediately after the reading and the other four weeks later. The results regarding the immediate test indicated the superiority of gloss conditions (i.e., either L1 or L2) on no gloss condition. It is worth mentioning that the results did not state any significant difference between L1 and L2 glosses.

In order to demonstrate that the L2 group outperforms the no gloss group, Chen (2002) also examined L1 and L2 glosses of 85 college freshmen in Taiwan studying English as an L2. The participants were categorized into three groups: 1) L1 (Chinese) gloss, 2) L2 (English) gloss, and 3) no gloss. They were supposed to read a 193 word-English text with 20 L2 glossed words. The results indicated that the difference between L1 and L2 glosses was not significant. The other possibility supported by Chen (2002) was that the L2 gloss group needed a longer time for reading the text than the other group.

Also, in order to demonstrate the advantage of one gloss type over the other, Miyasako (2002) investigated the impact of multiple-choice and single glosses. The research design included six groups: 1) L2 (English) multiple-choice gloss, 2) L1 (Japanese) multiple-choice gloss, 3) L2 (English) single gloss, 4) L1 (Japanese) single gloss, 5) no gloss, and (6) control (no reading). The participants included 187 Japanese high school students, and they were supposed to read a 504-word text with 20 L2 words. Then, the researchers gave two vocabulary tests to students: one multiple-choice test immediately after reading and the other 18 days later. Miyasako found that the L2 gloss group outperformed the L1 gloss group significantly in the immediate test. However, the multiple-choice and single gloss types did not differ in their effectiveness on vocabulary learning. The other possibility was that the L2 glosses were in favor of the higher-proficiency level L2 learners, whereas the L1 glosses were more effective for the lower-proficiency ones.

Lastly, with regard to another aspect of L2 language, that is, the receptive skills, they have been looked into through different studies from different windows. Consequently, different results and implications have been proposed on them. As to the reading skill, reading is considered to be a multifaceted process that requires L2 learners to access prior knowledge of the world and how it operates in order to extract meaning from a text.

Many studies (e.g., Bowles, 2004; Davis, 1989; Lomicka, 1998) have been carried out on the effects of lexical glossing. However, the central focus of them have been on issues like the language of presented glosses, the place to present the glosses, and the kinds of glosses (i.e., multiple-choice glosses, monomial glosses, or no glosses). Majority of the aforementioned studies have been on the link between lexical glossing and reading comprehension, and little research has been conducted on the relationship between lexical glossing and listening comprehension. Therefore, the present study aims to investigate the effect of lexical glossing on reading and listening comprehension of a group of Iranian EFL learners and tries to fill the gap as far as possible. Besides, such studies in EFL contexts, including the context of the present study (i.e., Iran), are very small. Therefore, it can be said that the necessity for doing studies like the current one is strongly felt.

Furthermore, despite the rich literature on the effectiveness of different gloss types, little research has comparatively focused on the effects of type of gloss and receptive skills. This fact is supported by the claim of presenting a good way for vocabulary learning to take place through reading and listening skills. According to Mondria (2003), this process can be effected through rich contextual clue, learners' knowledge of the context words, and learners' skills. Besides, due to miscellaneous findings concerning the effects of gloss on different aspects of language, it seems to be a necessity to re-examine the effects of gloss on learners' different aspects especially reading and listening abilities.

All in all, having considered the abovementioned remarks and also the existing problem(s), the present study is, in fact, an attempt to address the following research questions:

1. On which of the dependent variables (i.e., reading and listening skills) is the effect of L1 or L2 lexical glossing more salient?
2. Do L1 or L2 lexical glossing differ in their effectiveness on Iranian reading comprehension?
3. Do L1 or L2 lexical glossing differ in their effectiveness on Iranian listening comprehension?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In order to perform the study, two classes of female students ($N = 60$) learning English as an L2 in an English language institute in Isfahan served as the participants, whose age ranged from 17 to 26 and took part in advanced classes in the institute. These two intact classes were randomly selected as the study groups (i.e., Group 1 for listening and Group 2 for reading). The participants of the study were pretested for their proficiency by taking the TOEFL test before launching the study.

B. Materials

Altogether, two main instruments were employed to gather the data. First, to begin the study and to gauge the participants' same level of proficiency, they were given a reduced form of the TOEFL test that contained listening, reading, and vocabulary sections. The results of the vocabulary section of the test were also used to see whether the participants enjoyed similar knowledge of vocabulary at the beginning of the study or not.

Second, another test of TOEFL, consisting of the reading and listening sections accompanied by glosses in Persian and English were used to specify the impact of type of glossing on the two skills. The reading test consisted of 40 items in the form of multiple-choice, and the listening test included 25 multiple-choice items. The tests contained some reading and listening comprehension passages accompanied by their respective items extracted from a few TOEFL tests, and some reading and listening comprehension items were also constructed by the researcher for the texts that were not originally followed by such items. It is worth mentioning that the reliability of the reading and listening tests was also tested via Cronbach's Alpha turning out to be .72 and .76, respectively. Also, regarding the validity of the tests, they were submitted to two experts in the field, and they unanimously agreed on the content.

C. Procedure

At the beginning of the study, the simplified version of the TOEFL test (Cronbach's Alpha = .79) was administered to determine that the participants enjoyed a similar level of proficiency, and that their knowledge of vocabulary was also the same. The test was carried out in the two groups as a pretest to determine their equality in vocabulary, reading, and listening comprehension ability.

Then, in another session in one of the classes (i.e., Class 2), the participants received the Persian vocabulary glosses when they took the listening and reading comprehension tests, and in the other class (i.e., Class 1) they received the English vocabulary glosses while taking the reading and listening tests.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Prior to the main study analysis and for the sake of ensuring the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of their performance, a pretest was administered to both groups. Table 4.1 reveals the descriptive results of the analysis. As the table shows, the mean score in class 1 is 10.43 and in class 2 is 11.04, respectively. Although slightly different, the real difference of the two mean scores is very small, nearly .5 scale points. Therefore, the two classes are homogeneous regarding their performance.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS IN PRETEST

	Codes	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	Class 1	30	10.43	2.11	.36
	Class 2	30	11.04	2.26	.40

Having ensured the homogeneity of two classes, as a matter of comparing the participants' performance and analyzing the mean differences between groups in reading and listening tests when English and Persian glossing were provided, a one-way MANOVA was carried out. Thus, the aforesaid comprehension skills were identified as the dependent variables and concerning two levels of independent variable, the type of glossing (i.e., English and Persian) was identified. As to the multivariate normality, the researchers measured mahalanobis distances (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The related data has been depicted in Table 2:

TABLE 2.
RESIDUAL STATISTICS

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Stud. Residual	-2.088	1.707	-.001	1.008	60
Mahal. Distance	.508	15.767	2.962	3.071	60
Cook's Distance	.000	.267	.014	.031	60
Centered Leverage Value	.006	.225	.037	.039	60

For determining the number of outliers, the mahalanobis distance value was compared against a critical value indicated by Pallant (2007, p. 280) by applying a chi-square critical value table as below:

TABLE 3.
CRITICAL VALUES FOR MEASURING MAHALANOBIS DISTANCE VALUES

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

As Pallant (2007) mentions, outliers are the individuals whose mah-1 grades go far beyond these critical values. According to Table 4.2, mahalanobis distance value is 15.76. Then, the present researchers compare it with the recommended critical value in Table 3. In the current study, the number of the dependent variables is two. Thus, the critical value for that is 13.82.

Taking the previous points into account, the mahalanobis distance value (15.76) is larger than the critical value (13.82) indicating the presence of multivariate outliers. Upon searching the data file, just one case exceeded the critical value of 13.82, indicating one multivariate outlier. Due to the presence of only one person, the present researchers decided to keep this case. Later on, the assumption of linearity was checked indicating a straight line relationship between dependent variables. It confirmed the assumption of linearity.

Regarding the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, Box’s Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices was investigated. The Box’s M Sig. value is .116 that is larger than .001 indicating that this assumption is not violated:

TABLE 4.
BOX’S TEST OF EQUALITY

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

Measuring equal variances, the Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances was studied:

TABLE 5.
LEVENE’S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Reading	1.486	1	58	.226
Listening	.198	1	58	.658

$p < .05$

Because all the Sig. values are larger than .05, the assumption of the equality of variance is confirmed. Therefore, there is a normal distribution among all the three groups.

To find statistically significant differences among groups, the researchers studied Wilk’s Lambda in the multivariate tests of significance:

TABLE 6.
MULTIVARIATE TESTS^b

	Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai’s Trace	.989	2.229E3 ^a	3.000	76.000	.000	.989
	Wilks’ Lambda	.011	2.229E3 ^a	3.000	76.000	.000	.989
	Hotelling’s Trace	87.979	2.229E3 ^a	3.000	76.000	.000	.989
	Roy’s Largest Root	87.979	2.229E3 ^a	3.000	76.000	.000	.989
Type of Glossing	Pillai’s Trace	.158	4.746 ^a	3.000	76.000	.004	.158
	Wilks’ Lambda	.842	4.746 ^a	3.000	76.000	.004	.158
	Hotelling’s Trace	.187	4.746 ^a	3.000	76.000	.004	.158
	Roy’s Largest Root	.187	4.746 ^a	3.000	76.000	.004	.158

a. Exact Statistics

b. Design: Intercept + Type of Glossing

In the row indicating the name for the independent variable (type of glossing), the value for Wilk’s Lambda is .842 and the significant value is .004. Because it is less than .05, there is a significant difference between two classes presented different types of glossing (i.e., English and Persian) regarding their reading and listening comprehension.

In the next stage, the Test of Between-Subject Effects output box is studied. In order to decrease the chance of a type 1 error, Bonferroni adjustment is applied (Pallant, 2007). Therefore, the original alpha level of .05 was divided by the number of analyses intended.

Due to the presence of two dependent variables (i.e., reading and listening comprehension), .05 is divided by 2, providing a new alpha level of .025. Then, Test of Between-Subjects Effects box is studied.

Upon looking at Table 7, the *Sig.* column for the two dependent variables indicated a significant value less than the cut-off point (with the *Sig.* values of .004 and .002). Thus, there is a significant difference between two groups presented English and Persian glossing was on both kinds of reading and listening comprehension:

TABLE 7
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECT EFFECTS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Reading	63.112 ^a	1	63.112	8.794	.004	.101
	Listening	91.010 ^b	1	91.010	10.013	.002	.114
Intercept	Reading	6489.212	1	6489.212	904.217	.000	.921
	Listening	7006.010	1	7006.010	770.785	.000	.908
Type of Glossing	Reading	63.112	1	63.112	8.794	.004	.124
	Listening	91.010	1	91.010	10.013	.002	.111
Total	Reading	7049.000	80				
	Listening	8039.000	80				
Corrected Total	Reading	622.887	79				
	Listening	799.988	79				

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

Therefore, the first null hypothesis below is rejected:

- H₀₁: Glossing effect is equal on the two dependent variables of the study (i.e., reading and listening skills).

The significance of the impact of type of glossing on reading and listening comprehension was also evaluated by applying the effect size statistics. Partial Eta Squared was used. Applying the guidelines (.01 = small, .06 = moderate, .14 = large) offered by Cohen (1988, p. 284-287), the value of .124 for reading comprehension is somehow a large effect and shows 12.4% of variance explained by the type of glossing. The Partial Eta Squared for listening comprehension is .111 that is somehow a large effect and explains 11.1% of variance by type of glossing.

Although it was concluded that the two classes with different types of glossing differed concerning their reading and listening comprehension, it is not obvious which group had the higher score. To find out this, the Estimated Marginal Means Table should be studied. Table 8 shows the descriptive statistics of the two groups across the aforesaid kinds of comprehension tests:

TABLE 8
ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS

Dependent Variables	Type of Glossing	Mean	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Reading	English (class 1)	29.23	26.355	32.063
	Persian (class 2)	33.33	30.056	35.033
Listening	English (class 1)	18.47	15.672	21.382
	Persian (class 2)	19.13	16.633	22.244

In the reading comprehension, the mean score in class 1 is 29.23 and in class 2 is 33.33, respectively, which shows a statistically significant difference. In fact, there is a significant difference between two classes based on the fact that Persian glossing can produce better results in reading comprehension. This fact was further supported through doing an independent sample *t* test as presented below:

TABLE 9
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T TEST FOR GLOSSING IMPACT ON READING

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	<i>t</i> test for Equality of Means					
		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i> (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Reading	Equal variances assumed	7.53	.005	-2.96	58	.004	-2.98	-.58
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.87	45.88	.005	-3.02	-.54

Through looking at the output box giving the results of Levene’s test for equality of variances, the significant level for Levene’s test was .005. Because it was less than the cut-off .05, equal variance was not assumed. By referring to the column labeled *sig.* (2-tailed), the value for unequal variance was .005. Because it was less than .05, there was a significant difference in the mean scores of two groups and their performance on reading comprehension. Therefore, the second null hypothesis is not confirmed too:

- H₀₂: L1 and L2 lexical glossing do not differ in their influence on Iranian learners’ reading comprehension.

Also, in the listening comprehension, the mean score in class 1 is 18.47 and in class 2 is 19.13. To put it plainly, there is a significant difference between two classes based on the fact that Persian glossing can produce better results in listening comprehension. This fact was further supported through doing an independent sample *t* test as presented here:

TABLE 10
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T TEST FOR GLOSSING IMPACT ON LISTENING

		Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances		<i>t</i> test for Equality of Means				
		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i> (2-tailed)	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
Listening	Equal variances assumed	.158	.658	2.16	58	.002	.79	3.4
	Equal variances not assumed			2.19	60.84	.002	.80	3.4

As Table 10 reveals, because the *sig.* value (.658) was larger than the cut-off .05, equal variance was assumed. Therefore, the *sig.* (2-tailed) for equal variance was .002. Because it was less than .05, there is a significant difference regarding the mean scores of two groups and their performance on listening comprehension. Thus, the third null hypothesis below is also rejected:

- H₀₃: L1 and L2 lexical glossing do not differ in their influence on Iranian learners’ listening comprehension.

IV. CONCLUSION

Reviewing the related literature, lexical glossing as an aspect of different L2 enquiries (e.g., Grace, 1998, 2000; Nagata, 1999; Taylor, 2006; Watanabe, 1997) have brought mixed and conflicting results. As such, the aim of this study was to study the impact of L1 and L2 lexical glossing on L2 learners’ reading and listening comprehension. In fact, the aim was to have an investigation into defining the role of L1 and L2 lexical glossing on reading and listening comprehension and to draw on the findings in our teaching career, and accordingly, to improve L2 learners’ reading and listening comprehension.

According to the results of the reading test, there was a significant difference regarding the mean scores of class 1 and 2. Thus, the difference between these two groups may be attributed to the type of lexical glossing in a way that the participants provided Persian glossing performed better in reading comprehension. Also, the impact of Persian glossing was significant based on the mean score in listening comprehension. In other words, the findings of this study illustrate that although the effect of Persian glossing was more than English one in reading comprehension, it had also a slight effect on listening comprehension too. Therefore, all of the three null hypotheses of the current study were rejected. Regarding the positive influence of gloss, there has been a shift from gloss effects to gloss types (Gettys, Imhof, & Kautz, 2001; Grace, 1998, 2000; Nagata, 1999; Watanabe, 1997).

The findings are consistent with the one by Hulstijn, Hollander, and Greidanus, (1996), Jacobs, Dufon, and Fong (1994), Mondria (2003), Rott (2007) who explain that the possibility of the application of glosses is beneficial for L2 learners’ vocabulary learning while reading because the definition is easily available in the text.

Besides, the findings support Davis (1989) and Jacobs et al. (1994) who tend to be in favor of using glossing in L2 reading. This could be explained by the fact that the students who can use glosses before reading or during the reading process recalled the text more than others did.

These explanations go in line with the view held by Jacobs et al. (1994) explaining that L1 and L2 gloss conditions could make better results than the no gloss condition. Likewise, in the present research, the participants provided Persian glossing performed better in reading comprehension.

In addition, the results of this study are against the claims of recent researchers like Bell and LeBlanc (2000) who claim that although the participants showed a preference for using glosses in L1, they did not show any difference between the English and Spanish gloss groups. Thus, the language of glosses was not so much important.

The findings are also in contrast to the one by Chen’s (2002) study investigating the same matter among Taiwanese participants studying English as an L2. The results indicated that the difference between the L1 and the L2 gloss groups was not statistically significant.

In sum, the findings stand in total contrast to Johnson (1982) and Jacobs et al. (1994) who stated that glossing may not enhance a global comprehension of the text. As with related studies previously done on the same issue, the more the

author searched the less she could find any study specifically dealing with the relationship between glossing and listening skill. This lack of study highlights more than ever the significance of the current study.

Based on the current study, glossing occupies a dominant position in L2 learners' reading and listening comprehension. The present study was, to some extent, guided by the design exploited by Jacobs et al. (1994) to investigate the effect of L1 and L2 lexical glossing on reading and listening comprehension with some modifications and deletions.

The present research methodology can be counted as an attempt to investigate reading and listening comprehension through two types of glossing on the part of L2 learners. In brief, the results of the study indicate that type of lexical glossing is a source of systematic variance in receptive skills. To put it in a nutshell, to the present researcher, the study on the role of L1 and L2 lexical glossing in receptive skills would bring insights and significance for future studies.

The positive effects of gloss on fostering vocabulary learning can be attributed to several factors. First, gloss is more accessible and easier to use than dictionary in that it provides accurate meanings for words that might be guessed incorrectly (Hulstijn et al., 1996). Second, with its bold-faced design, gloss salience can draw L2 learners' attention to L2 words, supporting the notion of "consciousness-raising" and "input-enhancement" (Nagata, 1999).

Also, HeeKo (2005) claims four advantages in using glosses. Firstly, glosses can get across new L2 words so accurately that prevent incorrect guessing. Secondly, they can decrease interruptions while reading is in process. As glosses provide definitions for low frequency L2 words, L2 learners would no more require checking or looking them up. Thirdly, glosses can make a meaningful relation between prior knowledge and new information in text. Finally, glosses would allow for greater autonomy on the part of L2 learners.

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Diachronic Study on the Derivation of *There* in *There-be* Construction

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Abstract—In the circle of linguistics, numerous attempts have been made to explore *there-be* construction in the fields of syntax, semantics, and pragmatics, but there is little touching on the derivation of the word *there*. In consequence, herein the focus and effort are put on the issues of *there*, especially the derivation of *there*. It begins with the exploration of historical sources touching upon *there* and all the analyses are based on the historical study on *there* constructions. In the historical study, it is demonstrated that *there-be* construction derivates from archaic *Then-V* pattern and *PP-V* pattern by analogy when the subject is obligatory in the clause.

Index Terms—*there-be* construction, derivation of *there*, diachronic study

I. THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL BASIS

A. Synchronic and Diachronic Study

To delimit and define the boundaries of language study, Saussure first distinguishes between historical linguistics and descriptive linguistics, or diachronic and synchronic analyses respectively. The description of a language at some point in time is a synchronic study; the description of a language as it changes through time is a diachronic study, or a historical study, studying the historical development of language over a period of time. On the one hand, the synchronic study of linguistic systems can provide insights that can be used in reconstructing their past. On the other hand, synchronic linguistic systems are in some respects unsystematic: the numerous irregular relics of earlier systems (the exceptions to the rule), which are simply inexplicable in synchronic terms, can only be explained by reference to past states and developments. The unstable state of a language at any given point of time is the consequence of historical processes. (Schendl, 2003, p.8)

In this light, there are generally two approaches to the study of linguistics, namely synchronic and diachronic. If the signs of language had no changes, the distinction between Synchronic analyses and Diachronic analyses is meaningless. But a language is evolving continually, so linguistics has both the current structural properties of language and historical dimensions to be studied.

It has been learned that generative linguists think *there* appears by inserting or by moving and merging, but they do not offer why, which still causes puzzles. Others like Lyons assert existential *there* comes from an adverbial. They similarly do not make a detailed and convincing statement and argument. Therefore, it is crucial and necessary to consider the derivation in the first place. Certainly, the focus of discussion herein is the derivation of *there*. As it is mentioned above, there are some linguists like Lyons having related the derivation of *there*, but few successors have gone deep into it. As a result, the diachronic study of the construction is required and needed.

B. Historical Mechanisms

In the history of human language there are a variety of mechanisms of language change, more important of which are analogy, the reanalysis of surface structures and the process of grammaticalization.

1. Analogy

In linguistics, analogy is a most important phenomenon, which can be illustrated in the following form:

A : B = C : X

sow : sows = cow : X

X = cows

An analogy can be the linguistic process that reduces word forms perceived as irregular by remaking them in the shape of more common forms that are governed by rules.

2. Reanalysis

Syntactic constructions may be or become ambiguous in specific contexts and speakers may come to favour a new analysis rather than the old one in the course of time. In general the two analyses will coexist for some time, till the new one may finally replace the old one and may subsequently even be extended to similar constructions. The reanalysis of a given surface structure is a major mechanism behind syntactic change.

Consider the following literal translation and syntactic analysis for an OE sentence:

To-the-king pleased (the) pears.

O(dat. Sing.)- V(past plur.)- S(nom. plur.)

The extensive loss of inflections in ME resulted in the uninflected form *the king*, which was formally identical for both subject and object. Owing to the loss of the verbal plural marking by the late ME period, verb forms such as *liked* equally had become unmarked for number and person. The resulting construction *The king liked pears* now allows for two different syntactic analyses, since each of the two nouns may be interpreted as grammatical subject or object, i.e. the king (s/o?) *kiked* (sing/plur?) (the) pears (s/o?), with the overall interpretations in spite of a slight semantic change of the verb, cf. *The king liked the pears* vs. *The pears pleased (to) the king*. The predominating unmarked word order SVB led to the reanalysis of *the king* as subject, though the old analysis of *the king* as object was still supported by the personal pronouns (he vs. him) and survived with some verbs into the 16th c.

3. Grammaticalization

In the nineteenth century the study of the development of grammatical forms was motivated by the general interest in the etymological roots of languages. The aim of grammaticalization is to show “where a lexical unit ... assumes a grammatical function, or where a grammatical unit assumes a more grammatical function” (Heine, 1991, p.2) Consider the development of the expression “*I think*”, as investigated by Thompson and Mulac (1991, p.315)

[1] *I think* that we are definitely moving towards being more technological.

[2] *I think* exercise is really beneficial to anybody.

[3] It's just your point of view ... what you like to do in your spare time *I think*.

Sentence [1] consists of the main clause *I think* and a subordinate clause introduced by *that*. Sentence [2] may be analyzed as the syntactic construction with the subordinator *that* omitted. Yet this explanation does not apply for [3], where *I think* has the final position, which suggests that *I think* functions as a kind of additional commentary. Once this interpretation has been established for [3], there is no reason why it should not be extended to [2] as well. As a result, both [2] and [3] are thought to be the construction consisting of a main clause plus the adverbial phrase *I think* either at the beginning or at the end. The phrase *I think* is turned into an adverbial, in which a grammaticalization process reverses the weight of the sentence constituents. If the driving force behind this is identified, it is found that the change is most probably motivated by the requirements of discourse.

II. DERIVATION OF *THERE* IN *THERE-BE* CONSTRUCTION

A. Diachronic Study

Naturally, the diachronic study of a linguistic phenomenon requires substantial linguistic primary sources. Here list related primary texts from Freeborn's *From Old English to Standard English*. Of course, they start from the so-called Old English(OE), which are mostly from the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which has survived in several manuscripts, known as *the Peterborough Chronicle* and *the Parker Chronicle*.

Other sources are the prose, in *The Cambridge History of the English Language (vol. I: the beginnings to 1066)*, selected from the Alfredian era (late 9th c) and of AElfric (early 11th c): amongst the important texts of the Alfredian era are *the Anglo-Saxon Chronicles*(or, rather, *the Parker Chronicle*), the translation of the *Cura pastoralis*, Alfred's translation of Boethius, and although not directly attributable to Alfred, the translations of *Orosius' Historia adversum paganos* and Bede's *Historia ecclesiastica*.

In the following listing, to be brief, the abbreviations are used as: WW for the word-for-word translations; MnE for paraphrases in Modern English; OE for Old English; ME for Middle English; Cambridge for the book *The Cambridge History of the English Language vol. I*; OE-SE for the book *From Old English to Standard English*. As to the signs, “>” stands for “develop into”; “<>” is the one in which there are writing letters, while “[]” phonetic sounds; “*” indicates the sentence is not generally acceptable.

Variants of *there*: The OE word for *there* is *þær* and in early middle English about the 12th century <a> replaced <æ>, namely, *þær*, with a variant *þer* in some dialects. Then the word begins to take the beginning <th->, but is not completed *there* even at the beginning of the 15th c. (Hogg,2002, p.153) Thus, there is inconsistency within a dialectal area, and even within the same manuscript sometimes. It is difficult to know whether some of the differences are simply variations in the spelling or in the form and pronunciation of a word. (ibid, p.165)

Consider the following texts with *there*:

[4] Peterborough Chronicle for AD 878 (It is a typical entry in the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle describing the ravages of the Danish armies during king Alfred's reign.) (OE – SE)

WW: & after at easter built alfred king with-little company fortress at Athelney & from that fortress was fighting against the host. & of-somerset the part that **there** (**þær**) nearest **was** (**wæs**). then in the seventh week after easter he rode to egbertstone by east of-selwood & to-him came **there** (**þær**) back of-somerset-men all. & wiltshire & hampshire the part that of-it on-this-side-of sea was. & of-him glad they-were.& he went after on night from those camps to iley. & later after one night to edington. & **there** (**þær**) fought against all the host & it put-to-fight. & it after rode up-to the fortress. & **there** (**þær**) sat 14 nights. & then gave the host him hostages and great oaths.

[5] (The entry recording the battle of Brunanburh in the Parker Chronicle is a graphic poetical account of the battle.) (ibid)

WW: **there** (**þær**) lay man many-a. by-spears killed. man Northern. over shield shot. also Scots too. weary of-battle sated.

[6] OE Gospels (Matthew 28: 8-19): no time stated, may be in the 1000s, following Wulfstan, Archbishop of York from 1003 to 1023 (ibid)

WW: **Then** went they hurriedly from the tomb with fear and with much joy, and ran and told it to-his disciples. And behold **then** came the Lord against them and said, "Well be you." They approached and took his feet and to him worshipped. Then said the Lord to them, "(Do) not fear ye you. Go and tell my brethren that they go **into Galilee**. **There** (**þær**) they will see me." When they went then came some of the watchmen into the city and said to the of-priests elders all the things that **there** (**ðær**) happened were. **Then** gathered the elders them and held meeting and gave to-the soldiers much money, and said, "Say that his disciples came by night and stole him when we slept. And if the judge this asks, we will advise him and make you secure." **Then** took they the money, and did all as they instructed were, and this story was spread abroad among (the) Jews to this present day. **Then** went the eleven disciples **to the mountain where** (**þær**) the Lord them (had) appointed. And him **there** (**þær**) saw and they (to) him worshipped.

[7] Part of the Peterborough chronicle for 1066 (ibid)

WW: ... & harold earl succeeded to england's kingdom. as the king it to-him granted... He went out with ship-force against William. & meanwhile came tosting earl into humber with 60 ships... & the shipmen him forsook... & him met Harold the Norwegian king with 300 ships. And tostig him to submitted. & they both went into humber until they came to york. & them against fought morcar earl. & edwin earl. & the norwegian king all victory gained. & one told harold king how it was **there** (**þær**) done & happened. & he came with great army of-english men, & met him at stamford bridge. & slew. & the earl tostig. & all the host manfully ovecame & meanwhile came william earl up at hastings on st michael's mass day. & harold came from-north & him against fought before his army came all. & **there** (**þær**) he fell. & his two brothers Gurth & leofwine. and William this land conquered. & came to westminster.

[8] Cambridge:

WW: ... and **there** (**ðær**) dangerously wounded was, and even slain would-have-been, if his son him not had-helped (Or 4 8.186.22)

MnE: ... and was dangerously wounded **there**, and would even have been killed, had his son not helped him.

WW: ... but they not dared **there** (**þær**) in come (Or 1 1.17.27)

MnE: ... but they did not dare enter **there**.

So far, it has been shown that Old English is basically verb-final, or OV in most respects, which by no means excludes the cases that occasionally the finite verb may precede the object, but the sequence OV is the so-called unmarked order; a deviation from this basic arrangement serves to achieve some special purposes (e.g. to avoid the ambiguity between the nominal subjects and objects); the surface category subject is clearly not obligatory in OE. However, there is wide application of what is often called verb-second (V2) order in most OE main clauses. By V2 order it means the placement of finite verbs following an initial constituent, typically an adverb, like *þa* (*then*), *þær* (*there*), *na* (*not at all*), *ne* (*not*), etc.. Throughout the OE period, then, there is a gradual shift from greater to lesser use of verb-final patterns. (Hogg, 2002, p.275, p.276)

Then *þær* (*there*), according to the word order and the role of light and heavy element is mostly put before the predicate verb, typically after the conjunction *and*, and used to be anaphoric reference to the preceding adverbial place. It also functions in the discourse as linking up the clauses.

On the other hand, *þær* (*there*) in some other cases functioned as relative, conditional, and temporal. For example, if there is an NP or adverb head with locative adverbial function, an invariant adverbial relative *þær* meaning *where*, *in which*, *to which*, occasionally *from which* may be used.

[9] Cambridge:

WW: One was Babylonia, where (**þær**) Ninus ruled (Or 2 1.58.28)

WW: that are India's boundaries **there** (**þær**) **where** (**þær**) Caucasus that mountain is in the-north (Or 1 1.10.15)

MnE: Those are India's boundaries in the north **of which** is the mountain Caucasus.

WW: then went that bishop into that other church **where** (**þær**) that martyr inside lay, and asked that churchwarden **where** (**hwær**) of-that holy-man weapons were. (AECHom I, 30 452.1)

MnE: Then the bishop went into the other church in which the martyr lay, and asked the warden where the holy man's weapons were.

For another, *there* (*þær*) plus the subjunctive in both clauses is an alternative for the imaginary or unreal condition.

[10] Cambridge:

WW: **There** (**þær**) we our selves had-judged, then not would-have-judged us not god

MnE: **If** we judged ourselves, then God would not judge us. (CP 53 415.7)

Strong evidence that *þær* did indeed have a conditional meaning comes from the fact that *if* and *þær* are sometimes found in parallel conditional constructions. Furthermore, they can be found alternating in different manuscripts of the same work. (Hogg, 2002, p.257-258)

There's also evidence for *þær* occurring with a temporal sense (in the sense of both 'at that time' and 'whenever').

[11] Cambridge:

WW: ... but mutter with jaws **there** (**þær**) they should speak-aloud (WHom 16b 13)

MnE: ... but mutter with their jaws **when** they should speak aloud.

WW: and forbade that one never **there** (**ðær**) **after** not built (Or 6 7.262.21)

MnE: And forbade anyone to build **there after**.

It can be concluded from the above examples that in OE *þær* (*there*) is an adverb, mostly referring to a previously mentioned location in reality. Sometimes, it is abstracted by referring to the condition (e.g. [10]) or time (e.g. [11]). Another example in the following shows evidence that *there* is gradually becoming abstract.

[12] This short extract is the opening of an Old English homily, copied second half of 12th century. (OE-SE)

WW: ... He who me serves, follow he me then; and **there** (*þær*) **where** (*ðær*) I myself am, **there** (*þær*) is (*bi ð*) also my servant; ...

Here *þær* (*there*) is not any location mentioned in the preceding clause, but any place, which is not definite or specific though it can still be a place in reality. Here *there* (*þær*) is (*bi ð*) is inversion though in form it is similar to *there-be* construction. Other texts show current typical *there-be* construction has not appeared.

[13] Cambridge:

WW: **Then is** one port in south-of that land, which one calls Skiringssalt (Or 1 1.19.10)

MnE: **Then there is** a port in the south of that country which is called Skiringssalt.

WW: and **in each fortress is** king... (Or 1 1.20.14)

MnE: and in each fortress **there is** a king ...

WW: **In this abbess's minster was** (*wæs*) a bother specially ... honoured

MnE: In this abbess's minster **there was** a certain brother who was especially ... honoured (Bede 4 25.342.3)

WW: ... therefore **not-is** no doubt that he forgiveness give not-will to-them PT it earn want

MnE: ... therefore **there** is no doubt that he will give forgiveness to those who want to earn it. (HomS 17 (BIHom 5) 178)

WW: **In those days were** (*wæron*) in Isle-of-Wight three women, those two were blind through nine years' time

MnE: In those days **there were** three women in the Isle of Wight, two of them had been blind for nine years. (AELS (Swithun) 156)

In most cases, as [13] shows, where there is anticipatory such as *then*, prepositional phrases *in each fortress*, *In this abbess's minster*, *In those days*, or connecting adverb *therefore*, *there* or *it* is not needed in the OE. Here are more:

[14] Cambridge:

WW: thus **then** is to-me now very difficult for me to excite their spirit.

MnE: Thus **then it** is very difficult for me to excite their spirit. (Or 4 13.212.30)

WW: **then** was great doubt ... (AECHom I, 34,506.17)

MnE: **then there** was considerable doubt ...

Despite most evidence for the absence of *þær* (*there*) in the clauses, there is still a first glimmer of the dawn as the following shows. Exactly speaking, it is a rudiment of *there-be* construction.

[15] Cambridge:

WW: That Estland is (is) very big, and **there** (*þær*) is (*bi ð*) very many fortresses, and in each fortress is (*bi ð*) king. And **there** (*þær*) is (*bi ð*) very much honey ... **There** (*þær*) is (*bi ð*) very much fighting among them. And **not is** (*bi ð*) **there** (*ðær*) any ale brewed among Ests, but **there** (*þær*) is (*bi ð*) mead enough. And **there** (*þær*) is (*is*) among Ests custom, when **there** (*þær*) is (*bi ð*) man dead, that he lies inside unburned among his kin and friends month ... And all that time *þe*^① that body is (*bi ð*) inside, **there** (*þær*) shall **be** (*beon*) drink and play. (Or 1 1.20 14)

MnE: The land of the Ests is very large, and **there are** very many fortresses **there**, and in each fortress **there is** a king. And **there is** very much honey ... **there is** very much conflict between them. And **there is** no ale brewed among the Ests, but **there is** enough mead. And **there is** a custom among the Ests that, when **there is** a man dead, he lies inside uncremated among his kinsmen and friends for a month ... And all the time that the body is inside, **there** (*þær*) shall be drink and play.

The Cambridge History considers, of the eight instances of *þær* in the above text from Wulfstan's description of Estonia in *Orosius*, "the first two seem to be clearly locative and substitutable" by *on Estlande*, and the last six are at least potentially empty subject-position holders". "The analysis of the last (*þær*) as an empty subject-marker rather than a true adverb rests on the assumption that it is unlikely to be anaphoric to *inside* – since drinking and playing were probably not restricted to the very same location in which the body lay at rest." (Cambridge: 218, 235)

However, herein is a little difference, in fact. The last six *þærs*, especially the ones after *and*, can substitute for *on Estlande*, too, because *þær* is favored to be adaptor connecting clauses in the context, with the exception of "ne *bið ðær* (not is there)" when *ne* takes the initiative. The last two *þærs* in [4] are a testimony to it. More evidence is as follows:

[16] Cambridge:

WW: he fought against Goths and put-to-flight was and driven **into one fortress** and **there** (*þær*) was (*wear ð*) in one house burned-to-death. **There** (*þær*) was (*wæs*) very right sentence carried out. (Or 6 34.290.32)

MnE: He fought against the Goths and was put to flight and driven into a fortress; and he was burned to death in a house. Very just judgement was carried out **there** ...

WW: they dug each part-of-that **vegetable-garden** of-that PT **there** (*þær*) before not-dug was (GD 202.3)

MnE: They dug every part of the vegetable garden that had been left undug before.

^① Note: There was a widely used subordinating particle *þe*; since it has no exact equivalent in PDE, and its structural properties are not fully agreed on, it is glossed here simply as PT (short for particle). (Cambridge: 171)

In [16] the three *thers* refer to *in the fortress* and *in the vegetable garden*, in the corresponding MnE version all can be omitted. What's more evident is that the clauses are bound up with *ther* (there) in the form of an initial word, which is the main function of *there* in OE accompanying anaphoric reference. This also is the result of OE word order, e.g. the ending clauses in [16].

In historical linguistic view, such a linguistic phenomenon exists because a grammatical subject is not obligatory in OE. For another, as the above shows, basic patterns in OE are overridden by other phenomena. While the basic OV word order of OE is most easily observed in subordinate clauses, in main clauses, it is overridden by the verb-second order, i.e. AV order, in most main clauses, such as in [13] and [15], finite verbs following an initial constituent, typically an adverb: a pronominal adverb of locative, temporal or negative origin.

A second phenomenon is the fact that light, i.e. phonologically short, often adverbial or pronominal forms, are preferred clause-initially, and heavy elements, typically complex phrases or subordinate clauses, are preferred sentence-finally. Such preference continues down to the present day, which is the so-called end-weight principle for light elements clause-initially and heavy elements in clause-final position.

From a discourse perspective, differences in word order can, Hopper suggests, be exploited to give pragmatic cues to reference. In MnE nominals are expected to do the work of distinguishing reference, while in OE, in Hopper's opinion, construction *Then-Verb* signals a change of subject. (Cambridge: 278) In fact, other adverb-initial constructions also have such a function, such as preposition phrases in [13], *þer* in [12], and *þær* (*and there*) in [15].

As it has been mentioned above, the subject is not obligatory till in ME. Nevertheless, there is some evidence that in OE there is a tendency to fill the subject position by the use of *hit* (*it*) in impersonal construction and the use of *þær* in certain copula constructions with an indefinite subject. "Unlike *hit* in impersonals, *þær* occurs with a subject. Its function is not to fill a totally empty subject position, but rather to place a definite element in subject position, where otherwise an indefinite would occur, and thus to correlate subject position with definiteness, at least in copula constructions. In MnE this correlation is obligatory in existential sentences with indefinite subjects, cf. *There's a problem with this analysis* vs. **A problem is with this analysis*. In OE it is optional." (ibid: 216-218) This option has been demonstrated by both the non-use and the use of *þær* in the beginning sentences of [15].

In *Cambridge History of the English Language*, it says, although *þær*-constructions are found in *Beowulf*, they are very rare until later OE, especially AElfric. Then *there-be* construction is becoming common and well-established.

[17] Laðamon's Brut (a chronicle history of Britain written towards the end of the 12th century by a priest in a West Midlands dialect) (OE-SE)²

EME: AN preost wes on leoden : Laðamon wes ihoten...vppen seuarne staþe: sel **þar** him þuhte... boc he nom þe þridde: leide **þer** amidden...

WW: (**There**) was a priest in (the) land, Laðamon (who) was named ...upon Severn's bank – good **there** (to) him (it) seemed... (a) book he took the third, laid **there** in (the) midst...

[18] Introduction to the life of St Kenelm (early middle English – 13th c) (OE – SE) (preceding lines)

Vif kinges **þere** were þulke tyme. In Engelond ido...

Fram þe est into þe west. and also þere inne beop

Manie wateres god inou. as 3e alday iseo

Ac þreo wateres principals. **þer beoþ** of alle iwis

Homber and Temese. Seuerne þe þridde is.

Translation: **There** were five kings in England at that time...

From east to west, and therein also are

Many good rivers, as you can see any day,

But **there are** three principal rivers of all,

Humber and Thames, and Severn is the third.

This is a better example showing the embryonic period of *there-be* construction: the NP, still the attention, is initial.

[19] The Bestiary – The Whale (written in the East Midland dialect in the second half of the 13th century) (OE – SE)

WW: Whale is a fish the biggest that in water is this fish lives on the sea bottom and lives **there** ever healthy and sound

[20] The Owl and the Nightingale (The poem can be fairly accurately dated to the 1190s. The original has not survived, but the facsimile was probably copied after the mid-13th century.) (OE - SE)

Edited version: þe niȝ tingale bigon þe speche

In one hurne of one breche,

An sat up one vaireboȝ

þar were (**pere**) abute blosme inoȝe

Literal translation: The nightingale began the speech

In a corner of a clearing

And sat upon a fair bough

Around which were blossoms enough

² Note: Freeborn regards English in this period as Early Middle English.

[21] Robert of Gloucester's Chronicle, about c.1300 (late in 13th c – 1272) (ibid)

a. WW: ... I believe **there** (**þer**) ne are (**beþ**) in all the world countries none that ne-hold to their own speech but England alone. ... Aldred was his name. **There** (**þer**) ne-was (**nas**) prince in all the world of so noble fame.

b. WW: A few drops of rain **there** (**þer**) fell great enough...gentlemen that were taken at Evesham many a one like Sir Guy... Sir Baldwin...& Sir Robert who...these & many more were taken & the same murdered **there** (**þere**) but the Welsh footmen that **there** (**þer**) **were** many a one at the beginning of the battle began to flee each one & came through Tewkesbury & **there** (**þere**) men of the town slew them all to the ground so that **there** (**þere**) they lay down

[22] Kentish dialect – Michael of Northgate's Ayenbyte of Inwyt, 1340 (ibid)

Efterward **þer wes** a poure man, ase me zayþ, þet hedde ane cow...

WW: afterward **there was** a poor man, as I am told, that had a cow...

[23] A later 14th-century South West dialect of ME (ibid)

John of Trevisa on the English language in 1385

WW: As it is known how many kinds (of) people are in this island **there(þer) are(buþ)** also of so many people languages and tongues.

<th> - has not replaced <þ> in Trevisa, letter <þ> survived into the 15th c.

[24] The 14th-century Scots English dialect

John Barbour's *The Bruce* (ibid)

WW: ... And Sir Walter the good Stewart

With armed men had to ride about

And see where that **there** (**yar**) **was** (**war**) most doubt

And bring help there (yar) with his company. ...

[25] Here are facsimiles, from the Hengwrt MS, of an extract from the Prologue to Chaucer's Friar Tale in the late 14th century. (ibid)

Hengwrt MS: Whilom/ **ther** was duellynge in my contree An Erchedekne/ a man of hy degree That boldly/ dide execuciou(n)...

[26] 15th c London English – William Caxton

In 1482 William Caxton printed a revised text of Trevisa's 1385 translation as in [23]. This provides an excellent example of some of the changes which had taken place in the language within a hundred years.

Caxton's version, 1482 (ibid)

As it is known how many maner peple ben in this Ilond **ther ben** also many langages and tonges.

[27] Caxton's the History of Reynart the Foxe, 1489 version

... whan the kyng of alle beestys had assemblyd alle hys court/ **Ther was** none of them alle ...

[28] The Celys were wool merchants, or staplers. They bought woolen fleeces in England and sold them on the Continent in Calais and Bruges.

George Cely in Calais to Richard Cely in London, 12 March 1478 (ibid)

MnE spelling and punctuation:

... and I was welcome unto my friends, for till my brother came to Calais **there was** (**ther whas**) none other tidings **there** (**ther**) but I was dead etc. pleaseth it you to understand **there is** (**ther ys**) now none merchants at Calais nor was but few this month, ...

[29] Note of events (June 1483) and memoranda by George Cely (ibid)

There is (**ther ys**) great romber (rumor) in the realm.

[30] Early Modern English – the 16th c. (ibid)

With vs **ther was** a doctour of phisik

In al this world ne **was ther** noon hym lik ... (318)

[31] in 1531: (ibid)

There can be nothing more conuenient than by litle ...

As the examples illustrate, in EME *there* in the inchoate *there-be* construction still can be regarded as the substitute for the former places, such as *upon the bough* in [20], *in this island* in [23]. What makes it fuzzier is *there* follows the indefinite noun at the beginning, and another is used in the relative clause after the definite noun in [21b]. Then later on, there are more and more typical established *there-be* constructions, most of which *there* coexists with the adverbial place. It is all the same reasonable if *there* in these clauses is analyzed as having the same reference as the place, especially when the place is in the preceding position, as in [30]. As Freeborn (2000, 318) says, "the filling of the subject slot in a clause with the dummy *there* or *it* had been established well before the beginning of the century, the 16th c., e.g. in Chaucer". At the same time, *there* has completed the process of abstraction, as the following shows:

[32] John Hart's An Orthographie, 1569

But in the moderne & present manner of writing **there is** such confusion and disorder ...

Here *there* is abstract space, *in the manner of writing*.

To sum up, in OE, *þær* (*there*) is a locative adverb with anaphoric reference to the preceding adverbial place. On the other hand, *þær* (*there*) in some other cases functioned as relative, conditional, and temporal. According to the word order and the role of light and heavy element, it is mostly put before the predicate verb, typically after the conjunction

and, naturally functioning in the discourse as linking up the clauses. The current *there-be* construction has not appeared in OE and the pattern *there (þær) is (bi ð)* is inversion though in form it is similar to *there-be* construction. Moreover, where there is anticipatory such as *then*, prepositional phrases or connecting adverbs signaling a change of subject, *there* is not needed in OE. ME shows the embryonic and growing period of *there-be* construction when the subject is obligatory, although the NP sometimes is still initial. At the same time *there* is gradually becoming abstract. Although there is the subject, the verb number is mostly in agreement with that of the NP. EMnE sees the maturity of *there-be* construction, where it is well-established.

B. Historical Analysis

Throughout the OE period, it can be seen that there is a gradual shift from greater to lesser use of verb-final patterns. Some researchers, such as Strang (1970), argue that the word order change was primarily motivated by the increased role in the middle period of light versus heavy elements. Others, like Bean (1983), have suggested that the potential ambiguity, resulted from the loss of subject versus object inflection on nouns, but not pronouns, was avoided by allowing the verb to intervene. Probably both factors worked together to contribute to the word order change (Hogg, 2002, p. 276).

Cambridge History of the English Language explains, “empty subject *þær* is derived from the locative adverb meaning *there*”, and on some occasions (e.g. [15]) the two may be hard to distinguish. “The locative is always substitutable by a different adverb of place, but the empty *þær* is not”. Existential *þær* has “the property of not having full pronominal functions”, i.e., it does not “substitute for a noun phrase”, and therefore has “none of the participant semantics associated with nominative case”; furthermore, it is “not clearly anaphoric or cataphoric”. Rather, it appears “to have been syntacticised and to function as an empty subject that fill a position”. (Hogg, 2002, p.218-219)

It has been stated that in OE when (an)other argument(s) *is/ are* present, the syntactic subject can still be left out. However, the use of *(h)it/ there* becomes more and more frequent towards the end of the period. Maybe the direct and outward reason that a subject becomes more or less obligatory in ME is linked to the fact that the word order became fixed as SVO. In this order the subject takes up the first position. When the subject was a clause, an infinitive or a heavy NP, these would normally be placed at the end of a clause, according to the principle of end-weight and the initial position was filled with a preliminary subject. Consequently, in completely subjectless constructions *(h)it* became the rule, so that all constructions (with only a few clearly defined exceptions such as questions etc.) conformed to the fixed order.

As to the case of *there*, there is something different. Because of the basic anaphoric function of adverb *there*, there exists a pattern of *There-V-S* (e.g. [5, 12, 16]). Also, in the Chronicle a sequence of events is typically expressed by co-ordinate clauses and no shift of subject. By contrast, events introduced by *there* with a verb, signal a new episode in the sequence, typically with a new subject. Therefore, there will naturally be a co-existing pattern, *There-be-NP* (e.g. [15]). As a result, there is evidently a fuzzy area in which judgments about grammaticality of the two patterns are not clear-cut, e.g. [15]. That is, syntactic constructions become ambiguous in specific contexts and speakers may come to favour a new analysis rather than the old one in the course of time. In other words, in such cases speakers evidently no longer stick to established rules or norms, but begin to extend the validity of a rule to new environments. Therefore, constant use of words may be insufficient, and new, more expressive meanings emerge. For reasons of economy, humans tend to avoid synonymous new words so that adverb *there* is extended to mean abstract space, introducing the following noun.

Historical linguists believe, there are three important mechanisms of the syntactic change, namely analogy, the reanalysis of surface structures and the process of grammaticalization. By analogy, *there-be* construction comes into being from the reduction of *Then-V* and *PP-V* constructions in OE. Analogical change occurs when one form adjusts to resemble another one with which it is related in form or meaning. For example:

in each fortress: there

In each fortress is king: **There** is king (in each fortress)

(and) then: (and) there

Then is one port in south-of that land: There is one port in south of that land

Here *there* has the similar reference and function to PP, and similar part of speech and function to *then*, so if *then* and PP can occur in the above clauses, it is also true for *there* to head them. Simultaneously, the verb following *there* is usually *be*, since the preposition in PP has indicated the relationship. In addition, *Then-V* and *PP-V* constructions are used to introduce a new topic, so the verbs are of the features to indicate the existence or occurrence of something. Once the subject is obligatory in a clause, the above two clauses only can be filled with *there* but not *it*. At the same time, *Then-V* construction has been gradually leveled out. Then there exist two similar *there*-initial clauses: *There is king* and *There is also my servant* [12]. Owing to the obligatory position of the subject, the resulted construction *There is (a) king* now allows for a different syntactic analysis, since *there* may be interpreted as the grammatical subject, while in the similar clause *There is also my servant*, *there* is adverbial. The predominating unmarked word order SVC leads to the reanalysis of *there* in *There is a king* as subject, though the old analysis of *there* as adverbial is still supported by the communicative need to emphasize and survives into the present. To distinguish or classify the two formally similar forms, in the old analysis, *there*, the adverbial, is followed by an old NP, which accordingly is definite, while in the reanalysis, *there*, the subject, mostly plus verb *be*, is followed by a new NP, which accordingly is indefinite.

For another, because of the same reason, *then* loses its signal function and *Then-V* pattern becomes out-of-date. *There* has to be employed thereupon to fill the position of subject to fulfill the discourse requirement to introduce a change of reference or topic. Thus *there* assumes a grammatical function, which leads to its phonological and semantic changes. *There* in the new construction can not be an adverb, but a noun equivalent and loses its stressed sound, used with *be*, especially in the contracted form with *be*, namely, *there's*. Syntactically, existential *there* is placed before the verb in declarative clauses and can be used in question tags. The use of these constructions further testifies to the grammaticalization of *there*. For another, in terms of markedness, the construction was marked at the outset compared with the unmarked word order SVB, usually in the pattern of NP + V + Locative Phrase. When speakers were to begin using this marked form more frequently, the construction, being used most of the time, would become the unmarked form.

III. CONCLUSION

As is analyzed above, the exceptions in the *there-be* construction, which are simply inexplicable in synchronic terms, can only be explained by reference to past states and developments. Unfortunately, historical studies have not provided any cogent argument over it. It is necessary to analyze *there-be* construction from historical perspective since the focus is on the derivation of *there*.

In the historical study, it is evident that *there-be* construction derivates from archaic *Then-V* pattern and *PP-V* pattern by analogy when the subject is obligatory in the clause and because of the analogy the following verb mostly is *be*. It is demonstrated that *there-be* construction derivates from archaic *Then-V* pattern and *PP-V* pattern by analogy when the subject is obligatory in the clause.

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