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Teaching Requests to L2 Learners of Spanish

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Abstract —In many language classrooms, the teaching of pragmatic forms is often ignored at all learner levels. This paper – part of a larger study that encompassed four speech acts – examines the benefits of explicit instruction of requests for beginning, intermediate, and advanced L2 learners of Spanish. The participants took a pre-test and post-test to measure the pragmatic gains over the course of an academic quarter, while the experimental groups from each level received specific lessons in pragmatic use of Spanish and the control group received no extra treatment during their courses. While the treatment consisted of provided online lessons on the common uses of four speech acts in Spanish, this paper focuses on the formulation of requests. The results show that the students that received the treatment had higher scores on the Dialogue Completion Test than the control group. Furthermore, the intermediate level showed the most improvement, suggesting that this is the optimal level for pragmatic development because learners at this level are the most receptive to the acquisition of requests. This investigation shows that the explicit teaching of requests is effective and should be addressed in the Spanish language classroom at all levels, especially at the intermediate level.

Index Terms—interlanguage pragmatics, explicit instruction, Spanish, requests, speech acts

I. INTRODUCTION

The present study synthesizes Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) and explicit instruction – areas within SLA that are in need of further research on learner development – for the purpose of teaching pragmatic forms in Spanish. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the usefulness of explicit instruction and to examine the acquisition of interlanguage pragmatic forms. This paper – part of a larger study that studied four speech acts – examines the benefits of explicit instruction of requests for beginning, intermediate, and advanced L2 learners of Spanish. The study of pragmatics and ILP inherently focuses on language use in a social context. This investigation, based in Sociocultural Approach (Kramsch, 2000; Lantolf, 2000; 2002; Swain and Lapkin, 1998; Vygotsky, 1978), combines Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP), explicit instruction and the acquisition of pragmatic forms in Spanish, to determine the benefits of these important factors that influence L2 development of the formulation of requests in Spanish.

Previous studies (Blum-Kulka, 1989; Koike, 1989; Le Pair, 1996; Pinto, 2005) have provided a foundation for documenting what native speakers say in many scenarios in Spanish. This body of research could inform explicit instruction to promote awareness, since this type of study can help L2 learners of Spanish compare Interlanguage and target language forms. By focusing on L2 pragmatic development, I will also attempt to provide curricular guidelines to enhance the learners" pragmatic competence. A curricular guide can impact traditional classroom teaching as well as study-abroad courses. While I expected explicit instruction to be a useful device to help L2 learners, it is only a part of L2 development, and time on task plays a key role in this development.

Generally speaking, by administering a treatment to the experimental groups I assumed that the explicit instruction in the form of the online guide would be beneficial for the learners (Norris and Ortega, 2000; Schmidt 1993; 1995). By showing that the treatment was beneficial, it provides a good indicator that explicit instruction is useful, at least for teaching pragmatic competence in requests. Furthermore, by examining data from multiple levels of learners, I hope to be able to determine an ideal time to teach request forms to L2 learners of Spanish. Classifying visible stages of development would help fill a gap in the literature of acquisitional pragmatic studies, a key problem previously identified in previous ILP literature (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Rose and Kasper, 2001; Schmidt, 1993, 1995).

The remainder of the article outlines the previous literature, methodology and results of the study, along with a further examination of the results specific to the learner development of requests.

II. BACKGROUND

The present study is situated within the framework of Vygotskian Sociocultural Theory, and draws on politeness theory to examine the development of interlanguage pragmatic competence in L2 learners of Spanish. Furthermore, the study draws upon previous literature that deals with interlanguage pragmatics. Despite a great deal of research on interlanguage pragmatics (Schmidt: 1993, Bardovi-Harlig: 2002, Kasper and Rose: 2002, and others), very little of this literature examines the possible effects of receiving explicit instruction and even less directed at learning and teaching Spanish.

A. Sociocultural Theory

A large body of research in Second Language Acquisition examines language learning within a Vygotskian sociocultural framework, which essentially views language learning in social terms (Kramsch, 2000; Lantolf, 2000; 2002; Swain and Lapkin, 1998). This theory is based on the work of Vygotsky (1978), who claims that all knowledge is the result of social interaction. In other words, he claims that humans learn from these social interactions with others, and then proceed to internalize them. Moreover, this approach states that an individual is not an independent being but rather a social being that is situated in a cultural and historical context.

While sociocultural theory claims that all learning is socially mediated and therefore dependent on interaction and shared processes and activities, this is especially true for learning a language. In other words, learning and acquiring the requisite signs used to communicate are also based on social processes. It is also true that although learners are capable of functioning on their own, the learners or unskilled individuals learn by completing tasks with a more skilled individual. This guidance allows the learner to complete more complex tasks, and learn how to do things through this collaboration until the knowledge is *appropriated* into his or her repertoire. In Vygotskian thought, when learners are in this range where they can perform at a higher proficiency level with help, it is known as the *Zone of Proximal Development*, or ZPD. This is most productive domain for learning because the learner is not yet capable of achieving a desired result independently, but can achieve that goal with the guidance of a more skilled individual.

Additionally, neo-Vygotskian researchers have coined the term *scaffolding* (Bruner, 1985; Wood *et al.*, 1976), to help encapsulate the idea of learning and appropriation of new ideas through interaction, specifically an interaction in the ZPD with a more capable individual. Scaffolding is a metaphor for the more skilled individual guiding the learner to reach his or her potential development level; the expert supports the novice to complete a task that the novice could not do on his own.

The notions of ZPD and scaffolding are pertinent to the present study because the L2 learners of Spanish do not consistently produce target language pragmatic forms, but with the help of lessons on pragmatics, the learners were able to produce an acceptable form. This means that the students are in the ZPD with regards to acquiring and producing pragmatic formulas – in this case requests, invitations, refusals and apologies – and can therefore use the target language at a higher level of proficiency while being *scaffolded* by the lessons than they could on their own without any outside assistance. Therefore, the idea of ZPD is relevant to L2 pragmatics, because the learners do not produce the target pragmatic forms on their own, but rather they need assistance from a more knowledgeable participant, or in the case of the present study, help in the form of online pragmatic lessons.

B. Politeness Theory

Brown and Levinson (1978) developed the politeness theory to account for the belief that speakers try to "save face" when performing speech acts, such as making requests or giving orders, which are intrinsically impolite speech acts. Brown and Levinson define "face" as the speaker's public image, and the politeness model details the options available to a speaker by outlining "positive strategies" and "negative strategies." A positive strategy tends to be more direct and is often mitigated by some kind of commonality or bond. A negative strategy shows deference to the hearer and provides him or her a way out of performing the desired speech act. For example, "give me your matches, love" is a positive strategy while "could you spare a match?" is a negative strategy. One can imagine the difficulty in fulfilling two opposing goals: getting the hearer to comply with the speaker's act and saving face at the same time.

Another aspect of the politeness theory is that it assumes the speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1975). Speech act theory is primarily concerned with language functions and use, and states that performance is separated into three types of acts: a locutionary act, an illocutionary act, and a perlocutionary act. A locutionary act can be described as the meaning of the act, the illocutionary act is the how the act is carried out, and a perlocutionary act is the effect on the addressee. In a direct speech act, such as with imperatives, the speaker generally means exactly what he says. However, for indirect speech acts, there is not a direct relationship between the literal meaning of the utterance and the illocutionary force (what is actually meant). For example, directly saying, "pass the salt" is a literal request, whereas asking "can you pass the salt" is not questioning the addressee's ability to pass the salt, but rather indirectly asking for the salt. These distinctions are of particular importance for requests and politeness strategies. Interlanguage pragmatics, then, deals primarily with illocutionary acts and learner performance.

C. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Other important research that informs this study deals with interlanguage pragmatics (ILP). Despite a great deal of research on ILP (Schmidt: 1993, Bardovi-Harlig: 2002, Kasper and Rose: 2002, and others), very little of this literature examines the possible effects of receiving explicit instruction. Crystal (1997) defines pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication." The work done on ILP aims to examine L2 pragmatic use. Since the study of ILP has predominantly focused on documenting language use, the field has not paid much attention to developmental aspects: how interlanguage pragmatics changes over time. This also means that studies in interlanguage pragmatics are by and large descriptive in nature.

Researchers such as Bardovi-Harlig (2001), Rose and Kasper (2001), Schmidt (1993, 1995), and many others have examined closely the pedagogical applications of pragmatics. One of the main areas of study has been the concepts of

"noticing" and "awareness" and the role of input, such as in the study by Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin (2005), where a group of ESL students performed a series of tasks related to a video in order to analyze the use of requests. This showed that students were fairly adept at identifying pragmatic problems, but still did not match the native speaker norm.

Cohen and Shively (2007) based their study on the fact that students lack "adequate awareness" of the L2 and its culture to fully take advantage of the study-abroad experience. They created an online guide that the students worked through while studying abroad, aimed at raising that awareness and providing clues to help better navigate certain social situations. While the results were not statistically significant, the treatment seemed to be beneficial and this notion influenced the present study, despite the fact that present data does not incorporate the study-abroad context.

D. Interlanguage Pragmatics in Spanish

There is a limited amount of research done within interlanguage pragmatics dealing particularly with L2 learners of Spanish. These studies deal primarily with comparing what English speakers and Spanish speakers do, without much of a focus on L2 learners of Spanish. Much of the literature also centers on cross-cultural examinations between Spanish and another language, usually English (Pinto: 2005).

Koike (1989) tested students at the beginning and end of their first semester of Spanish on the use of direct or indirect requests. These responses were compared to English usage in the same situations, and she found that the beginning students were less polite in Spanish (L2) than English (L1). This was due to the use of simpler forms in the L2 that created less polite requests. Departing from her previous study, Koike (1996) examined how first, second and third-year L2 learners of Spanish were able to identify suggestions in videos. Although the students were successful in identifying cues like *por favor* "please" or *lo siento* "I'm sorry" as a politeness strategy due to the similar meaning in both languages, it is unclear whether the learners fully understood the Spanish use of the request or apology speech act. For example, while *please* is used very similarly in both English and Spanish, the Spanish use of *lo siento* is mainly reserved for grave situations like the death of a loved one.

With regards to politeness strategies, Blum-Kulka (1989) performed a cross-linguistic analysis of politeness strategies of requests in Hebrew, English, Spanish and French. This is useful in pointing out that Argentine Spanish speakers prefer hearer-centered requests, while English speakers generally use speaker-oriented speech. For example, *¿Me puedes pasar la sal?* "Can you pass me the salt?" is a hearer-centered request, while "Can I have the salt?" is speaker-centered. Furthermore, the Spanish speakers in the analysis used more imperatives and were more direct, while the English speakers used more downgraders. Blum-Kulka thus established a baseline outlining some significant differences between the two languages. This difference is an example of a possibly useful strategy that can be taught explicitly in the classroom. With this idea in mind, Le Pair (1996) compared Dutch learners of Spanish to native Spanish speakers, and found similar usage of direct speech by the native speakers.

Pinto (2005) sought out to establish a protocol for how L2 Spanish learners differed from their Spanish L1 counterparts. He created several scenarios given to a group of L2 Spanish learners from four different stages of the learning process. They were given a Discourse Completion Test (DCT), which is a questionnaire that includes blanks to be filled in or scripts that must be completed according to a given scenario. In addition to the learner data, he administered the DCT to native speakers of Spanish from Spain and Mexico.

As stated above, the research focusing on learner development of pragmatics is limited. It is commonly assumed that L2 learners acquire pragmatic features in stages, and Pinto demonstrated that in this study. Nevertheless, he states, "pragmatic progress is largely accidental," since the areas with the least amount of problems were those where the L1 and L2 overlap in terms of pragmatic function.

E. Explicit Instruction

In the field of Second Language Acquisition there has been much debate over the effectiveness of explicit instruction and explicit teaching (Alcón Soler, 2005; N. Ellis, 1994; Krashen, 1982; 1994; Long, 1983; Norris and Ortega, 2000). More research, however, is still needed to show that explicit instruction can be useful to teach L2. This theoretical debate depends on whether learners use implicit or explicit cognitive processes for L2 acquisition. Researchers either believe that there is an "interface" between implicit and explicit processes or no interface at all (Krashen, 1985; N. Ellis, 1994). There is further discord among researchers about the strength of the so-called interface. There are researchers who believe in a weak interface between explicit and implicit cognitive processes (Doughty & Williams, 1998; de Graaf, 1997; Terrell, 1991), Norris and Ortega (2000). These investigators explain that this research examines:

Certain instructional techniques, which contextualize the new L2 material within meaningful episodes in a manner that is relatively unobtrusive but salient enough for further cognitive processing, may help learners direct their attention to the relevant features in the input and thus expedite the acquisition process.

On the other hand, researchers in favor of a strong interface (Dekeyser, 1997; N. Ellis, 1994; McLaughlin, 1990) are more concerned with how explicit knowledge is transformed into implicit knowledge available for use in the L2.

It appears unlikely that explicit instruction can be harmful assuming that the learners are provided with sufficient amounts of input. As MacWhinney (1997) states, "providing learners with explicit instruction along with standard implicit exposure would seem to be a no-lose proposition." Moreover, Long (2003), in summarizing various studies dealing with the effects of instruction on L2 learners, found that explicit instruction does make a difference, and that it is especially fruitful for beginning learners. However, he calls for further examinations of the relationship between

instruction type and learner type with explicit instruction and explicit learning. Despite the fact that the connection between explicit instruction and explicit learning is not entirely clear, experiments by DeKeyser (1997) and de Graaff (1997) have shown that explicit instruction facilitated learning. Other studies by Long (1991; 1997) show that by directing learners' attention to linguistic features (i.e. Focus on Form) can be useful in the future.

Norris and Ortega (2000) provided a summary of findings about L2 type-of-instruction research in order to see if previous studies have found explicit instruction effective for L2 learning. They conclude that L2 instruction is durable and state that "[…] instruction that incorporates explicit techniques leads to more substantial effects than implicit instruction." The authors also found that using explicit instruction leads to change for the learners, claiming that "focused L2 instruction results in large gains over the course of an intervention. Specifically, L2 instruction of particular language forms induces substantial target-oriented change…"

The present study applies and compares these findings to the area of interlanguage pragmatics, with the expectation that explicit teaching of pragmatic forms and norms will lead to more target-like speech by the learners. The basis of this current study assumes that explicit instruction will be beneficial for the group of learners that receives a treatment in an attempt to draw their attention to certain pragmatic forms. In other words, the treatment will help explicitly teach the students acceptable forms for a given context in order to examine the accuracy with which they can produce the correct form.

III. METHODOLOGY

In order to track learner development, all the participants completed a pre-test and a post-test, while the arbitrarily assigned experimental groups received extra lessons. I gave the learners a questionnaire with Dialogue Completion Tasks (DCT) at the beginning and end of one academic quarter (10 weeks apart). The questionnaire was piloted with both native speakers and intermediate students and resulted in the desired responses. The questionnaire consists of twenty questions, which are situations that require the participant to choose an appropriate request, invitation, refusal, or an apology (Example 3.1).They were given one week to fill in the background information and to respond to each situation on the DCT. Each of the questions has a prompt that describes a situation and that situation is followed by blank line where the students write their response to the prompt. In this manner, the students are required to complete a conversational turn using one of four speech acts.

Example 3.1 Sample test questions for a request
You ask your professor for help with your homework.
You say: _____

As seen in the above example, the questions were written in English to ensure that all the students comprehended exactly what was being asked of them. Since all the participants reported that they grew up speaking English as children, by giving instructions in English, I was able to eliminate misunderstandings as a possible reason for an incorrect answer.

For the treatment given to the experimental groups, I created lessons that spanned 10 weeks and were assigned as part of the assigned coursework to ensure completion (see appendix for examples). The goal of these lessons was to present an overview of pragmatics in general, followed by specific uses of the speech acts in Spanish. Each lesson was also accompanied by comprehension exercises to give the students the opportunities to practice the forms and ideas they just studied in the lessons. Each lesson in the treatment consisted of the following items:
■ An explanation of the speech act and context of its use
■ Examples of the forms used to create the speech act
■ Activities to ensure comprehension of the forms

The students had roughly two weeks to complete each lesson and each was completed online. All the participants that completed all four of lessons showed satisfactory comprehension of each lesson, and once all the lessons were completed, the students were asked to complete the DCT again as the post-test, which were scored and compared with the pre-test scores.

The participants in this study were all students of Spanish at a public university in California. Each participant completed a background questionnaire about their experience with the Spanish language and I only selected those who described themselves as native English speakers. Some students reported speaking other languages as children, but only those who spoke Spanish at home with their family were discarded. Due to an increasingly globalized society, there are more and more multilingual people, making it difficult to employ only monolingual speakers of English in the strict sense. The subjects were divided into groups based on their level of Spanish, and I used their current course level as an approximate level of proficiency since each course is uniform and provides a solid idea of how much experience the learners have in the target language.

The three levels investigated consisted of beginning (1st year; SPA 3), intermediate (2nd year; SPA 22) and advanced (upper-division) L2 Spanish learners at the university level. The subjects can further be divided into a control group and an experimental group, the latter group receiving explicit instruction in the form of online lessons to bring attention to specific pragmatic speech acts. The beginning students are first-year Spanish students, corresponding with the Spanish 3 course at university. This level was selected because the students have a higher proficiency level in terms of basic grammar and vocabulary than in lower course levels and will be less likely to struggle to comprehend meaning. True beginners might know how to respond, but would not have the linguistic competence to respond to the situation. The

intermediate students correspond to second-year Spanish classes (SPA 22), while the advanced students are taking upper-division classes at the university. Despite the fact that the divisions between learner groups are not exact because of individual differences, by having the levels correspond to courses, we have some idea of the experience or "seat time" that the learners have with the L2. Table 3.2 outlines the subjects used in the study with the number of participants in each group.

TABLE 3.2
DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS.

Level	Control	Experimental
Beginner (Spanish 3)	13	13
Intermediate (Spanish 22)	14	12
Advanced (upper-division)	6	8
Total	33	33

Upon completion, the responses were compiled according to their acceptability; that is, whether or not they followed native speaker norms for the situation. In general, an acceptable answer was one that elicited the desired response, which means saving face in the given social situation. The first step in formulating an answer is identifying the correct speech act required and attempting to employ it in the scenario. All the participants were able to recognize when a request was required. This was most likely due to the fact that all the instructions and questions were written in English, thus ensuring comprehension of the instructions and questionnaire.

Since all the participants used the correct speech act – or at least attempted the correct speech act – the difficulties would stem from other factors. There were a wide variety of factors that determine what an acceptable response consists of: the use of the formal or informal verb tense "*tú*" vs. "*usted,*" the use of correct grammar, adequate vocabulary, and also being polite so that the hearer does not think the speaker is rude. The violation of these concepts in the student responses yielded an unacceptable and incorrect response.

An answer was deemed unacceptable if there were grammatical mistakes that altered the meaning of the utterance enough that it either did not communicate or did not convey the desired meaning according to the prompt. There were many instances of grammatical errors in the request prompts, where an acceptable answer was hearer-centered instead of speaker-centered. For example, in the salt scenario (test question #5) a correct answer would be *pásame la sal* "pass me the salt," or *¿me puedes pasar la sal?* "can you pass me the salt?," which has the hearer is the subject of the sentence. An unacceptable answer would be *¿puedo usar la sal?* "can I use the salt?" which has the speaker as the subject, and is not used in the formation of requests in Spanish. These examples represent different grammatical structures and so I considered these to be errors in grammar – even though some examples were grammatically correct – because they reflect a development in L2 grammar and not the lexicon.

Another area of difficulty for some students was with vocabulary, where they used the wrong lexical item in their attempt to carry out a speech act. There were unacceptable responses that were grammatically correct, but had an incorrect word or use of a word. This was understandably more frequent at the beginning level, where the students have a more limited vocabulary.

IV. RESULTS

In this section, I analyze the results of the test scores for both the pre-tests and post-tests taken by the participants in both the experimental groups and control groups. Two separate statistical tests were run in order to acquire the most accurate results and to avoid any possible bias. First, the Tukey Honest Significance Test was performed because it is most useful when comparing a number of groups without beginning with a specific hypothesis of how the data results will end up. This type of statistical analysis generally makes it more difficult for the results to be significantly different between the groups, because it compares all the groups against each other. Once these results were acquired, I then ran a comparison between the experimental and control groups of each level. I did this to determine whether the treatment was effective, because the experimental group received additional lessons while the control group did not. Therefore, since my hypothesis at the beginning was that the experimental groups would improve on the post-test more than the control groups, I compared the post-test results of the experimental and control groups for each level.

A. Pre-test Results

In order to begin analyzing the data and in order to determine any effect brought about by the online treatment, it was first necessary to establish the fact that the three learner groups did not differ at the baseline. In other words, the students that were in each of the three learner groups (SPA 3, SPA 22, and Upper-Division) all began at the same level and had the same proficiency level – regardless of belonging to the experimental or control group – within the given group at the time of the pre-test. This is an important place to begin the analysis to show that the participants of the experimental group and control group were not significantly different from the start. This also shows that the students were taking Spanish classes at an appropriate level. By determining that each group began at the same place, it is then possible to see if the experimental group improved and it is possible to compare it to the control group, which shows how significant the treatment was.

Table 4.1 below reports the average scores for each class and shows the values for both the control and experimental groups along with the Tukey-Kramer adjusted p-value. This table compares SPA 3 only to SPA 3, SPA 22 only to SPA 22, and UD only to UD. The classes did not differ at baseline – which means that the SPA 3 students were all at the same level, SPA 22 students were all at the same level, and UD students were all at the same level within each respective group. This establishes the fact that the participants in both the control and experimental groups started at the same level for the pre-test.

TABLE 4.1
PRE-TEST SCORES FOR ALL PARTICIPANTS AS COMPARED WITHIN EACH GROUP

	SPA 3			SPA 22			UD		
	Control	Exp.	p-value	Control	Exp.	p-value	Control	Exp.	p-value
Average Pre-test Score	5.77	5.38	0.76	8.36	7.58	0.40	11.17	11.38	0.90

As can be seen in the table above, the p-values for each learner group is high. This p-value comes from the difference in the average pre-test scores between the control and experimental group for each learner level. Thus, in the SPA 3 group, we see that the control group had an average pre-test score of 5.77 correct answers out of 20, while the experimental group had an average score of 5.38 correct answers out of a possible 20. The associated Tukey-Kramer adjusted p-value for this difference is .076, which is *not* a statistically significant difference. Along the same lines, we can see the results for the other two groups. The SPA 22 control group had an average pre-test score of 8.36 and the experimental group had an average score of 7.58, which yields a p-value of .40. The UD control group scored 11.17 while the experimental group scored 11.38 out of 20, yielding a p-value of .90. Neither of these p-values is statistically significant. These high p-value results prove that there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups at each level, which means that the participants at each level started at the same level of proficiency.

Now that it has been established that each group was indeed similar when compared against itself to begin with, I analyzed the results to show that each of the three levels were different from one another at the beginning of the study when the participants took the pre-test. As was expected, there was a significant difference between the three learner levels, and they were significant in the order that one would anticipate; UD scored higher than SPA 22 and SPA 22 scored higher than SPA 3. The classes started at significantly different levels, with SPA 3 being the lowest level and UD being the highest level. Table 4.2 shows the difference in the average pre-test scores for each learner level. This table shows the combined experimental and control groups for each level, so the total number of participants in each group is higher than if it were divided into six groups. Since these scores were from the pre-tests, both the experimental and control groups were combined *within* each level in order to determine the differences *between* each of the three levels.

TABLE 4.2
COMPARISON BETWEEN LEARNER GROUPS BY OVERALL PRE-TEST SCORES

Class level (combined control and experimental)	Average pre-test score
SPA 3 (n = 26)	5.6
SPA 22 (n = 26)	8.0
UD (n = 14)	11.3

Furthermore, Table 4.3 shows the Tukey-Kramer adjusted p-values for each level and how each compares to the other two levels. By running this analysis, the beginning level (SPA 3) scored significantly lower than the intermediate level (SPA 22) and the advanced level (Upper-Division). Additionally, the intermediate level scored significantly higher than the beginning students, and significantly lower than the advanced students.

TABLE 4.3
PRE-TEST SCORES TUKEY-KRAMER ADJUSTED P-VALUES

	SPA 3	SPA 22	UD
SPA 3	-	0.007	<0.0001
SPA 22	-	-	0.002
UD	-	-	-

The conclusions that can be drawn from the pre-test scores on the pragmatic test are that the students within each level – whether part of the experimental or control group – begin at the same level of pragmatic proficiency and also that there were significant differences between each of the three levels, which means that there were clearly three separate groups.

B. Post-test Results

The experiment in the present study calculated the gains of L2 learners of Spanish as measured on a pre-test and a post-test. The main aspect for analysis, then, is the difference between the scores on these two tests. The students' average post-test scores were higher for the experimental groups in each of the three levels, which suggests that the treatment was indeed beneficial for all levels of learners; the treatment worked and these four speech acts are teachable.

As stated in the previous section, there were three significantly different groups of learners, but both the experimental and control groups within each level began at the same proficiency level.

In order to examine the benefits of the treatment administered to the experimental groups, I calculated the p-value for the difference in the average pre-test and post-test scores for each learner group and then compared the control and experimental groups against each other by using a t-test. Table 4.4 below shows the average scores for the control groups divided by class level:

TABLE 4.4
AVERAGE PRE-TEST VERSUS POST-TEST SCORES BY CLASS LEVEL (CONTROL)

	SPA 3			SPA 22			UD		
	Pre-test	Post-test	p-value	Pre-test	Post-test	p-value	Pre-test	Post-test	p-value
Control Avg. score	5.77	6.31	0.3755	8.36	8.86	0.3141	11.17	9.50	0.0671

As expected, none of the control groups showed statistically significant gains from the pre-test to the post-test. Both the Control SPA 3 and Control SPA 22 had modest gains, while the Control UD actually performed worse on the post-test. It is difficult to say why the Upper Division Control group had lower scores on the post-test, but there is a small sample size and varying degrees of classroom experience for these students. Moreover, the p-value is almost statistically significant which might be due to again to the small number of participants. Table 4.5 illustrates the average test scores for the experimental groups.

TABLE 4.5
AVERAGE PRE-TEST VERSUS POST-TEST SCORES BY CLASS LEVEL (EXPERIMENTAL)

	SPA 3			SPA 22			UD		
	Pre-test	Post-test	p-value	Pre-test	Post-test	p-value	Pre-test	Post-test	p-value
Experimental Avg. score	5.38	9.23	<0.0001	7.58	12.75	0.0021	11.38	14.75	0.0099

The experimental groups improved their test scores across the board, and all three levels showed statistically significant improvement. This suggests that the treatment was beneficial for the students, and in a statistically significant manner when comparing the pre-test and post-test scores.

The next step is to compare the groups within each level to determine if the treatment was beneficial. For this comparison, I took the average post-test scores for the experimental and control group for each of the three learner levels. This analysis only compares the experimental and control groups for each level, which means that Experimental SPA 3 is compared only to Control SPA 3, Experimental SPA 22 to Control SPA 22, and Experimental UD to Control UD. Table 4.6 includes an overview of the post-test scores for the entire participant population as compared within each level, along with the improvements of the experimental groups over the control groups as measured by p-value:

TABLE 4.6
RESULTS FOR POST-TEST SCORES BY LEVEL (CONTROL VS. EXPERIMENTAL)

	SPA 3			SPA 22			UD		
	Control	Exp.	p-value	Control	Exp.	p-value	Control	Exp.	p-value
Post-test	6.31	9.23	0.054	8.86	12.75	0.01	9.50	14.75	0.01

As we can see from the results in Table 4.6, the post-test scores for the experimental groups at each of the three levels were significantly higher than the control group counterparts. At the SPA 3 level, the average post-test score for the experimental group was 9.23 correct answers out of 20, compared to only 6.31 out of 20 for the control group. This yielded a p-value of 0.054, which is very close to – but not quite – a significant gain. For the SPA 22 students, the control group averaged 8.86 acceptable answers while the experimental students averaged 12.75 acceptable answers, yielding a p-value of 0.01. The Upper Division group showed that the control group scored 9.50 out of 20, while the experimental group averaged 14.75 correct answers. This also yields a p-value of 0.01, and shows that both the SPA 22 and UD experimental groups had average scores that were statistically significantly higher than the respective control groups.

Next, I examined the distribution of the three learner groups as seen between the learner levels. Since I established that there were three distinct levels at the beginning of the study, I wanted to determine if there were three levels after the treatment was administered or if the distribution was different. This examination would show if two of the groups became more similar or if the levels were more different after the study. Table 4.7 shows the results for this test, which is a Tukey-Kramer p-value test, and outlines the distribution of average post-test scores for the experimental groups.

TABLE 4.7
AVERAGE POST-TEST SCORES - TUKEY-KRAMER P-VALUES (EXPERIMENTAL)

	Experimental SPA 3	Experimental SPA 22	Experimental UD
Experimental SPA 3	-	0.12	0.02
Experimental SPA 22	-	-	0.57
Experimental UD	-	-	-

After the treatment, the distribution is slightly different as Table 4.7 illustrates. SPA 3 and UD are significantly different, shown by the p-value of 0.02, but the SPA 22 and UD groups are not significantly different given the p-value of 0.57. Also, SPA 3 and SPA 22 are not significant, but with a p-value of 0.12 suggests that with a larger sample size, the two groups would be significantly different. So this means that SPA 22 is more like UD, and SPA 3 is still not like the other two groups. These results suggest that while the Experimental SPA 3 learners did in fact improve, and did so significantly over the Control SPA 3, SPA 3 is still not at the same level as SPA 22 or UD students with regards to pragmatic competence. Additionally, the SPA 22 group became more like the UD group, suggesting that this is a fruitful time in the pragmatic development of students. In sum, after the treatment the distribution shifted so that SPA 3 is at one level and SPA 22 and UD are at another. This shows two learner levels at the end instead of three levels at the beginning.

The test scores for questions on requests proved to be fairly straightforward for the learners. This is probably due to the fact that the forms are similar in English and in Spanish. However, in the formulation of requests, the SPA 22 level showed the most improvement, where the experimental group showed statistically significant improvement on 2 of the 6 questions. It appears that this is a transition period where the students begin to formulate utterances in a more complete manner. The students had the most trouble with Question #2, in which many responses used the speaker-centered *¿Puedo tener la sal?* "Can I have the salt?" instead of the hearer-centered *¿Me pasas la sal?* "You pass me the salt?"

Table 4.8 List of Request Questions
1) You ask your professor for help with your homework.
     You say: _____
2) You miss class one day because you are sick. The next day you ask a classmate for the notes from the class you missed.
     You say: _____
3) Your roommate is playing music very loudly, but you have to study and it is very distracting.
     You say: _____
4) When you are at the store with your friend, you realize you forgot your wallet. You ask your friend for 5 dollars.
     You say: _____
5) You go to a restaurant and there is no salt at your table. When you ask the man at the table next to you for the salt,
     You say: _____
6) It is your turn to clean the apartment, but you have a lot of homework to do. You approach your roommate to see if she can do it.
     You say: _____

The SPA 3 level did not show a great deal of improvement for requests, but this could be because of their lack of control of the grammar and vocabulary. This is also perhaps due in part to the fact that students at lower levels tend to focus on the first-person and therefore speaker-centered forms. Table 4.9 illustrates the results for requests:

TABLE 4.9
RESULTS FOR REQUEST QUESTIONS
REQUESTS - SPA 3

	Experimental (13 participants)				Control (13 participants)				
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Tukey
Question #	n correct	% correct (out of 13)	n correct	% correct (out of 13)	n correct	% correct (out of 13)	n correct	% correct (out of 13)	p-value for post-test
1	4	30.8	8	61.5	3	23.1	5	38.5	0.26
2	2	15.4	1	7.7	2	15.4	2	15.4	0.56
3	1	7.7	2	15.4	5	38.5	4	30.8	0.37
4	3	23.1	2	15.4	2	15.4	1	7.7	0.56
5	2	15.4	6	46.2	4	30.8	4	30.8	0.44
7	4	30.8	4	30.8	2	15.4	6	46.2	0.44

REQUESTS – SPA 22

	Experimental (12 participants)				Control (14 participants)				
	Pre-test		Post-test		Pre-test		Post-test		Tukey
Question #	n correct	% correct (out of 12)	n correct	% correct (out of 12)	n correct	% correct (out of 14)	n correct	% correct (out of 14)	p-value for post-test
1	4	33.3	7	58.3	6	42.9	10	71.4	0.50
2	2	16.7	6	50.0	1	7.1	3	21.4	0.14
3	4	33.3	4	33.3	8	57.1	5	35.7	0.90
4	6	50.0	7	58.3	4	28.6	2	14.3	0.02
5	6	50.0	9	75.0	2	14.3	3	21.4	0.005
7	10	83.3	3	25.0	8	57.1	5	35.7	0.57

REQUESTS – UPPER DIVISION

| | Experimental (8 participants) | | | | Control (6 participants) | | | | Tukey |
| | Pre-test | | Post-test | | Pre-test | | Post-test | | |
Question #	n correct	% correct (out of 8)	n correct	% correct (out of 8)	n correct	% correct (out of 6)	n correct	% correct (out of 6)	p-value for post-test
1	6	75.0	5	62.5	4	66.7	3	50.0	0.67
2	1	12.5	4	50.0	1	16.7	1	16.7	0.23
3	3	37.5	6	75.0	6	100	3	50.0	0.37
4	4	50.0	5	62.5	4	66.7	3	50.0	0.67
5	3	37.5	5	62.5	2	33.3	2	33.3	0.32
7	4	50.0	3	37.5	4	66.7	4	66.7	0.32

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The main objective of this study has been to determine if explicit teaching of pragmatic forms, namely requests, in an L2 would be beneficial for students' pragmatic competence. Given the significant improvement by the experimental groups at all levels that received the treatment, L2 pragmatics can indeed be taught. Additionally, before the treatment, there were three levels of learners, consisting of beginning, intermediate and advanced levels. However, after the treatment there were two levels, due to the fact that the intermediate level became more similar to the advanced level, thus leaving a beginning level and a combined intermediate/advanced level. The intermediate level improved the most of the three learner levels. This improvement suggests that the intermediate level might be the best time to teach requests.

As shown above, the experimental groups improved significantly vis-à-vis their respective control groups for all three of the learner levels in terms of pragmatic competence. This improvement was measured by the number of correct responses on a written questionnaire for both a pre-test and post-test. At the start of the study, the two groups were indistinguishable with no statistically significant differences between them. The experimental group received an additional treatment in the form of online lessons on pragmatics.

The results from the statistical analyses showed that the online treatment given to the experimental groups at all three learner levels seem to be beneficial for students at any proficiency level. Moreover, the experimental group outperformed the control group within each developmental level. This improvement shows that the treatment administered to the students was beneficial for the formulation of requests.

The differences between English and Spanish in terms of the formulation of requests are primarily grammatical or syntactical. For example, requests in Spanish are usually hearer-centered, with the hearer being the subject of the sentence. For the salt scenario on the questionnaire (#5), an appropriate request would be *¿me puedes pasar la sal?* "can you pass me the salt?" However, English has the option of using speaker-centered requests with these modal verbs such as "can," as in the example "can I have the salt." The results of the DCT showed that the students transferred this latter form into Spanish, thus resulting in an awkward formulation in Spanish, *¿puedo tener la sal?* "can I have the salt?" To learn this new form, the students need to be able to grasp the syntax in Spanish and not translate directly from English. This is a bit more complicated than memorizing new lexical items, so it stands to reason that there was not a great deal of improvement for requests, especially at the lower levels.

In sum, the treatment was beneficial and therefore explicit instruction is useful for teaching requests in Spanish. The data in this investigation suggests that not only was the treatment beneficial, but that the SPA 22 students benefitted most from the treatment. Highlighting the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 pragmatic forms seemed to aid the students' pragmatic development.

In conclusion, time on task is a fairly accurate indicator of general L2 competence as well as pragmatic competence. However, with explicit instruction of requests, it is possible to accelerate learners' pragmatic development, at least at the intermediate level. The test scores in this study suggest that students studying Spanish in a traditional classroom setting will have a level of pragmatic competence more or less in accordance with time on task, but with the treatment intermediate students become more like advanced learners.

APPENDIX A. ONLINE PRAGMATIC LESSONS

Introduction
What is pragmatics?
Pragmatics examines how context contributes to meaning. It includes things like pauses, unsaid implications, voice intonation, body and facial posture, irony, sarcasm, humor, point in time or space.
What are speech acts?
Speech acts, such as apologies, requests, compliments and complaints, can be divided into 3 parts:
1) Meaning
2) Function
3) Effect on the hearer
Speech acts can be either direct or indirect:

• Direct – *Cierra la ventana. "Close the window"*
• Indirect – *Hace frío, ¿verdad? "It's cold, right?" (in other words, shut the door!)*

Formal and Informal conversations

The relationship between the conversations between participants also affects what is said. You speak differently to a professor than you would to a friend. When talking to a friend, it would be an informal conversation (in Spanish *tú*), while a conversation with a professor would be formal (in Spanish *usted*).

Why is it important to learn how to use speech acts?

• To avoid miscommunication (e.g. to convey the meaning you want).
• To avoid saying socioculturally inappropriate topics or actions (e.g. to avoid offending the hearer).
• To avoid being too formal or informal.
• To avoid uncomfortable situations (e.g. seeming insincere or rude).

Lesson 1 – Requests

What is a request?

Requests are common forms of communication in both English and Spanish. However, there are slight differences in how each language realizes these actions. A request is when the speaker asks something of the hearer. Therefore, the goal of a request is to get the hearer to perform some task.

Use of requests

In Spanish, speakers make requests with different levels of politeness. The speaker chooses an appropriate level of politeness based on the context in order to get to the hearer to perform a given action. The greater the imposition of the request, the more politeness is required. In other words, if the request requires a great deal of effort or inconvenience, then the speaker will be more polite in order to increase the chance that the task be completed.

Level of Politeness		Form	Level of Inconvenience
Less polite	Low	pásame la sal	Low
	Low	me pasas la sal	Low
	Low	me puedes pasar la sal	Low
	High	me quieres pasar la sal	High
	Higher	me podrías pasar la sal	Higher
More polite	Highest	sería tan amable pasarme la sal	Highest

For example, one way of asking for salt would be to use the command form, "pásame la sal." However, "me pasas la sal" is often the preferred form in Spanish since it is slightly more polite than the command form, which is extremely blunt and direct.

Notice how the verb form will change to express formal or informal requests according to social distance. For example, with your boss or professor, you would use the *usted* form, and therefore would conjugate the verb as "(usted) me ayuda con la tarea", but with a classmate or friend you would use the *tú* form, "(tú) me ayudas con la tarea."

Let's say you are a student, and you miss a day of class. The following day you ask a classmate for their notes. In English, it is common to ask for the notes by saying, "Can I see your notes?", with the requester functioning as the subject of the sentence. However, in Spanish, the form, "me das tus apuntes" where the person being asked to do something (tú) is the subject of the sentence. Therefore, in this context "puedo ver tus apuntes" is not a preferred form but rather a transfer from English grammar.

Another common expression in Spanish is *te/le/les importa + infinitive* or *me + verb in present tense* to ask something of another person. The conditional is used to express politeness for a formal situation, for example in the very formal form, "le importaría cerrar la ventana."

Level of Politeness	Form (Tú - informal)	Form (Usted - formal)
Less Polite	*¿Te importa cerrar la ventana?*	*¿Le importa cerrar la ventana?*
More Polite	*Te importaría cerrar la ventana?*	*¿Le importaría cerrar la ventana?*

Exercise 1 – Structures

Translate the following requests from English to Spanish, using the informal tú form and the structures seen above.
Example: May I see your notes? -->
¿Me das tus apuntes?
A) May I borrow your book? -->   _____
B) Can you loan me five dollars? -->   _____
C) Could you help me with the homework? -->   _____
D) Can you pass me the salt?   -->   _____

Exercise 2 – Practice

Complete the following with an appropriate form of these formulas to make a request.
1) You want your roommate to help you take out the trash. (Low inconvenience)
   ¿Me ayudas _____?
2) You ask your friend for a ride home. (Low inconvenience)
   ¿Te importa _____ a casa?
3) You ask to meet with your professor. (High inconvenience)

¿Le importa _____?

4) You ask your boss to go over a business report with you. (Higher inconvenience)

¿Me ayudaría _____?

5) You go to a cafe and there is an open seat next someone you don't know. You ask to sit down. (High inconvenience)

¿_____?

Exercise 3 - In context

Read the following conversation and answer the questions below.

Jorge y Roberto son estudiantes en la Universidad Complutense de Madrid. Jorge estaba enfermo y no asistió a la clase de historia el día anterior. Jorge quiere ver los apuntes de Roberto para no perder la materia de la clase.

Jorge: Hola Roberto, ¿Cómo estás?

Roberto: Estoy bien, ¿y tú? Estabas enfermo, ¿no?

Jorge: Sí, pero hoy estoy mucho mejor. Oye, ¿me das tus apuntes de la clase de historia?

Roberto: Sí, aquí están los apuntes de ayer.

Jorge: Gracias Roberto, me has ayudado mucho.

Roberto: De nada. hay un examen en dos días así que voy a la biblioteca a estudiar.

Jorge: ¡Hay un examen! Bueno, voy a la biblioteca también.

Roberto: Vale, nos vemos en la biblioteca.

Jorge: Gracias de nuevo, nos vemos pronto.

Roberto: Venga, hasta luego.

Jorge: Hasta luego.

Comprehension

1) What purpose does Jorge have in this conversation?

_____

2) What key words led you to categorize the conversation as you did? What level of politeness was used?

_____

3) What roles did each of the speakers have? Who is making the request? Who was asked to do something?

_____

4) Was this a formal or informal conversation?

_____

5) Was the conversation successful? Was the goal reached?

_____

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Arab Practicum Guides Code-switch to Hebrew: Attitudes, Factors and Reasons

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Abstract—This study tries to investigate the code-switching behavior of Arabic native speakers who live in Israel. Another objective of this study is to reveal the participants' attitude towards this behavior and the reasons and factors that lead to code-switching. The research tools are audio-tape recording and an interview with the participants. 12 respondents participated in this study; their age ranges between 25 and 60. The findings show that the participants' attitude towards code-switching behavior is neutral. Another finding is that the guides' majors influence their code-switching behavior. The most important finding is that the most frequent reasons for switching from Arabic to Hebrew are: 'Technical or scientific term' that are usually used in Hebrew, 'intensive exposure to Hebrew native speakers' communities'. The factors of carelessness, frequency and easiness also play a major role; while the reasons 'prestige' and 'drawing attention' do not play any important role. Finally, the researcher recommends that a further research on code-switching behavior of Hebrew native speakers should be conducted.

Index Terms—codeswitching, bilingualism, practicum, guides

I. INTRODUCTION

Kamwangamulai (1992) states that language alternation is commonly observed phenomenon with bilingual speakers, which is rule, governed and represents shift to another language within or across a sentence boundaries. He divides language alternation into three categories: Code Switching (CS), Code Mixing (CM) and borrowing. The earliest definition of codes-witching dates back to Weinreich (1953), who defines bilingual people as individuals who switch "from one language to the other according to appropriate changes in speech situations. Muysken (2000) defines code switching as "the rapid succession of several languages in a single speech event, however, code mixing is defined as" All cases where lexical items and grammatical features from two languages appear in one sentence. Bentahila and Davis (1983) claims "the act of choosing one code rather than the other must be distinguished from the act of mixing the two codes together to produce something which might itself be called a third code". One aim of the recent study is to check if the Arab native speakers' lecturers code-switch to Hebrew during their every day conversations. Another objective of this study is to investigate the reasons and attitudes of code switching to Hebrew by Arab lecturers at an Arabic college in Israel.

A. Review of Related Literature

Two types of code-switching have been recognized by most researchers (Reduane, 2005; Naseh, 1997; Musken, 2000): Intra-sentential code-switching used for switches within sentences, and Intersentential code-switching for switches between sentences. Researchers first dismissed Intrasentential code-switching as random and deviant (e.g. Labov, 1972; Lance, 1975; Weinreich, 1953). But now anunimous in the convection is that it is grammatically constrained. The basis for this convection is the empirical observation that bilinguals tend to switch intra-sententially at certain syntactic boundaries and not others (Poplack, 1980).

Heller (1988a) defines code-switching as "The use of more than one language in the course of a single communicative episode". Auer (1984) refers to code-switching (CS) as alternating use of more than one language, while Myers- Scotton (1993) mentions the use of two or more codes (languages) in the same discourse or conversation. Gumperz (1982) mentions "conversational code-switching can be defined as the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (p. 59).

According to Clyne (1972) code-switching is a change by a speaker from one language to another. It can also take place in a conversation when one interlocutor uses one language and another answers in different one. Speakers may also begin with one language and then alter to another one in the middle of their interlocution, or sometimes even in the middle of a sentence. Wardhough (1986) defines code-mixing as mixing of two codes usually without a change of topic. This is common in bilingual or multilingual communities and is often a mark of solidarity.

Another aspect of code-switching is borrowing. Abalhassan and Alshalawi (2000) assert that borrowing is simply taking a word or a phrase from one language and using it in another language. This is also called "loan words". A borrowed unit can be pronounced according to the sound system of the original language or the host one.

Davies (1992) thinks that most code-switching studies has focused on the syntactic dimension of code-switching, treating it as structural phenomenon, however, he believes that social and psychological dimensions have also an effect.

Hudson (1980) distinguished between code-switching, borrowing and code-mixing. He believes that code-switching is 'the inevitable consequence of bilingualism' that leads speakers to choose a code which the other conversant can understand. Code-mixing, however, is when a fluent bilingual changes languages without any change at all in the situation. Borrowing according to Hudson is simply when an item is borrowed from one language to become part of the other language.

Another type of language alternation is code changing. Lipski (1985) asserts that code changing is characterized fluent intra sentential shifts, transferring focus from one language another. It is motivated situational and stylistic factors, and the conscious nature of the switch between two languages is emphasized.

Bloom and Gumperz, (1972) claim that there are two general kinds of code-switching. One, conversational switching, is used to convey a speaker's attitude towards the topic of the conversation, while the other, situational switching, is used to convey a speaker's attitude towards the audience.

Hasselmo, (1972) and Valdes (1982) define code-switching as "the use of more than one language by communicants in the execution of a speech act". Moreover, Auer (1999) claims that cultural background, events of conversations and social events must be taken into account to better understand how and why speakers codeswitch. While some interlocutors have been found to switch code to add emphasis and highlight particular aspects of their talk.

Bentahila (1993) states that code-switching, is so much used, may be seen as a remarkable in view of the fact that it is apparently very unfavorably viewed by the speakers who switch themselves. In an investigation described by him 77.2% of sample of bilinguals questioned about their attitudes of such language mixture were strongly disapproved of it. Their comments suggest that they associated it with a lack of education, carelessness, affection and a lack of identity, allowing bilinguals to use the vocabulary which they find available or most appropriate, emphasizing a point or high lightening a contrast and a power instrument in a conversation.

Crosjean (1982), remarks that there is a negative attitude towards code-switching. This attitude has been adapted by many bilinguals. Most of the bilinguals he has questioned made remarks such as "switching is done out of laziness, "it is embarrassing", it might be dangerous if it becomes common" and "I try not to code switch.

B. Studies on Codeswitching

Most researchers who have examined code-switching in Arabic have focused on diaglossia, where switch occurs between formal Arabic and some vernacular form of the language (Eid, 1988). Others have investigated code-switching between various vernacular forms of the language with reference to social prestige associated with a particular form (Abed-el-Jawad, 1981).

In a study conducted in a Turkish secondary school, Eldrige (1996) concludes that code-switching appears to be natural and purposeful phenomenon which facilitates both communication and learning.

Hussein (1999) conducts a study that investigates Jordanian university students' attitudes towards CS and CM; the findings show that the students have both negative and positive attitudes towards code-switching to English in Arabic discourse. The most important reason for switching to English is the lack of Arabic equivalent for English terms or expressions and there is a frequent use of many English terms such as ok, thank you, sorry and please.

Baily (in Alanzi, 2001) found that participants use code-switching in order to draw the boundaries of their ethnic group. He also found that code-switching is a tool that can signal a speaker's affiliation with certain sociolinguistic communities, but not others.

Ruan (2003) reports interesting findings concerning code-switching behavior. The findings suggest that CS was used as a communicative device used by children participated in the study, participant switch languages during their speech to realize social, pragmatic and meta-linguistic functions.

Murad (2006) finds that Arab speakers living in rural communities in Israel code-switch to Hebrew as a matter of exposure to Hebrew native speakers' communities during the work and in official offices where Hebrew is frequently used. He also finds that men codeswitch to Hebrew in their daily conversations more than women. This is attributed to the fact that men have more exposure to Hebrew communities than women, also women at rural communities have more solidarity to their L1 (Arabic).

To conclude, language alternation is done when two languages are coming into contact in the same region or geographical areas where speakers of two languages are coming into contact in the same place. Language alternation has different types such as code-switching, code-mixing, code changing and borrowings. In this study all the types are considered code-switching. Attitudes toward code-switching are varied from one person to another. It could be positive or negative. Finally and according to the reviewed literature different guides are associated with code-switching. This study attempts to check, either Arab learners code switch to Hebrew or not. What are their attitudes and reasons toward this behavior?

II. METHODOLOGY

Two languages are coming into contact in Israel: Arabic and Hebrew, therefore, the speakers of the two languages shift from one language to another in their daily conversations. The Haaretz article (2008) commented on the phenomenon of using Hebrew by Arabs who live in Israel. The Israeli Arab citizens who have increasingly identified politically with their Palestinians brethren on the other side of the 1967 board, and less inclined to accept the idea of

Israel as a Jewish state, have been incorporating more and more Hebrew into the Arabic they speak with each other. In any conversation between Arabic speakers, you will hear a string of words in Arabic and then, suddenly a familiar word in Hebrew. Sometimes the Hebrew may consist of a whole phrase and sometimes, even, of one complete sentence. And it is all done entirely un-self-consciously.

The Hebrew words, used by Arab speakers, are expressions of social and educational intercourse on the one hand, and words for things or situations that are associated by Arabs with Israeli culture on the other. Haaretz lists some words that belong to the second category, such as *ramzor* (traffic light), *mahsom* (checkpoint), *glida (*ice –cream), *lahmaniya, (*bakery-roll, *beseder (*okay) and *meanyen (*interesting. Other educational Hebrew word used by the Arab participants in the current study: *moreh miamen* (training teacher), *madrikh pedagogie*, (pedagogical supervisor), *hadrakha* (guidance), *minaheil bet sefer* (school principal) and *tofes* (form) and many others.

Subjects

The participants of the recent study are 12 practicum supervisors and lecture from mathematics, English, Arabic, Special education and early childhood departments at Sakhnin College for Teacher Education in northern side of Israel. The practicum supervisors are Arabic native but they also master Hebrew very well. They switch to Hebrew in every day conversations. The students are also Arabic native speakers and do their training in Arabic schools in the north. The participants are second and third degree holders from Israeli universities. The language of teaching in these universities is Hebrew. Their age ranges between 25to 60. The subjects are 6 males and 6 females. Their function is to guide students from the college in nearby schools where the students practice their teaching with cooperation of the training teachers from the schools. In other words the supervisors are responsible for the theoretical material which should be taught to the students teachers; moreover, these supervisors are the college representative at these schools.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The data were collected during one-hour meeting of twelve pedagogical supervisors at Sakhnin College. The meeting topic is about practicum at schools in which the supervisors discuss the students' matters such as lesson plans, students' observations, reflections and feed-back.

The respondents are six males and six females whose command of Hebrew is excellent. They are from different majors (none of them is specialized in Hebrew), and they are from different localities in the northern side of Israel. Ten minutes of the Meeting were taped-recorded and reviewed. Only the salient selections where code-switches found where transcribed and translated into English.

An interview was also conducted with the participants to investigate the respondents' attitudes and reasons for code-switching. The interview questions were presented to a panel of experts in the field from Sakhnin College. The panel included lecturers from the departments of English, Arabic and Education. Their comments and remarks were taken into account. The following data profiles the respondents:

TABLE1:
DISTRIBUTION OF THE PARTICIPANTS BY GENDER, AGE, MAJOR, DEGREE AND UNIVERSITY

Respondent	Gender	Age	Major/ Degree	University
1	Male	40	Mathematics/ Phd	Haifa/ Israel
2	Male	42	Education/Phd	Haifa/Isreal
3	Male	55	Education/ Phd	TA/ Israel
4	Female	47	Education/ Phd	Haifa/Israel
5	Female	30	Early childhood/ MA	Jerusalem/IL
6	Male	56	Arabic/ linguistics/Phd	Haifa/ IL
7	Male	25	Mathematics/ MA	Haifa/IL
8	Female	44	English literature/ Phd	Jerusalem/IL
9	Female	35	Education/ Phd	TA/IL
10	Male	35	Special Education/ Phd	Bar-Ilan/ IL
11	Female	60	Linguistics/ MA	Ben-Gurion/IL
12	Female	40	Special Education/ MA	TA/ IL

The taped data were transcribed to check the number of occurrences of code- switching made by the participants during the 10 minutes that were audio-taped and then transcribed. The language that is used in the meeting is Arabic because all the participants are Arabic native speakers but they have an excellent command of Hebrew. The teaching language in the College is also Arabic because the students are all Arabic native speakers but they also speak Hebrew to a certain extent.

The topic of the meeting is "practicum supervision", and the participants discuss the pre-service teachers' performance at the training schools. The participants' switches are mostly words and phrase that are related to the field of teacher training. These switches have equivalent words in Arabic, but the Hebrew words or phrases are more frequently used in the speech of the participants. Some of these switches include:

Madrikh Bedagogy (Pedagogical supervisor),*Moreh Miaamin,* (training teacher) *Minahel Beit sefer, (*school principal), *Tofis* (form), *Tasbit,* (observation), *maarakh shior* (lesson plan), *hadrakha* (guidance), *hikshev* (listen), *beseder* (alright), *nakhon* (correct), *mianyen* (interesting), *hashov miod* (very important), *makhlala* (college),

oneversitah (university), *makhlaka or khog* (departmet), *mataim* (suitable), *lishalem* (to pay) and many other expressions and words that are used in the field of teacher education or training.

All types of language alternation are considered code-switching in this study. Some examples of code-switches that are performed by some of the participants which consist of switches are:

1. a. *Elmadrikh* el *bedagogy* beghdarish yzoor kul al *bate-sefer*. (Literal translation)

   b. The pedagogical guide cannot visit all schools. (English- translation).

The underlined words in 1.a are Hebrew (L2) while the others are Arabic (L1). The underlined words in 1.b are English translation of the switches. While the others are English translations of Arabic words.

In this sentence the speaker uses Hebrew words and phrases in the same sentence; moreover he code-changes Hebrew words into Arabic such as al *b âe- sefer*. (al is Arabic word for definite article, the, whereas *b âe-sefer* is the Hebrew word for schools). One can also notice that the alternation in this case is intra-sentential; that means the speaker uses Hebrew and Arabic words and phrases in the same sentence. The speakers' claims that he switches to Hebrew because he studied these concepts in Hebrew in the university, and it will be strange for him and his students if he uses the equivalent words in Arabic. Another occurrence of code-switching for other respondents:

2. a. talabit minhin *maarakh sheor,* walkinu ma kanish mianyen batatan. (literal- translation)

   b. I asked a lesson plan from them, but it was not interesting at all. (English-translation)

The participant uses the Hebrew word for *maarakh- sheor* (lesson-plan), the Arabic equivalent is **taqyeem dars**. The speakers know the Arabic word for 'a lesson plan', but he used the Hebrew word. When the speaker was asked about the reason of using the Hebrew word, he replied that the Hebrew word is more acceptable and appropriate while the Arabic word is 'strange' for him in this context. Another example for another respondent:

3. a. qulit lal *morem miamen* ymali el*tofes* bas makinblish laenu fish endu *zman*.

   b. I told the training teacher to fill the form, but he did not agree because he has no   time.

Although the Hebrew words used in this sentence have Arabic equivalents, the speaker uses the Hebrew words; when asked about the reason, he answered that the Hebrew words are more frequently used in this context. Another example of another participant:

4. a. bil awal, *tsfiya bisheor* baadeen baamalu *sihat mashov* baed ma ykhlis.

   b. at first, lesson-observation, then I do a feed-back after he finished.

The Arabic equivalent for lesson observation is **moshahadat-dars**, and the Arabic word for feed-back is **Taghthiya mortada.** The participant uses the Hebrew words spontaneously because he believes that the Hebrew words are easier to use and they are memorized before the Arabic equivalents. Another example of another speakers' codes-witching is:

5. a. *zeh lo maanyeen elstudentem* laenu *kasha* elhin yafhamoha; hashan heka fish *nokhahot*.

   b. This does not interest the students, because it is hard for them to understand, therefore there is no attendance.

The underlined words are Hebrew words. The speaker is excessively switching to Hebrew, when asked if he feels prestigious while switching to Hebrew in his Arabic conversation, his answer was negative and attributed his excessive switching to the fact that he is also teaching at a Hebrew college. He claims that his switches are attributed to his excessive exposure to Hebrew native speaking communities.

The following table illustrates the frequencies of code switching done by each participant during the ten-minute transcription of the audio-taped meeting.

TABLE 2:
THE NUMBER OF SWITCHES MADE BY EACH PARTICIPANT

Respondents	Gender	Frequencies
1	M	14
2	M	16
3	M	20
4	F	17
5	F	18
6	M	4
7	M	22
8	F	10
9	F	19
10	M	21
11	F	12
12	F	20
Total	**12**	**193**

Table Two shows that the participants switch to Hebrew in their conversations, the total number of code-switching to Hebrew made by the twelve participants is 193. The frequencies do not show any gender differences, because the occurrences of switches to Hebrew by the six male participants are 97. Whereas the switches which were done by the six female's respondents are 96. The participants are practicum guides for students from different majors at the college, Arabic, English, Education, Early-childhood and Special-education.

Respondent 6 makes only 4 switches to Hebrew because her major is Arabic and he uses Arabic language in her teaching in the college. she does not have any exposure with Hebrew except some technical terms that are spontaneously used during the meeting. While respondent 7 switches to Hebrew 22 because his major is mathematics

which is usually taught in Hebrew in the College. Moreover he is teaching at a Hebrew college where he has an intensive exposure with Hebrew native speakers' community.

According to the frequencies, the major has an effect on code switching.

Participants whose majors are Education or math (R3, R7, R9, R10, R12) have more code-switching occurrences than the respondents whose majors are English or Arabic (R6, R8, R11). This may be attributed to the fact that the participants use Arabic in teaching Arabic and English in teaching English. The respondents whose majors are either Arabic or English switch to Hebrew when they use the technical terms of teacher education such as *moreh meamen* (training teacher) and *madrikh* (guide).

The respondents were also asked about their attitudes toward code-switching from Arabic to Hebrew. The question: Was what is your attitude to code-switching? Is it positive, negative, or neutral?

Their answers are illustrated in following Table.

TABLE 3:
THE RESPONDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS CODESWITCHING

Respondent	Gender	Attitude
1	M	Neutral
2	M	Neutral
3	M	Neutral
4	F	Neutral
5	F	Positive
6	M	Negative
7	M	Positive
8	F	Negative
9	F	Neutral
10	M	Positive
11	F	Neutral
12	F	Neutral

Table Three shows the respondents' attitudes frequencies towards codeswitching to Hebrew. The frequencies show that the participants' attitudes towards code-switching are almost neutral. This result contradicts Crosjean's (1983) findings that there is a negative attitude towards code-switching. The respondents do not feel embarrassed. While code-switching for them is a natural, acceptable and unavoidable phenomenon all over the world. They switch spontaneously to Hebrew without care. When asked about language and identity, they responded that the nature is stronger than any other factor. They added that the language of education in Israel is Hebrew; therefore, it is easier for them to use the scientific concepts in Hebrew rather than Arabic. They also claim that all the Arabs in Israel, either educated or not, switch to Hebrew in their every day conversations. This is due to the fact that the official language of this state is Hebrew.

R6 attitude is negative. This may be attributed to the fact that he is teaching Arabic in the college; he believes that the language should be a part of one's identity, but when asked about the technical terms that are used to be used in Hebrew, He replies that there are equivalent terms in Arabic and they should be taught to the other respondents. He adds that he feels embarrassed while switching to Hebrew since Arabic is a great language.

Participants, whose attitudes were neutral, responded that they do not care for switching; the use of the words either in Arabic or Hebrew is acceptable as long as they understand the message. For them communication is more important than form.

The participants were also asked about the reasons behind their switches. The question was: "Why do you code-switch to Hebrew language"? Their responses were categorized into the following categories:

1. "Technical or scientific term". It includes terms that are related to teachers' training, and they are usually used in Hebrew such as *maarakh- sheor* (lesson plan). The respondents used to say it in Hebrew.

2. Intensive exposure to Hebrew speaking communities. Some respondents attributed switches to Hebrew to the fact they teach in a Hebrew college.

3. Prestige: Few participants feel prestigious while they switch to Hebrew because Hebrew is the official language used in this country.

4. The equivalent words in Arabic seem strange: some words seem strange if they are used in Arabic, because the people used to hear them in Hebrew, such as *madrikh* (guide).

5. The first to memorize: Some answered that the Hebrew word comes first, therefore, they use it.

6. More acceptable, frequent and easier: One respondent's claim that the code-switched word is easier and is more frequently used in this field.

7. Drawing attention: One of the respondents' replies that they switch to draw the others' attention to their point of view. The following Table illustrates the number and frequencies of the reasons of codeswitching. Some participants mention more than one reason for code-switching during the interview.

TABLE 4:
THE FREQUENCIES OF THE RESPONDENTS' REASONS FOR CODESWITCHING

No	Category	Frequencies
1	Technical or scientific term	12
2	Intensive exposure to Hebrew speaking communities	11
3	Prestige	1
4	The equivalent word in Arabic seems strange	9
5	The first to memorize	11
6	More acceptable, frequent and easier	9
7	Drawing attention	3
	Total Frequencies	56

Table 4 represents the reasons for code-switching performed by the participants. The total number of the reasons given by the 12 respondents is 56. This shows that the each respondent mentions more than one reason for switching. The most frequent reason is 'the use of technical term'. Every participant mentions this reason. This confirms Hussein (1999) findings that the category of 'scientific terms is one of the reasons for Jordanian students switching to English.

11 respondents mention 'Exposure to Hebrew speaking communities'. This finding confirms Murad' findings (2006). He finds that one of the factors for Arab speakers' switching to Hebrew is 'exposure to Hebrew native speakers during the work or in the official places. Moreover, the majority of the participants claim that their switching behavior is connected with the frequent use and the easiness of the switched words. Others claim that the word if used in L1 seems strange .However; the participants do not feel prestigious while switching.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The participants in this study speak Arabic but switch to Hebrew with a varying degree. The participants' major have an effect on the frequency of switching; for examples guides whose majors are education and mathematics make more switches than their counterparts whose majors are English or Arabic.

The subjects do not feel prestigious while switching, however, their attitude is almost neutral; they have neither negative nor positive feelings towards their code-switching behavior; this finding contrasts Bentahila's (1993) findings that the bilinguals questioned about their attitudes of such language mixture were strongly disapproved of it.

Analysis of the results of the interview reveals that the most frequent factors for the participants' code-switching behavior are 'technical or scientific terms', 'intensive exposure to Hebrew speaking communities' , the words in L1 seem strange and that the switched words are easier, more frequent and acceptable.

'Prestige' and 'drawing attention' were the least frequent factors for code-switching behavior of the respondents in the interview.

Finally, this study investigates the practicum guides' codeswitching to Hebrew; it is recommended to conduct another research to investigate the codeswitching behavior of Hebrew native speakers' respondents.

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Such a Nice Gesture: Paired Spanish Interaction in Oral Test Discourse

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Abstract—The problem faced by researchers regarding the construct of 'interaction' in paired peer-peer tasks in oral language proficiency testing is addressed by analysing verbal protocols of raters watching candidates in a videoed paired speaking task in a test in Spanish as a foreign language context. The aim is to investigate any correspondence between observable nonverbal features in the candidates' videoed speech sample that raters claim to attend to while observing paired interaction and those features of body language that candidates are aware of while performing the test. This study is different to previous studies because the task is for paired beginner foreign language students of Spanish. The data is drawn from 17 transcribed paired speech samples, transcribed Verbal Protocols collected from 12 Spanish teacher/raters and 25 candidates Stimulated Verbal Recalls. The analysis is guided by non verbal communication performance features already identified in two previous studies: a previous rater cognition study where raters comment on their observation of candidate performance through Verbal Protocols (Ducasse and Brown, 2009) and a candidate Stimulated Verbal Recall where candidates comment on their interaction in a test performance (Ducasse, 2007). Findings indicate that of the non verbal communication features gaze and gesture are equally important to candidates during performance and to raters during rating process. These findings support findings in Conversation Analysis and Gesture studies and have implications for rating peer-peer language proficiency and for the 'interaction' construct.

Index Terms—paired speaking tests, rating criteria, Spanish L2

I. INTRODUCTION

Following wide range of research into speaking test interviews from within applied linguistics, and in particular language testing, paired tasks were introduced in oral proficiency testing to add another dimension to speaking tests. The new dimension was peer-peer communication. The advent of this additional task sparked new research. Currently, the field is investigating the effect on language output, of pairing peers. This language output of pair performance is then judged by raters with scales and rating criteria that take into account the known reality of the paired 'construct' as in what it is we think we test when we see two candidates performing together.

The majority of research into pairs concentrates on the interaction of variables between the pair of candidates such as familiarity, intra- and extro- vertedness, background culture, level of proficiency, and the effect of such variables on language output. Researchers look for causes of variability in the output which can make test results unreliable. The output however, is always considered to be the 'audio band' with non verbal communication ignored. The test outcomes should as a result be based ostensibly on that "audio' output.

There is a lack of studies from the perspective of either candidates or raters during the 'test event' to ascertain whether the non verbal communication, beyond the audio output, has any effect on candidates speaking to each other or on raters' view of the performance. A test event comprises a combination of two processes: a candidate performance which produces discourse as output and a rater performance which produces ratings as outcome. These two processes are simultaneous: while candidates speak to each other, raters rate.

By concentrating on rater performance the research identifies and demonstrates how describing the non verbal communication features that raters attend to can be a practical solution to reduce variability. By using this approach some of the obstacles to variability are removed by suggesting features of interaction preciously unincorporated into language tests might be included in the test event.

Context of the study

This paper focuses on the speech sample of peer-peer candidate pairs performing a 10 minute speaking task for an in house university test in Spanish as a foreign language. The task is for paired beginner LOTE students introducing, maintaining and changing between three different topics each from a task card.

Statement of the problem

If any nonverbal communication is taken into account by raters as part of paired interaction this broadens what is so far know about the construct. If the construct changes then rating scales need to be adapted to reflect it. At present non verbal communication is not included as a feature with rating criteria in the rating scales. The possibility that raters notice nonverbal communication as a factor affecting peer-peer performance is problematic if it is not present in the marking system for such a test.

Aim of the study

The aim is to demonstrate if and how raters and candidates view non-verbal communication in 10 minute clips of candidates performing a paired speaking task. The results challenge researchers to consider whether they should be incorporating nonverbal communication as part of rating oral proficiency.

Scope and focus

To realistically achieve the aim it is necessary to narrow the focus to the non-verbal performance features already identified. Using the results from these two previous discourse studies the central reason for focusing on non verbal communication is that both sets of protocols both the candidates and the raters raise the issue. Although paired speaking is necessarily made up of the audio channel i.e. candidates speaking and listening during the interaction, the presence of the video channel i.e. the non-verbal communication, cannot be ignored. This calls for further investigation in to nonverbal communication in peer-peer interaction to inform rating scale development, rater moderation or candidate test preparation.

It begs the questions: Do raters notice it? It is important to know the features raters focus on while rating because of the implications this has for include these features in rating scale development (Politt & Murray, 1996). Do candidates notice it? It is interesting for testers to know how aware candidates are of nonverbal communication because it has been studied in relation to second language listening comprehension (Sueyoshi & Hardison, 2005). If it is a helpful strategy it could become part of peer-peer test preparation.

Language teachers and language testers will need to consider their own testing context in order to decide whether gesture may also be likely to cause variability if it is overlooked.

Rating pairs and groups

Recent studies for rating pairs or groups all investigate the difficulty for scales developers and raters, the scale users, to adapt to this context: Nunn (2000) tackles the problem by designing rating scales for small group interaction during classroom activities; Orr (2002) analyses verbal reports given by raters during the decision making process for the First Certificate of English (including a pair/group task) and Bonk and Ockey (2003) in a Rasch analysis of a group oral discussion task, find that "rater and scale reliability were achievable under real testing conditions". However, despite this finding in a more recent validity study on a university group oral test found the most frequent cause of variability to be "the more intangible interpersonal factors in the way group members react to each other" (Van Moere, 2006, p. 436).

The 'intangible' remains unexplained in the peer-peer test situation. What is missing and remains unexplained is information about the construct, the manner in which raters construe paired interaction when they are rating it and whether non verbal communication is attended to by raters or candidates.

Discourse studies

Discourse studies in language testing where rater Verbal Protocols have been used such as Politt and Murray (1996), Meiron (1998) and Brown (2000) indicate ways in which using rater protocols could broaden the so far 'intangible' peer-peer interaction construct. Brown Iwashita and McNamara (2005, p. 6) did not provide raters with guidance for the types of comments to make when giving verbal protocols in a simulated rating situation. Through this means it is possible to "ensure that the content of the scales is relevant to the context and meaningful to the raters" which is important for validating the scale development process. These empirically successful studies had delved into the rating process through qualitative methods so the researcher undertook a discourse study to investigate the manner in which raters construed peer-peer interaction.

Language specialists' orientation to paired interaction

By conducting such a Verbal Protocol study (see Green 1998 for use of this methodology in language testing) raters verbalised the manner in which they construed interaction. In that study, there were 12 language specialists commenting on three pairs each taken randomly from 17 candidates, self selected into the study, performing 10 minute paired tests. The instructions for the verbal protocols were to watch 3 different candidate pairs and comment into a tape recorder about the features noticed about the peer-peer interaction.

A content analysis of the protocols uncovered the key features that reflected the view of the majority of the participants. It suggested that raters observing peer-peer interaction oriented to three main features: interactive listening, nonverbal communication and speaker engagement (Ducasse, 2009). The manner in which raters construe paired interaction which had remained previously unexplained was put forward for a particular context with paired beginners. Language testers for the first time were provided with an overview of the language specialists' perspective on peer-peer interaction on a paired task.

This has implications for future scale development. When a scale is developed that incorporates features from the language specialists view of interaction, it will answer a call from the literature for including "in a scale what raters attend to" (Politt and Murray, 1996).

To gain greater insight, each of the three focal areas: interactive listening, nonverbal communication and speaker engagement requires further investigation. Only nonverbal communication falls within the scope of this paper but nevertheless a part of the knowledge gap regarding the 'intangible' in peer-peer interaction has been filled with the details on raters' view of nonverbal communication providing deeper understanding of how they construct paired interaction.

Literature on non verbal communication

Relevant literature to set up a context for this study would be from the field of Gesture studies, the most influential being Mc Neill (1992) whose work has been used as a basis for other studies. Space prohibits a discussion on nonverbal communication which is defined as the meaning conveyed by the body, head arm, face, gaze, posture and inter personal distance (Kellerman 1992). It is a broad field studied in its own right beyond Applied Linguistics and this paper, and necessarily the scope is narrowed here from non verbal communication in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) to its presence in research for testing speaking in a foreign language context.

One studies each, from SLA speaking, listening and language testing, is included below. The speaking study provides an example of Second Language (L2) speakers using gesture interactionally, the listening study explains how gestures aid comprehension and the testing study, which is on peer-peer discourse, demonstrates candidates' perception of nonverbal communication in test performance.

In the first study, 16 Dutch learners speaking French at intermediate level Gullberg (2006) investigates whether nonverbal interaction, in particular gesture, is purely interactional or if it is linked to developmental SLA stages in a story retelling from pictures activity. In the findings when speech is ambiguous and gesture is unambiguous then they combine for meaning. Also when gestures occur with ambiguous expressions addressees take gestures into account. Thus the gestures are multifunctional serving both interactionally and to compensate for any internal processing problems.

In the second study on gesture and facial cues and L2 listening (Sueyoshi & Hardison, 2005) there is a survey of learners finding helpfulness in hand and arm gestures by lecturers while completing a listening comprehension task i.e. a lecture. A total of 42 lower intermediate and advanced learners were randomly exposed to a lecture under three conditions: audio only, AV face only and AV with gesture and face. The lower group preferred the face and gesture the higher group the face only. It confirms previous research findings that gesture helps L2 learners to comprehend speech (Cassell, McNeill & McCullough 1999).

Gesture in oral proficiency testing

In the third and only study located that reports on the attention paid by raters and candidates to nonverbal communication in a peer-peer testing context is the Coniam (2005) study on wearing face masks during the Sars outbreak in Hong Kong. In the test there was a role play and a four candidate discussion task. Half the raters (7 out of 15) thought the masks had not adversely affected performance because students had compensated by speaking louder and making greater eye contact. In the same study most of the 145 candidates perceived they had performed at a lower level. To compensate approximately two thirds reported speaking louder and slower they also reported facial expression disappearing behind the mask. This confirmed findings of previous studies in SLA that had also shown that gestures as well as facial cues could facilitate face to face interaction with second language learners in the form of comprehensible input and feedback (Gass 1997, Long 1996 and Pica 1994).

In short there is a knowledge gap in the area of nonverbal behaviour during performance of candidates in language tests. Non verbal communication in testing has as yet to be studied but the call for greater attention from within SLA has already been voiced in a recent discourse study (Lazaraton, 2004) where an ESL teacher's gestures are micro analysed. It concludes that gestures are significant to L2 learners and that gaze is also a significant factor that merits serious attention and asks why so few videos of performance have been analysed in SLA research. It must be a practical or technical problem hindering research which will change with technological advances?

Summary

In SLA and in language testing both from the speaking and listening perspective gesture, gaze and facial features have been found to aid communication. Nonverbal communication is a component of what makes peer-peer interaction, in pairs and group, difficult to rate. Discourse studies have perspicaciously drawn out raters' perception of the rating process and their perception of interaction for the paired construct included non verbal communication. This could be part of the 'intangible' searched for by van Moere (2006) and which warrants further investigation. Research questions were thus set out as follows:

What nonverbal communication is attended to by raters of peer-peer interaction?

What nonverbal communication is commented on by candidates after the peer-peer test experience?

II. METHOD

Verbal protocols are widely used to probe cognitive processes for learners. They have been used for raters in first and second language writing and for rating speaking on EAP tasks. To this point verbal protocols have not been used to investigate rating paired orals for L2 Spanish. This methodology allows the researcher to uncover key features that reflect the view of the majority of the participant raters while they are simulating being 'on the job'.

As was mentioned above, the data for this study come from a larger study for developing rating scales for paired interaction in a large Australian University. Data for the protocols from raters were collected in 2005 and the data for the protocols for the candidates were collected in 2003 soon after candidates performed their videoed 10 minute paired orals on which the study is built. For the focus of this study only the data coded with Nvivo as nonverbal communication were considered.

Participants

The group of 17 pairs of candidates were all acquainted, self selected pairs from their cohort who volunteered for the project in exchange for personalised individual feedback on their performance. The pairs were representative of the types that have previously been researched of same or mixed: proficiency level, gender, nationality and personality type.

The group of 12 raters that were recruited to participate were all experienced male and female teachers from the university language program where the students were taught in the target language with an emphasis on oral skills at beginner level. The raters were native and non native speakers of Spanish and represented varieties from Spain and Latin America. Their role as lecturers, teaching assistants and casual staff meant they were experienced in conducting the Paired Oral Test (POT) and had been previously trained and moderated to rate with the existing criteria. In essence, they were all experienced with the task and candidate level they were requested to observe.

Data collection

The paired orals were regularly audio taped for double marking and rater moderation. In this instance all the students in the cohort 145 were videoed. Informed and written consent was obtained before taping and subsequently the students, 25 in all, who were interested in watching them participated in the remainder of the study.

The Stimulated Verbal Recall took place as soon as possible in the week following the oral test. Students watched their performance and commented without guidance. The Rater Verbal Protocol took place the following year after the exam period. The twelve raters commented on the interaction on the performance without guidance.

Data transcription and analysis

The 17 pairs of candidates in the oral, the 12 raters commenting on the paired interaction and the 25 candidates commenting on their own performance were all transcribed as part of the larger study.

The protocols were coded and the inter coder reliability for both sets of protocols reached more than 80% inter-rater agreement. The preliminary coding grid from the patterns that had emerged could categorize 80% of the examples with a good fit. The remaining 20% were discussed by the coders and this helped tighten the definitions on the grid and clarify the coding for the remainder.

To limit the scope of the study those features that emerged from the verbal protocols from raters and candidates as a result of content analysis were used to guide the analysis below. Nonverbal communication was one of the features of interaction that raters and candidates commented on.

Second analysis

Using Nvivo to search for previously coded protocols produced results that included references made by candidates and by raters to non verbal communication. The approach taken generally worked well because the system was already set up for such a search.

The findings that emerged were divided as follows: general body language, body position, movement, gaze, lips, hands, gestures, appearance and head.

The data was divided into candidates' and raters' content analysis of the verbal protocols. In fact as the two columns in the tables below for each of the features, show that the candidates commented little on their body language. On the other hand the raters comment repeatedly on the same features, having had no guidance or instruction to do so, and they are very explicit about the presence or lack of non verbal communication and its connection to interaction.

III. RESULTS

Without guidance candidates and raters made reference to non verbal behaviour when asked to comment on paired interaction. Raters comments were divided into four categories for discussion which ranged from general to very specific: general body language; the body: position, appearance and movement; hands and gestures; and gaze. Candidates commented on all of the above but the general body language.

1 Body language

General comments on 'body language' as a category covering all aspects of nonverbal communication includes comments from the raters on the use of body language for "encouraging listening or "to help communication". Comments on the absence of body language are equally important because it suggests that it is equally noticeable in its absences or presence.

TABLE 1
BODY LANGUAGE

Raters comments
Body language is encouraging listening
The stronger one uses body language to help communication
Neither of them use body language

2 Body: position, appearance and movement

This next category includes body position, appearance and movement which are grouped together because they are not hands or gaze, the remaining two and larger categories.

In nearly all the cases where the raters comment on the body position they elaborate and comment on the effect such a position has on the observer. Comments in table 2 below for example: "it doesn't help him at all"; " it is very telling"; "I would rate then as poor"; "it makes him know less than he does" or "a negative posture, he is defensive" all show

how the raters a very involved with the performance. This very personal reaction demonstrates the effect body position has on the rater that is observing.

The candidates' comments are few in this category so little can be surmised. It is interesting that they both refer to opposing levels of comfort in the test "upright' compared with "comfortable" both of which would be visible to the rater.

Appearance

After body position, appearance at least that you want interact is important for the raters

'Smile every so often and recognise and gesture that you understand. You don't have to laugh right through but I would rate this as very poor interaction'. The perception this rater has of paired interaction is embodied in a single comment. It is expected that candidates acknowledge each other, signal comprehension and be cooperative by smiling. Comments made by candidates on appearance acknowledge their nerves which are as visible on video as they would be to raters.

Movement

Movement is a small category, with the candidates explaining why they are using nonverbal communication: embarrassment and the end of the exam drawing near. From the raters perspective the comment "her whole body appears to say or no" shows a level of speaker engagement with the other candidate that the raters have observed. The nerves also are observed in the comment "his legs are shaking". Raters are expressing where their eyes are taken to as they observe the pairs performing and they seem to vary from the whole body perspective to the smaller nonverbal communication feature such as where candidates look which is the next category.

TABLE 2
BODY POSITION, APPEARANCE AND MOVEMENT

Candidate comments body position	Raters comments body position
I look so upright	His position and the visor don't help him at all.
I put myself in a comfortable position	She has her legs crossed away in terms of physical interaction it is very telling
	They don't move their body and don't communicate physically that they understand. I don't know but in general terms I would rate them as very poor
	Body posture make him look as if he knows less than he does
	He has a negative posture he is the defensive
	Their chairs are close
Candidate comments appearance	**Raters comments appearance**
I am nervous and prepared she is the same	They relax and connect
I was nervous and self conscious	Her being relaxed adds to the interaction
Big smile it is over	Facial expression is good
I am biting them (lips) under pressure	Smile every so often and recognise and gesture that you understand you don't have to laugh right through but I would rate this as very poor interaction
Candidate comments movement	**Raters comments movement**
I knew it was coming to an end so I fidgeted	Her whole body appears to say yes or no
I am embarrassed and fiddling with my fingers	His legs are shaking
	Head was tilted inwards and really listening
	She nods to indicate she has understood
	She nods while the other is speaking to give her confidence

3 Gaze

Gaze is the term used in Conversation Analysis to indicate where participants look during a conversation and it is linked interactionally with speech. There are a significant number of comments on comprehension and engagement that provide insight into the process of peer-peer interaction during the test from both the candidates and the raters.

First, the comments on engagement which divide into two types: comments that indicate that raters have observed signs of engagement or disengagement such as can be seen in table 4. Candidates' looking at each other is valued and an appraisal is added to the observation by the raters for example: "The visual support generally makes good communication" or "The way they look at each other is good". The impression is that both candidates are looking at each from the comments and this is the way raters like it. Conversely the comment "Interaction is difficult because the situation is tense and it is hard to focus because they are not looking at each other" expresses how raters observe the difficulty in performing the task without looking at each other. Other comments that indicate that the partners are not engaged in the interaction such as "He looks at the paper rather than follow the conversation"; "He never looks up or at his partner" or "He is more interested in his shoe than his partner" are examples of how raters notice where one of the candidates is not helping the performance. This is not particular to peer-peer interaction. If a person is being interviewed and fails to look up then the feeling of rejection or disengagement would heighten for the interviewer. Raters can empathise with the person not being looked at and verbalise that rules of interaction are being broken by lack of inclusion by candidates averting gaze.

TABLE 4
GAZE

Candidate comments	Raters comments
Gaze	**Gaze**
He was losing me you could see blankness in his eyes	She does not look at her partner very often
We locked eyes I worked out he was thinking "I don't know what you're saying" but then he got it"	The stare is unnatural and un spontaneous. She is drinking in the words with a fear of not understanding
it is a comfort thing to look down when you are speaking so you are in no-where land	She is looking up but not looking him in the eye as she answers
	He never looks up or at his partner He is more interested in his shoe than his partner
	They look at each other most of the time and make the most of it
	He does not look at her though she does look at him right through. At one point she speaks French and communication is broken completely then he is obliged to looks up and as she corrects herself communication is re established by the look.
	The visual support generally makes good communication
	The way they look at each other is good
	Interaction is difficult because the situation is tense and it is hard to focus because they are not looking at each other
	He looks at the paper rather than follow the conversation

The second group of comments on comprehension come from both raters and candidates. Where previously looking at your partner is appraised positively here it is the contrary: "The stare is unnatural and not spontaneous. She is drinking in the words with a fear of not understanding". The rater observes that it is not an interactive kind of 'look' but akin to 'a rabbit in front of the headlights' stare.

From the candidates' perspective the comment "We locked eyes. I worked out he was thinking "I don't know what you are saying" but then he got it" shows how intensely they are looking at each other and how communicative the expression is to convey so much meaning to the partner; equally expressed in the comment "He was losing me. You could see blankness in his eyes". These comments demonstrate the importance of looking at your partner because of what a look is capable of conveying.

Looking at another person can be uncomfortable in an already difficult situation such as a test and the comment "it is a comfort thing to look down when you are speaking so you are in no-where land" highlights this. Raters notice if they look at each other in the eye or not as in the example "She is looking up but not looking him in the eye as she answers." which shows that raters are constructing a norm within the peer-peer test: a preference for candidates to look at one another.

In summary, it can be seen in table 4 that raters observe if candidates gaze enhancing is hindering or enhancing interaction. Looking or gaze could be summarized as dividing up into + or − gaze = + or − engagement. The most important comment "He does not look at her though she does look at him right through. At one point she speaks French and communication is broken completely then he is obliged to looks up and as she corrects herself communication is re established by the look" shows how looking has a function here that the raters have noticed. It has repaired the broken interaction caused by her speaking French.

4 Hands and gestures

The comments on gesturing can be grouped into gestures that support the interaction, show comprehension or convey meaning.

Gestures that directly conv**ey** meaning are illustrated by "The stronger one mimes eating to the weaker one". This support between candidates is similar to an expert/novice situation such as student /teacher or mother/ child. Mime is the only resource to ensure comprehension.

The situation is different in the comment "He uses his hands a lot when he can't find the word he is looking for" because while the candidate is retrieving the word, he is holding the floor by gesturing in a way that can try to explain his meaning.

As in the comments mad on gaze above, candidates show engagement in the interaction also by using gesture "He uses hand gestures to draw his partner into the conversation" or "She makes supportive gestures". Raters are expressing their awareness of support for the other person and when this is lacking they comment on its absence: "These two are not interested in communicating. She has her hands under her legs" which is interesting to see the manner in which raters judge so much on non verbal communication.

Finally, awareness by the raters of gestures made between candidates to signal comprehension such as "She gestures to indicate she is following the conversation" or "When she repeats it her partner give her a thumbs up to show she has understood" show a recognition that peer-peer interaction is two-way so it is essential that there be comprehension between the pair. It is important to signal it and one way is to gesture.

TABLE 6
HANDS AND GESTURES

Candidate comments hands	Raters comments hands
I didn't know how to say that with my hands.	He uses his hands a lot when he can't find the word he is looking for
What is with those hands?	She is talking a lot with her hands
	He uses hand gestures to draw his partner into the conversation
	Great to see other cultures(referring to asian students) using their hands like us not like the anglo Saxons.
	When she repeats it her partner give her a thumbs up to show she has understood
	She nervously grabbed her head with her hands
	The stronger one mimes eating to the weaker one
	I put a lot of emphasis on hand movements. He has a successful interaction by using his hands a lot
	these two are not interested in communicating she has her hands under her legs
	They use their hands
	She makes supportive gestures
	She gestures to indicate she is following the conversation

In sum, the findings from the content analysis for nonverbal communication from the two verbal protocols were reported in the tables above. They report on the amount of comment on nonverbal behaviour by candidates and raters. It can be claimed that raters are highly conscious of nonverbal communication as part of paired interaction. The comments on body language and body: movement, position and appearance all provide an insight into generalizations that raters make based on appearances. The comments on gesture are also enlightening in that they spell out that presence or absence of gesture is noticed in peer–peer interaction. Finally, gaze is also an important part of non verbal communication showing engagement and comprehension,

Candidates on the other hand although commenting under the same conditions as raters, with no guidance, give only a little insight into why they carried out certain actions.

IV. DISCUSSION

This qualitative research has shown language testers that from a rater's perspective nonverbal behaviour is a fundamental aspect of L2 performance and is a means of observable 'comprehensible input' between two candidates. Although "the role of gesture as primarily intrapersonal, interpersonal or both is being debated in the gesture studies literature": (Lazaraton, 2004. p. 109) there is strong evidence that in peer-peer interaction the interpersonal is what is observed and valued by raters.

On the issue of gesture being multifunctional and serving both interactionally and to compensate for any internal processing problems (Gullberg, 1998), there is evidence that raters observe beginner L2 learners using gesture as a communication strategy to compensate for verbal difficulties which is born out by comments on mime.

In the original coding, body language covered all the separate categories above so it was difficult to clearly picture the key features that made up nonverbal communication for raters. The range of comments was evenly spread from the different raters but the predominant ones were gaze and hand combined with gesture. These support previous findings of other SLA studies reported in the Literature review in the introduction.

A possible weakness that could effect the results is that this division into secondary level of coding was not checked for inter rater reliability with another coder. However, the coding is based on concrete words that refer to parts of the body so it leaves the definition very clear and would not cause confusion for another researcher to comb the data and find similar results.

The data in this study point to the significance of nonverbal behaviour as noticed by candidates and raters as part of paired oral interaction. Even without analysing the verbal input of the candidate or the gestures as appearing on the video the comments from the protocols are evidence that nonverbal behaviour mattered to the raters and to a lesser extent to candidates. The data reinforce the claim that there is a fundamental relationship between non verbal communication and 'spoken interaction' in face to face peer-to peer paired discourse.

These protocols shed light on what raters notices and an attempt is made to ascertain why the candidates behaved the way they did. They seem to be explaining in their comments.. in this type of frame work that fails it is not answered very fully because the candidates were not lead to comment in a particular direction as the raters. This is a shortcoming of the methodology

We can make claims that raters notice the effectiveness of gesturing or looking to keep the conversation going. This is interesting to see raters are aware of candidates using gesture to support a covert strategy to secure ongoing L2 speech (Swain, 2000).

The comments on gaze and gesture are the most enlightening on the importance to the pair in communicating in the test. The example of the pair regaining communication after one speaks French and the other looks up would not be a regular occurrence but claims can be made based on that clear cut example that had they not looked there might have been a communication breakdown. It is harder to prove if they keep looking and it is successful or they don't look and it is not successful as in both cases there could be other factors.

V. CONCLUSIONS

It was put forward that the construct for peer-peer interaction was not fully described making it a problem for rating pairs or groups. A verbal report study showed non verbal communication to be part of rater construct of peer-peer interaction. This study describes rater and candidate perceptions of nonverbal communication including gaze, gesture and other body language, including posture and movement. It could be argued that nonverbal communication might be part of that 'intangible' element that Van moere indicated was affecting group rating. It has been described in this study which has implications for the construct of peer-peer interaction and the consequences that broadening the construct has on rating scales for peer-peer oral proficiency testing.

VI. FURTHER RESEARCH

Some potential areas for further study include

• To examine candidate discourse and gesture and to connect gesture to comprehension or engagement in next turn.

• A micro-analysis with gesture and gaze, the two main features identified by candidates and raters, would provide a unique insight into paired test talk

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Is Language Proficiency Taken Care of at Higher Education Level? Need for Self Efficacy of Post Graduate Students

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Abstract—**English language is known for its global communication. As a link language and the migration of people from different parts of the world to various places, for pursuing their higher education, trade contacts and better living (Saraithong & Chancharoenchai, 2012) a proficiency in this language has received a paramount importance. ICT also demands the knowledge of this language as most of the resources are in this English language. Spoken English classes are more prominent in India among young people who are in their verge of job hunt. But huge sum of money are bagged by these proprietors of these classes without, any change in the pupil's ability. A proper teaching methodology along with appropriate curriculum introduced from the primary level to the tertiary level in education can fill these gaps of expectations and swindle. At this backdrop the investigators underwent this study of finding the language proficiency of post graduate students the results of which can be used for revision of curriculum, teaching methodology, identifying grey areas in the education system on the whole, so that every stakeholder can witness their goals and objectives being achieved. A written inventory comprising of 15 situational tasks was developed by the investigators and administered in two colleges for 64 participants. The responses were scored using analytical rubrics and statistically analyzed. The results convey the need for in depth revision in sowing the skills of English language among college students in a vigorous manner, so that the students grow and glow in the English language dominant world.**

Index Terms—**performance based assessments, pragmatic approach and sub skills of LSRW in English Language**

I. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

English language proficiency a magical word rules the young minds of this technological era. Everyone likes to be proficient in this language for want of better living, to study abroad, to learn new culture and for trade relationships. Language is the vehicle of thought. English serves as the link language in many parts of the world and globalization had necessitated being proficient in this language. In India people from the daily wagers till the millionaire wanted their children to have English education and expect them to be fluent in this language A survey states that India has a moderate proficiency in English with 57.49% (EF –EPI, 2012). The ethnocentrism for a particular language may be one reason but when English had been accepted as an official language steps are taken by the government to bring English education to its mass population. The extensive review of literature done by the investigators provided guidelines for the administration of the present study right from the fixing of objectives to picking up of test items, its validation, preparation of rubrics, scoring and analysis of the test results. The objectives of the present study are to assess the English Language Proficiency of post graduate students by analyzing the sub skills of major LSRW skills and its relation to demographic variables.

In the Guidelines for the assessment of the English Language Learners given by Educational Testing Services U.S (Pitoniak, Young, Martiniello, King, Buteux, et,al, 2009) states that the factors that affect assessment of English Language learners are Different linguistic backgrounds, Varying levels of proficiency in English, Varying levels of proficiency in native language, Varying degrees of formal schooling in native language etc. *National Curriculum Statement Assessment Guidelines for General Education and Training (Intermediate and Senior Phases) Languages* (2007) given by the Department of Education, Republic of South Africa ensures that "The content for Languages is dependent upon other learning areas' content. Language teachers need to take into consideration that there would always be Learning Outcomes that are content specific for other Learning Areas such as Life Orientation, Social Sciences, Arts and Culture, Technology, etc. The work *English as a Second Language Learners: ESL Learners: A Guide for Classroom Teachers* (1999) British Columbia Ministry of Education Special Programs Branch induces the need for proper scoring stating that "The proper scoring of ELLs' responses includes an understanding of the language or presentation style examinees use". Also the study explains that "Informal assessment techniques can be used at anytime without interfering with instructional time. Their results are indicative of the student's performance on the skill

or subject of interest" and "Methods for informal assessment can be divided into two main types: unstructured (e.g., student work samples, journals) and structured (e.g., checklists, observations). The unstructured methods frequently are somewhat more difficult to score and evaluate, but they can provide a great deal of valuable information about the skills of the students, particularly in the areas of language proficiency." "The validity of informal measures can be established by demonstrating that the information obtained from a given technique reflects the project's instructional goals and objectives."

Anne & Heidi (1990) in their study *"Oral Skills Testing: A Rhetorical Task Approach"* have used a semi direct test of oral proficiency named the Rhetorical Task Examination (RTE). In their study they used performance based tasks involving short questions and answers, description, narration, process (giving directions), opinion, and comparison-contrast. The same method is adapted in the present study. Results of this study indicate that the Rhetorical Task Examination is promising as a measure of oral proficiency in terms of practicality, reliability, and validity. Ramganesh & Pandiyan (2009) in his study states that cognitive strategy is one of the six strategies used by the readers and that they analyze, and summarize using context cues, so providing a task based activity is cognitively demanding the target language use by the learner, which adds to the advantage in the use of these task based activities in this study. As given in the study by Tanveer (2007) anxiety forms an obstacle for second language communication. The result of his study is that "Anxiety and speech communication appear to have a strong bond with each other. Speaking, either in first (L1) or second/foreign (L2/FL) language in different situations, particularly the situations that demand public speech, tend to be anxiety provoking". Pearson, KT has automatically scored many millions of written and spoken responses. KT has measured core language and literacy skills as evidenced in students' constructed responses. Similar tasks also elicit responses that are assessed for content knowledge. Pearson knowledge technologies group assessed as follows. The items measure language production, written and oral skills, pronunciation, and fluency among other language traits. *NCME Instructional Module on Design and 'Development of Performance Assessments* by Stiggins (1987) supports that Performance assessments are valuable tools for measuring communication skills such as reading, writing, speaking, and listening. In a study by Çetin and Demiral (2012) the investigators report that 'The evaluation results can give guidance in terms of identifying the students' development levels, needs and appropriate learning activities to them and editing the learning environment. Abedi (2004) had stated some language assessment tests; they are the Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM), the Idea Proficiency Test (IPT), the Language Assessment Battery (LAB), the Language Assessment Scales (LAS), the Maculaitis Assessment Program (MAC), and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT).

Every institution has its own way of language assessment for entry into their college or for job in a company. The most popularly known test is the TOEFL and TOEIC. The TOEFL® test, is a test which colleges and universities use to gauge the language skills of prospective international students, and the TOEIC® test, is a test in which employers in a variety of industries use to determine employees' readiness to use English in global communication. Language proficiency contributes to academic success too as it is stated by Krashen & Brown (2007) "Those who read more do better on all aspects of academic language: They have larger vocabularies, spell better, read better, have a more acceptable writing style, and are more adept at handling complex grammatical constructions". The investigators also stated that that the successful students had mastered the real strategies for language development and problem-solving, and did not need strategies for "study."

Language Proficiency is impinged on all the four skills of the language learning. Powers .E (2010) comply that although the four aspects of communicative ability are highly related, they are nonetheless logically and empirically distinct. He also says assessing only some aspects of language proficiency leads to serious societal consequence. English language proficiency assessed in the present study was designed such that it includes the pragmatic dimension of the language and all the four skills were provided with the situational contexts in an inventory comprising of 15 questions. Vecchio and Guerrero (1995) had stated that "Pragmatic language tasks are intended to be as "real life" or authentic as possible". In the inventory the sub skills of each of the main skills namely the LSRW skills were provided with an open end inventory. Since open ended questions provide an opportunity for the sample to give explicit responses and at the same time the tool was to per se the language competence of the sample the investigators found that the open ended questions are more suitable for the present study. Two colleges were used for the study both being private aided coeducation colleges one situated at the urban area and the other on a remote rural area coming under the jurisdiction of Bharathidasan University. Post graduate students of English Literature were used for the study as the students of English literature they are supposed to be equipped with the LSRW skills than the students of any other discipline. College 'A' is referred as the college in the rural area and College 'B' is referred as the college in the urban area.

II. SAMPLES

The investigators adopted purposive sampling in the present study as the objectives of the study imply the comparison between rural and urban college. Two colleges were selected for the study. Post graduate students of English Literature formed the sample. College A consisted of 10 male students and 21 female students and College B 8 male students and 25 female students and both the colleges are private aided colleges with the status of " College with Potential" recognized by University Grants Commission of India.

III. LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY INVENTORY

In the study all the four skills are assessed for it gives a holistic view of the language proficiency. Performance based assessment was adopted in the study as they can be used to evaluate students speaking and writing ability (Abedi, 2010). The CRESST report (Kim, Joan, Lyle, Alison &Noelle 2008) has given guidelines that the data collection should contain details of native language, mobility, socioeconomic status, instructional history which is incorporated in the study. The inventory consist of two parts namely part I and part II. The part I consist of the general information of the participant like name, gender along with demographic variables such as medium of instruction at primary, secondary and higher secondary level, residential area and economic status. The second part II consisted of 15 open ended questions. Simple statements were used for it affects the response of the participants (Cawthon. W, 2010). The oral discourse skill was assessed with a help of real life situations in the written form. Though there are two forms of discourse skills both oral and written form due to constraints of time, practicality and feasibility the investigators decided to collect written forms of responses in assessing the oral skill of the participants. The oral discourse skill's sub skills such as beginning a conversation with a stranger, self introduction in a seminar presentation, giving compliments, seeking permission and giving directions to stakeholder were administered in the study. Each of the dimensions was given with a situation and the responses were recorded by the participants in the inventory. Five items were included in the study for this particular skill.

The next 5 items were used to assess the writing skill of the participants. The dimensions included exercises in guided writing, descriptive writing, expository writing and note making and one task involves both reading and writing tasks that brings about the skill of transcoding information into a diagrammatic display. But the test item was used for writing skill assessment only. The inventory had 3 items in reading task which includes the dimensions of skimming, guessing meaning from the context and understanding of the content. As the whole of the inventory also assesses the reading skill of the participants the investigators restricted the tasks in reading. Then the inventory comprised of 2 tasks in listening. The investigators read aloud the passages to the participants only once followed by 5 questions from each of the passage. Only the basic understanding of the content was tested in the listening comprehension and the responses were written by the participants in the inventory. A time of about one hour fifteen minutes was given to the participants to complete the inventory along with the brief introduction of the purpose of the research by the investigators and thereby they created a rapport with the participants to bring them out of their shelves.

IV. SCORING PROCEDURE

Analytical rubrics were taken by the investigators for the scoring of the responses. For the oral discourse skill and the written skill assessment, the scoring was categorized under the use of vocabulary, presentation skills, understanding of the given content and the relevance of the response to the question. For most of the studies looks language proficiency for grammatical competencies (Esquinca, Yaden & Rueda, 2005). Both the reading and listening skills had only one correct response and a correct response was given a score. The question which consists of assessing both the reading and the writing task had sub divisions and the appropriate score was given.   Thus the scoring was systematized and the responses were carefully assessed by the investigators. Then the scores were categorized in to competency levels (Wille. R May 2006). The results were further categorized in their appropriate proficiency levels as stated in IOWA English Language Development Assessment (I-ELDA). In this test the participants are categorized as such 0.00 to 1.75 as level 1, 2.00 to 2.75 as level 2, 3.00 to 3.75 as level 3 and so on (Pl refer references).

V. RESULTS

TABLE 1.
OVERALL MEAN SCORE AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF BOTH THE COLLEGES

Skills	College A		College B	
	Mean	STDEV	Mean	STDEV
Speaking	8.13	4.72	7.73	3.75
Writing	5.94	4.27	8.55	4.16
Reading	1.71	2.11	2.03	1.97
Listening	3.32	1.88	4.15	1.58

A. Oral Proficiency Skill

The spoken language according to researches is the most complex skill and it increases the anxiety of the ESL (English as Second Language) students. Since their errors are displayed to others the anxiety level also increases. Good communication the root of any action entails the proper understanding of the situation and responding correspondingly. As already given the pragmatic approach of the inventory with the real life situations were given and the students' responses were analyzed statistically. The standard deviation of college A is 4.72 and college B is 3.75. The mean score of the college A is 8.13 and college B is 7.73. The mean score shows relatively a high proficiency in oral discourse skill for college A.

B. Written Skill

The written skill is considered as one of the most important skills as the higher education students is making use of most of it in their semester exams. This skill requires the proper understanding of the questions asked, relevance of response in highly sequenced manner with varying degree of vocabulary and with a little patience too, to make the reader perceive the meaning as it is interpreted and conveyed by the writer. The standard deviation of college A is 4.27 and college B is 4.16 the deviation score is almost equal when compared to oral skill for both the colleges. The mean score of college A is 5.94 and college B is 8.55. This shows that compared to oral proficiency college B is good in the written skill and college A is good in oral proficiency than college B.

C. Reading Skill

Reading maketh a complete man (Francis Bacon). Only through extensive reading one can extend his knowledge of vocabulary. In this technological era, though reading books is diminishing it should be cultivated in every child's mind at an early stage as this skill also fuels the means of self study. A voracious reader always finds easy to communicate to varied situations and his decision making power also increases. The standard deviation of college A is found to be 2.11 with the mean score 1.71. The standard deviation of college B is 1.97 with a mean score of 2.03. Transcoding the information into a diagrammatic display gained very low score in the pupils' responses which indicates that this sub skill in reading is to be incorporated in the curriculum of every higher education students as it kindles self study mode among them.

D. Listening Skill

Listening is the basic skill for any language development and the most unrecognized skill among the practitioners of education.   A child's language development begins with this receptive skill. The factors that affect listening are length of the passage read, environment of the study, use of vocabulary, level of the learners in accordance with the passage and so on. The investigators had control over these factors and the passage was read to the participants by the investigator. Questions asked from the passage include only proper listening of the passage read. The standard deviation of college A and B is 1.88 and 1.58 respectively. The mean score is 3.32 for college A and 4.15 for college B.

TABLE 2
I-ELDA PROFICIENCY LEVELS ASSESSMENT.

	College A	College B
Skills	Mean	Mean
Speaking	8.13	7.73
Writing	5.94	8.55
Reading	1.71	2.03
Listening	3.32	4.15
Mean of all skills	4.78	5.62

The mean score of college A and college B falls above 3. This indicates that both the colleges are little proficient in their language.

Level 4 is an advanced intermediate level which indicates that the student who is limited in English proficiency can: (as given by I-ELDA scale)

• Identify some of the main ideas and relevant details of discussions or presentations on a wide range of topics
• Actively engage in most communicative situations familiar to him or her
• Understand the context of most text in academic areas with support
• Write some multi-paragraph essays, journal entries, personal/business letters, and creative texts in an organized fashion with errors

Analysis in relation to demographic variables such as
1. Gender
2. Residential Area
3. Economic status
4. Medium of Instruction (Higher Secondary)

TABLE 3
GENDER DIFFERENCE

SKILLS	College A	Mean	STDEV	College B	Mean	STDEV
Speaking	Male	7.90	3.755	Male	7.50	1.690
	Female	8.24	5.205	Female	7.80	4.233
Writing	Male	6.10	4.654	Male	9.13	4.673
	Female	5.86	4.199	Female	8.36	4.081
Reading	Male	.80	1.874	Male	1.00	1.414
	Female	2.14	2.128	Female	2.36	2.039
Listening	Male	1.90	1.287	Male	3.50	.926
	Female	4.00	1.761	Female	4.36	1.705

The table 3 gives a view of the Mean score and Standard deviation of the participants in relation to the gender difference. Mean score in the male samples of both the colleges show very low score and there is very little difference in the standard deviation and mean score of the reading skill of the male samples. On the whole the performance of the female sample is better than male samples in all the four skills.

TABLE 4
RESIDENTIAL AREA

Skills	Residential Area	Mean	Standard Deviation
Speaking	Rural	7.59	4.173
	Urban	10.50	3.398
	Semi Urban	5.88	4.291
Writing	Rural	6.34	4.182
	Urban	9.42	3.315
	Semi Urban	9.25	5.548
Reading	Rural	1.55	1.886
	Urban	2.25	1.815
	Semi Urban	3.13	2.748
Listening	Rural	3.55	1.718
	Urban	3.33	1.775
	Semi Urban	5.50	1.069

As given in table 4, the mean score of the speaking skill of urban people is little higher than participants belonging to rural and semi urban. More over the mean sore of the writing skill, reading skill and the listening skill shows there is no significant difference among the participants in these skills in relation to residential area. Thus this study confirms that a language rich environment is essential for the speaking skill in particular. As practice makes perfect the enhancement of this speaking skill needs continuous practice. All the other skills are not much affected with the domicile of the participants.

TABLE 5
ECONOMIC STATUS

Skills	Economic Status	Mean	Standard Deviation
Speaking	Lower Middle	6.20	3.427
	Middle	8.41	4.287
	Upper Middle	9.00	6.000
Writing	Lower Middle	5.60	4.239
	Middle	7.65	4.352
	Upper Middle	10.00	4.359
Reading	Lower Middle	.73	1.223
	Middle	2.22	2.118
	Upper Middle	2.33	2.517
Listening	Lower Middle	2.60	1.549
	Middle	4.17	1.637
	Upper Middle	3.00	2.646

The mean score given in the above table 5 in relation to economic status shows participants of upper middle class and the middle class are almost equal in the speaking skill and high deviation is seen in the speaking skill of the upper middle class. In the writing skill the standard deviation is almost the same while the mean score is greater for upper middle class. Reading and the Listening skill are poor among all participants with low mean score. The scores on the whole reveal that the economic status does not affect significantly in the English Language Proficiency of the participants.

TABLE 6
MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION

Skills	Higher Secondary	Mean	Standard Deviation
Speaking	Tamil	6.73	4.006
	English	9.92	3.866
Writing	Tamil	5.83	4.050
	English	9.71	3.884
Reading	Tamil	1.65	2.007
	English	2.25	2.069
Listening	Tamil	3.43	1.880
	English	4.29	1.459

Though the medium of instruction at primary, secondary and higher secondary level were taken from the participants for the analysis only the higher secondary level was considered. In all the four skills the English medium students perform better than Tamil medium students. It implies that medium of instruction plays a vital role in the development of language proficiency. This result again confirms the need for early instruction in the second language and the need for language rich environment for language development.

VI. CONCLUSION

Language proficiency is very much essential for higher education students, as learning a language is learning how to learn through a language. Higher education students are on the brim of finding job. Most of the job offering companies looks for communication skills in English as the most important criteria for the selection of the candidate. Most of the studies say that language proficiency is positively correlated to academic achievement. (Elder, 1994), so concentrating on the language proficiency for language development of the students paves the way for their academic success too. The present study though attempted to assess all the four skills in language development an in depth study by including the grammatical aspects of the language can give a real picture of the students' proficiency level. Language rich environment should be provided from the primary level of school instruction for adequate language development.

The present study explains that the economic status and the area of domicile does not have a major impact on the students language proficiency, probably it may be due to the age factor, in which the self interest and the self study mode may have contributed to the language development of the participants. The study when attempted with other samples including primary and secondary students may yield a different result. This study insists the need to frame a comprehensive curriculum incorporating most of the sub skills of the language right from the primary level and the

need for inclusion of target language teaching at all levels in the school. Females are good in language proficiency than males and utmost care should be taken for increasing the proficiency of the males too and appropriate teaching strategies are to be developed to reach the male students also. Spoken language when assessed by actually making the participants to speak may give a different result on other hand people whose anxiety level is high (Sioson .C, 2011) and who are with stammering difficulty may not perform well in the test but in actual situations they can do better. Though the LSRW skills are unique, they are interrelated and the development of one skill contributes to the other, and a particular assessment cannot measure one particular skill, such discrepancies should be culled out. Whatever be the exact situation this study adds some knowledge to the present status of the language proficiency prevalent among college students.

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Absenteeism and Language Learning: Does Missing Class Matter?

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Abstract—In a word, yes. The study determined the relationship between class attendance and mastery of a second language. Instructors kept detailed records of both attendance and classroom-discussed material. In a content-based class, the in-class material exam questions were isolated and the results showed that missing a single class increased the student's likelihood of an incorrect answer by three times compared to a student who attended class when the material was discussed. In a skills-based class, where in-class and outside-class material could not be separated, missing a single class increased a student's likelihood of an incorrect answer seven to eight times that of a student who attended class. Therefore missing classes does significantly affect test performance as well as mastery of the target language and content. These results lead to a number of significant conclusions which have implications for teaching in general, teaching a foreign language teaching in particular, educational policy, the link between class attendance and mastery of course content, and how best to measure the level of that mastery.

Index Terms—attendance, foreign language learning, exam performance, mastery

I. INTRODUCTION

In many educational settings, but particularly in higher education, the importance of attendance has been de-emphasized. Whereas once students automatically failed classes after three absences, now attendance is often considered optional. This change is often justified as a necessary adaptation to the advent of older, over-committed students, on-line courses, and other distance learning options. There is an assumption that class attendance is not absolutely necessary to obtaining mastery of the subject matter. The flexible attendance policy, or indeed the lack of one, is understandably very popular among students. Instructors, on the other hand, have been less pleased by the change, and only recently has hard data (discussed below) on the importance of attendance become available. Previously, most available information on the importance of attendance came from studies conducted in the sciences, economics, and other disciplines where traditional lectures to many students are the norm. In such environments much of the learning is passive, and the related studies, which usually looked at many factors in addition to attendance, have shown attendance to have little effect on student performance. Less studied has been the effect of attendance in smaller, foreign language and language-related classes where much of the learning is active. This paper presents the results of a study on the consequences of student absence from these active-learning classes. Results show that missing classes significantly affects the level of mastery of both the target language and course content as measured by short answer or short essay tests designed to elicit specific information.

II. PREVIOUS RESEARCH

A. Passive Learning in Business and Economica

A few studies such as Hyde & Flournoy (1986), St. Clair (1999), and Rodgers (2002) rejected an attendance-performance link. Other studies, concentrated in economics and business, found only minor gains associated with conscientious attendance. Romer (1993) found that attendance is important, and that the relationship between attendance and performance was greater than that between completing problem sets and performance. Durden and Ellis (1995) found that attendance does matter, but not until a student has missed four classes in the semester. Marburger (2001) found that scores on multiple choice exams were affected by failure to attend classes. He also found that "low levels of absenteeism had no appreciable effect on student learning but that excessive absenteeism had a deleterious impact on course performance" (p.101). He distinguished between student learning and course performance. In a second paper (Marburger 2006), he reported that a mandatory attendance policy brought about only a 2% improvement on multiple-choice exam scores. Halpern (2007) studied 13 factors plus attendance in the context of a course in airport

business management and found a "significant moderately positive effect" (p.11) of attendance on academic achievement, but not enough to recommend attendance policies.

B.   Passive Learning in the Sciences

It is when the research turns away from business and economics that the picture begins to change. Gatherer and Manning (1998) found a "weak but statistically significant positive correlation with lecture attendance" (p. 121) among biology students. The correlation was much higher for ethnic minority and non-Anglophone students. Among students in an obstetrics-gynecology rotation, Riggs and Blanco (1994) determined that students who had more than 30% absence from lectures were likely to score in the bottom 15% on exams. The differences among the natures of the subjects and class sizes may account for differing results. A recent meta-analysis by Credé, Roch & Kieszczynka (2010) of a database of 28,034 students from many disciplines found that class attendance was better than any other known predictor of college grades.

C.   Active Learning and Attendance

Moving further into the realm of active learning, Colby (2004) studied 178 students in a computing course and formulated two rules regarding attendance. The first rule holds students who do not attend 80% of classes have an even chance of failing. They also have a two-in-three chance of not receiving grades in the top two grade bands. Colby's second rule states that students who do not attend at least 70% of teaching sessions have a two-in-three chance of failing, and a four-in-five chance of not scoring in the top two grade bands (Colby, 2004, sec. 5.1).

Newman-Ford et al. (2008) replicated Colby's findings using an electronic method of monitoring attendance. The team monitored 748 students in 22 modules and found that Colby's 70% and 80% rules stood firm. They also formulated a 90% rule: students who attend less than 90 percent have a one-in-four chance of failing and a three-in-four chance of not obtaining grades in the top two bands (Newman-Ford et al., p.710).

Both Colby and Newman-Ford focused on attendance at lecture classes. Bevitt et al. (2010) conducted the first study of the effects of attendance on students in what they termed high-stakes classes (practicals and seminars, as opposed to lecture classes). Their findings supported the contention of Cleary-Holdforth (2007) in her study of nursing instruction, that the active and practical nature of the subject requires the development of particular skills, and therefore attendance is more important in smaller, practical classes than in lecture sessions. Bevitt's group found that students who attended high-stakes classes less than 90% of the time were "at least half as likely to achieve a 2.1 or 1st level mark, compared to their peers with 100% attendance." (Bevitt, Conclusions, 2.)

D.   Active Learning and Language Acquisition

For far too many decades, languages were taught using the grammar-translation method. Students were subjected to traditional grammar lectures on the correct formation of the pluperfect passive subjunctive, as well as written exercises requiring students to conjugate verbs to the point of absurdity. "I shall have been being told, you (sing.) will have been being told," and so on. This kind of teaching has been consigned—deservedly—to the dustbin of education, and it is now recognized that learning another language means active learning, such as practice of vocabulary, constructions, and speaking. For that reason language classes are usually small (25 or fewer students). Classes are active and participatory, and the teacher's goal is for the students to use the target language as much as possible. Ideally, the students speak more than the instructor, and the first language of the students is rarely, if ever, used. Instructors stress attendance for this reason and because language learning is also sequential. Students must be able to think, speak, listen and write, "Gina is musically inclined" before they can attempt, "If Gina were more musically inclined, she would appreciate the need to tune the dulcimer."

E.   Attendance and Learning Acquisition

Perhaps the obviousness of the importance of attendance at language classes accounts for the rarity of studies exploring the link between attendance and language acquisition. Hubbs-Tait (2002) reported a link between attendance at Head Start pre-school programs and a test of receptive vocabulary. Becker (2010) found that longer attendance (in months) at preschool had positive effects on German language development for Turkish immigrant children, but not for native German children, and more time spent in high quality preschools had positive effects on both groups. Lamdin (1994) found that better attendance in elementary schools in Baltimore was connected with higher reading and mathematics test scores. Condelli et al. (2002) found that regular attendance in adult ESL literacy programs resulted in improved reading comprehension and oral English skills. These studies all point in the same direction, but what is lacking is a detailed study of the extent to which absence from active-learning classes affects language learning.

F.   Determining the Attendance-mastery Link in Language Learning

A common feature of the wider-scope attendance studies is a lack of discrimination among the different vehicles by which students acquire mastery of the subject and how students are evaluated. Some of the commoner vehicles include attendance at classes, labs, lectures, practice sessions, tutoring, reading required and/or suggested materials, and using the internet, to name but a few. Usually, exams and other evaluation instruments measure what students have learned through all the vehicles, both text and non-text related. Accounting students, for example, may be given a multiple

choice test, or they may be given a problem nearly identical to one in their textbook and asked to work it. In the case of the latter, a student who did not attend class when that problem was covered can, by diligent working of the problem outside of class perform very well on that test item. But can that same performance be obtained by the language student? In other words, if a student does not attend the language class in which students learn and practice the third conditional, can he or she backshift the verb correctly to produce a sentence such as, "If I had received the scholarship, I would have gone to medical school" when it comes time to evaluate? When determining the importance of attending language class, the question must be, what is the effect of being physically present in the classroom when specific topics, both text and non-text, are presented? How does presence alone affect students' acquisition of mastery?

III. METHOD

A. Class Selection and Learning Activities

Obtaining the answer to the above question can only be obtained through several labor-intensive processes. First we selected classes whose active learning activities supported the class objectives. Second, where it was possible, we separated the material which was only available from class attendance from the material that could be mastered using outside-of-class resources (reading the book, for example). Third, daily attendance was taken by calling roll. And forth, after keeping records of class content, we evaluated students' learning. To avoid any mis-interpretation of student learning which might be caused by lucky guesses or the clever use of test-taking strategies, the test questions were carefully designed to elicit specific information or skill use, (short answer or short essay) as opposed to the selection of one option from a list of four or five possibilities. Fifth, attendance at individual class sessions and students' demonstrable knowledge of the material taught in those classes was compared and analyzed question by question.

B. Participants and Materials for the Historia Y Cultura Anglosajona (HCA) Class

We selected two courses for very careful record keeping. Both were courses taught by two of the authors at the Escuela de Inglés of Universidad Cathólica del Norte (hereafter UCN). All the students spoke Spanish as their first language. The first class, Historia y Cultura Anglosajona (HCA), was a content course which explores the cultural history of the BANA (Britian, Australia, North America) countries and the historical development of the English language. It was taught in English by a native English speaker to second-year university students in the English pedagogy program at UCN. These students were all enrolled in a four-year program to become licensed high school teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL) in UCN. They had all completed one year's intensive English study (24 credit hours of language instruction, plus eight credits of phonetics and eight more of English grammar). In language ability as rated by ALTE (the Association of Language Testers of Europe), and conforming to the Common European Framework, all the students had already attained at a minimum ALTE level of A2 going into the course. This level is defined as "ability to deal with simple, straightforward information and begin to express oneself in familiar contexts" (ALTE, 2008). In actual fact, however, some of the students began the English pedagogy program with a level of ALTE 3 or higher and were therefore more fluent than their classmates who had started their serious English study only a year earlier. It is more realistic to say that most of the students in the HCA course had attained ALTE level B1, described in terms of abilities as "can understand instructions on classes and instructions by a lecturer….can understand basic instructions and messages, for example computer library catalogues, with some help….can write down some information at a lecture, if this is more or less dictated" (ALTE, 2008).

The HCA course used a 600-page English language book and an equivalent amount of material was delivered in class. Students were tested on both the readings and the in-class material. Both sections of HCA met twice a week over a 15-week semester, each class lasting 90 minutes. In addition to quizzes over the assigned readings and student presentations on historical figures (all in English), students were evaluated by means of a mid-term and a final exam. These two exams constituted 40% of the final grade. Fifty students began the course. At the end of the semester final grades were recorded for 35 students, but some students, though they officially withdrew from the course, continued to attend, however sporadically, and took the exams. Exam data was collected for 43 students.

C. Participants and Materials for the English I Class

The second course selected for the study was English I, a first-semester course for undergraduate students studying in other programs at UCN. These students were required to take English in order to graduate. English 1 was a skills class (listening, speaking, reading and writing), taught by a native Spanish speaker with an ALTE 5 level (the highest level of the scale) of English. At the beginning of the class the students took a proficiency exam. Those who obtained a minimum score were exempted from the course. Therefore the English level of the students who were not exempted at the beginning of the semester was uniformly very low to non-existent. At the end of the course, the level of English of those who passed the course was ALTE 1a.

English 1 met two times per week during the 15-week semester, for 90 minutes each time. The class covered the first 11 of the 12 chapters of the textbook, an internationally recognized text aligned with the Common European Framework. The first five chapters were covered for the mid-term exam and chapters six through eleven for the final exam. During class the instructor conducted activities including listening, repetition, working in groups, reading and answering exercises, making sentences, re-ordering mixed-up sentences, grammar exercises, true or false activities, and

making predictions from photos. Students also had access to the book's student CD which includes practice materials and some of the conversations used for listening practice, and they were required to attend the language lab at least twice during the semester. Of the 28 students registered at the beginning of the course, five were exempted based on their exam scores. Three never came to class a single time. Twenty students completed the course. The data from these 20 were included in the analysis.

More information had to be collected and prepared. Both instructors took attendance every class by calling the roll. They also kept very detailed notes about what was done and what material was covered each class period.

D.   Specific Knowledge Exam Questions.

In order to evaluate how well the students had mastered the material, the exam questions needed to elicit specific knowledge; hence the instructors wrote tests consisting of short answer and short essay questions which required the students to provide the correct answer from what they had learned, without hints, associations, or a list of options from which to choose. Correct answers to exam questions were our only criterion for determining mastery. Examples from the HCA exams are below:

1. Explain how, in Chaucer's time, a boy could learn how to become a dyer of cloth and eventually be admitted to the guild.
2. In class we discussed four convictions which the Puritans had. Briefly describe two of them.
3. Explain the difference between colonialism and imperialism.
4. Define the term WASP.

Below are some questions from the English I exams:

Put the words in the correct order to form sentences.
1. cleans / She / bedroom / her / always
2. I / do / my / homework / have / always / after / I / dinner

Answer the following questions according to the text [provided on the exam paper].
1. What is the meaning of "TIP"?
2. When do you tip?

E.   Data Acquisition Methods

The date on which the material corresponding to the question was presented in class was noted on the teacher's copy of the exam. For the HCA class, it was also noted whether or not the information required to answer the question correctly was available from the required readings. These questions were omitted from the analysis. Only questions dealing with in-class material were counted in the analysis. Since English I class activities were strongly related to the textbook, such discrimination was not possible for the English I exams. After all the exams were corrected, we created Excel spreadsheets and recorded each student's results. We then listed each question by number. For each question we recorded the date on which the material corresponding to the question had been covered in class. Next we recorded whether the student had answered each exam question correctly (C) or wrongly (W). If a student was present on the day the material of the question was covered, the C or W was recorded in black, if the student was absent from that class, the C or W was recorded in red.

Once everything was recorded, we were left with two incomparable sets of data. For the HCA class, we eliminated all test questions whose answers could be found in the course reading material from the analysis. This left 35 HCA test questions (20 from the mid-term and 15 from the final). Forty-two students took the HCA mid-term, and 43 students took the HCA final. In the English 1 class, 20 students took the mid-term of 60 questions. Eighteen students took the final exam (2 students chose not to come to the test). The final exam consisted of 64 questions. All 124 questions covering both text and non-text material in the English I exams were included in the analysis.

IV.   RESULTS

A.   Data Tables from Examination Results

The results of the analysis are presented in the four tables below for both HCA and English I classes. For each class, there is one table for the mid-term and one for the finals. For each class, the initial analysis consisted of counting the number of correct (C) and wrong (W) responses for each exam question for both the present-students (P) and the absent-students (A). Recall that for the HCA course only the non-textbook questions were counted, whereas for the English I all questions were counted. For example, in Table 1 there were 245 wrong responses to all in-class exam questions by present-students and 71 wrong responses by absent -students. When it came to answering non-textbook questions correctly, however, there were 284 correct answers given by the P students, but only 28 correct answers given by the A students.

TABLE 1.
HISTORIA Y CULTURA ANGLOSAJONA MID-TERM

	C	W	C/W ratio	P/A
P	284	245	1.2	3.
A	28	71	0.4	-

TABLE 2
ENGLISH 1 MID-TERM

	C	W	C/W ratio	P/A
P	488	302	1.6	8
A	25	110	0.2	-

TABLE 3.
HISTORIA Y CULTURA ANGLOSAJONA FINAL

	C	W	C/W ratio	P/A
P	255	264	0.96	3
A	39	114	0.34	-

TABLE 4
ENGLISH 1 FINAL

	C	W	C/W ratio	P/A
P	360	168	2.1	7
A	40	133	0.3	-

Chi-squared analysis applied to each table shows there is a significant difference between the present- and absent-students' response distribution. The two sets of numbers were not randomly drawn from the same population. The second and third columns and the two rows form a 2x2 contingency table from which a chi-square value was computed. All the chi-square values for the four tables were in the low 20s with an associated $p<0.001$; hence there is less than a 1 in 1000 chance the numbers were drawn from the same population. At this point we argue that there is a significant difference in the responses of the present- and absent- students.

B.   Determination and Significance of the P/A Values

The data in the second, third, and fourth columns is incomparable since the table entries are dependent upon the number of students in each P and A group and on the number of exam questions. Comparison of the table values within one class or between classes is misleading. Therefore we needed an analysis to determine parameters on a per-student basis so the P and A group data could be compared in a meaningful fashion. We did so using the following scheme.

First, for each P and A group in a class, we calculated the C/W ratio, the ratio of correct (C) to wrong (W) responses, which is presented in the fourth column of each table. For example, for each P group, the C/W ratio is equivalent to the ratio of the number of correct responses by present students to the number of wrong responses by present students. The C/W ratio is independent of the number of students in the group. For the P in Table 1, the C/W ratio is 1.2 (284/245). Hence, for each wrong response there were 1.2 correct responses.

Second, to compare the numbers of responses between groups, we calculated the P/A fraction as shown in each table's second row and last column. The P/A fraction is the C/W ratio for the P group divided by the corresponding ratio of the A group. From Table 1, the P/A fraction is 3 (1.2/.4) which means a typical P group student obtained 3 times the number of correct responses compared to the typical A group student.

V.   DISCUSSION, P/A VALUES, AND LANGUAGE MASTERY

P/A Values for Each Class

These results allow us to conclude that attendance has a profound impact upon exam performance and mastery of the target language. Every time, students who were present performed better on test questions and demonstrated their knowledge and their language mastery better than those who were absent. We can also conclude that the nature of the course is also a factor in the importance of attendance. In the HCA course, a content course using the target language which also involved a greater amount of passive learning, present students were 3 times more likely to answer an exam question correctly than their class-skipping peers. In English I, where the class consisted almost exclusively of active learning, present students were 8 times more likely to answer correctly than absent students. It is clear that even a very few absences were detrimental to mastery in both courses, but more so in the active learning class. We also concluded that students in both courses who failed to attend classes did not recover the material they missed. This failure is more pronounced in the course with the greater amount of active learning.

VI.   IMPLICATIONS

Our conclusions have implications for the acquisition of language mastery, the evaluation and analysis of mastery, and attendance policies. Though the number of participants (63) in this study is comparatively small, the study is statistically significant and it demonstrates that students must attend all classes, or as many as possible, if they are to master the target language or learn course content which is not to be found in outside-of-class resources.

The strength of our results is due in large part to our use of labor-intensive methods of attendance monitoring (roll taking), exam construction (short answer & short essay) and marking, and data analysis. In order to obtain meaningful results, attendance must be taken accurately, whether that be calling roll attentively or by electronic means. Self-reporting, as Colby (2004) pointed out, is unreliable. Second, exam formats requiring students to answer questions

purely from of their own knowledge must be preferred to multiple-choice exams and their concomitant guess factor. Multiple-choice tests are much faster to mark, but our results from short answer or short essay questions give more precise student learning results than previous studies using multiple-choice exams. Lastly, it is only possible to determine the extent of the damage done by missing even a single class by the methods of comparing attendance (roll call)and proofs of mastery (correct exam answers).

VII. CONCLUSIONS

This study has demonstrated that students' absence from class seriously affects their acquisition of mastery of the material and of the target language. It also demonstrates that short answer and short essay test questions provide an excellent sampling of mastery. We believe that students should be made aware of the consequences of absenteeism, and that thus informed, will improve their attendance patterns voluntarily. We also hope that it will be considered by policy-makers, administrators and others responsible for implementing, changing, and monitoring attendance policies.

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Handling of Morpho-syntactic Learners Errors in Tanzanian English Language Classrooms

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Abstract—This paper examines issues related to morpho-syntactic errors among secondary school students in Tanzanian English Language Classrooms (ELCs). Specifically, the study assesses the corrective feedback techniques that teachers use to handle their students' morpho-syntactic errors (both written and spoken errors). The data reveal that a total of four Corrective Feedback techniques are commonly used in Tanzanian ELCs. These techniques include focused Corrective Feedback, direct Corrective Feedback, indirect Corrective Feedback and metalinguistic Corrective Feedback. On top of that, it was discovered that teachers prefer the use of indirect Corrective Feedback when they mark written assignments while explicit and recast are the most applied techniques in handling students' oral errors.

Index Terms—English language, learner's errors, corrective feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

Second language (hereafter L2) /foreign language (hereafter FL) learners' errors and their subsequent corrective feedback (hereafter CF) are among the major topics in the field of second language learning research. In general, researchers have been making efforts to discover how L2/FL learners' errors can be used by teachers to enhance their teaching. Some of the areas that have attracted the attention of researchers are; analysis of L2 students' errors (Darus and Subramaniam, 2009; Nzama, 2010), The role of correction on L2 learning (Semke, 1984; Fathman and Whalley, 1990; Kepner, 1991; Sheppard, 1992; Ferris, 1997; Polio et al., 1998; Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Hyland, 2003) and comparison of CF techniques in terms of effectiveness (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Sheen, 2007; Samar and Shayestefar, 2009; Rakimi and Dastjerdi, 2012).

Findings from these studies have sparked a debate on whether learners' errors and their subsequent corrections have any significance to L2/FL acquisition. Researchers like Semke (1984), Kepner (1991), Sheppard (1992) and Polio et al. (1998) reported against the idea that error correction facilitates L2/FL acquisition. However, more recent studies have shown the effectiveness of error correction. A number of researchers have used control groups and justify that error correction assists in the learning of L2/FL. Examples of such studies include Ashwell (2000), Ferris and Roberts (2001), Chandler (2003), Hyland (2003), Sheen (2007), and Murakami & Takashima (2008).

The findings that error correction has the role to play in L2/FL learning has changed the direction of studies such that, to many researchers, the issue is no longer whether CF should be done or not, but rather "how should it be done" (Herrera, 2011, p.11). To answer such a question, many studies to date are designed to assess the effectiveness of various CF techniques so as to identify which type of CF techniques is effective in treating various kinds of errors (Liu, 2008).

In Tanzania, English is taught as a subject in primary schools and a medium of instruction in secondary schools (hereafter SS). Like any other L2/FL learners, Tanzanian students commit errors in the course of learning English. Scholars in this field acknowledge that committing of errors among L2/FL learners is a natural phenomenon which indicates the developmental stage reached by a learner, and they (errors) require appropriate remedies to make the learner successful in his learning. From this ground, Corder (1967) argues that SL/FL learners' errors should be carefully analysed since they have some clues to the understanding of L2 learning process.

In spite of this truth, Ismail (2007) cited in Rubagumya (2010) reports on the painful experience that learners get when they commit errors in Tanzanian English language classrooms (hereafter ELCs). In her work, Ismail reports on the physical punishment that students receive from their teachers when they commit some errors in their assignments. Ismail's report has stimulated a desire to conduct this research in order to reveal the way such errors (particularly morpho-syntactic errors) are treated by English language teachers in secondary school level.

Types of L2/FL learners' errors

Categorising errors has not been an easy task. Scholars who have dared to classify L2/FL learners' errors differ in types of errors they provide. Thus it is a common phenomenon to find one scholar providing types of errors which are quite different from those provided by another. However, the existence of such disparities has its root in the criteria which are used to classify the errors. Scholars use different basis to classify L2/FL learners' errors, consequently types

of errors differ from one scholar to another. However this study is using the idea of Brown (1994) and Keshavarz (1999) quoted in Nayernia (2011) who categorise errors basing on language levels. On one hand, Brown (1994) groups errors into phonological errors, lexicon errors, grammatical errors, and discourse errors while on the other hand Keshavarz (1999) divides them into orthographic errors, phonological errors, lexicosemantic errors, and syntactico-morphological errors which is the concern of this study.

In his study on nature and factors for morpho-syntactic L2/FL learners' errors in Tanzanian secondary schools, Biseko (2012) identified seven types depending on their morpho-syntactic nature. The most common four types are, errors related to wrong use of verbs, subordination and coordination errors, pronoun errors and preposition errors while plural formation errors, errors in the use determiners, and double subject marking errors are the three less common errors among them.

Biseko (2012) also identified the possible factors for students' morpho-syntactic Errors in Tanzanian ELCs to be students' mother tongue, interference of Kiswahili, dialects, students are slow learners, lack of confidence, inadequate teachers for the subject, lack of teaching materials, difficulty of the language, incompetent teachers and government policies concerning English language programmes. However, the researcher identified seven factors which are considered to be the most causative of morpho-syntactic errors in ELCs. These factors include; interference of Kiswahili, inherent difficulties of English language (intra English transfer), inadequate exposure to the language use, incompetent models, poor implementation of the syllabus, neglecting of students' affective domain and disvaluing and maltreatment of learners' errors. Having known the nature and possible factors for morpho-syntactic L2/FL Learners' Errors in Tanzanian ELCs, this study presents the way those errors are handled.

II. AREA OF THE STUDY AND METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

The study was carried out in Dodoma region from November 2011 to March 2012. Dodoma is a centrally positioned administrative region in Tanzania and it lies between 4^0S -7^0S and 35^0E - 37^0E. The selection of Dodoma region as a site for this study based on one major factor and that is the social economic level of the region. According to the Economic Commission for Africa (2003) the region is grouped in the category of regions with average poverty in relation to other regions in the country. This implies that the social economic level of the region is average as well. Since the economy of the place affects the provision of education, no doubt that this region with average economy is a good case study whose results can be generalised and provide a real picture for the whole country.

Nine schools were randomly selected from three districts which are Dodoma municipal, Mpwapwa and Bahi. A form three class was purposely selected to represent all forms in (o-level) secondary schools. Students of this class were involved in the study because they are considered to have been exposed to the language for two years since they joined a secondary school level. It is assumed therefore, that a period of two years is enough for such students to get some exposure to the language. This exposure would have pushed them to a higher stage of inter-language journey, something that would make them fit for the study. Form four and form two students were thought unfit for the study since the two classes do have national examinations hence are always busy with preparations. Moreover, form one students were excluded from the study due to the fact that their one year experience of using the language in this level would be not yet enough for the study. A total of fifty four (54) students were involved in this study, six (three boys and three girls) from each school.

Apart from secondary school (form III) students, the study involved twenty TTC diploma trainees. These are students who are trained to be future teachers in secondary schools after a two years course of study in these colleges. Mpwapwa TTC and Capital TTC are two colleges from Dodoma region from which diploma trainees were sampled ten from each college. These were in a second year of study taking English methodology as one of their subject. Moreover, these TTC trainees had gone for their teaching practice for some weeks.

Nine secondary school teachers of English language (one from each secondary school) were involved in this study all being professional trained teachers and most of them with an experience of more than five years at work. The following is a summarised table for the study sample.

TABLE 1:
A SUMMARIZED TABLE FOR THE STUDY'S SAMPLE

Participants	Level	Males	Females	Total
Students	Secondary -Form III	27	27	54
Teachers	Diploma & Degree	5	4	9
TTC Trainees	Diploma to be	10	10	20
Total		**42**	**41**	**83**

Three techniques were used in examining the extent to which English language teachers paid attention to morpho-syntactic errors which were committed by students. Documentation was designed to gather information associated teachers CF techniques to correct errors committed by students in their written assignments while observation was employed to collect data connected to teachers CF techniques for students' spoken errors. Moreover questionnaire technique was used to inquire information that confirms from teachers, students and teacher trainees what has been observed in the classroom sessions and what has been documented from students' exercise books.

Through documentation the researchers cross checked English exercise books from students being guided by the following variables:

(a) To examine whether students used to make correction in each errors committed specifically morpho-syntactic written errors

(b) To examine whether teachers used to insist their students to make correction

(c) To examine whether teachers used to mark students' daily activities

(d) To examine the correction techniques that teachers used when correcting their students' works.

Through classroom observation the researchers observed the teaching procedure and the CF techniques used by teachers to handle all committed morpho-syntactic oral errors also guided by the following variables.

(a) Teachers' attitudes and reaction towards these errors

(b) Corrective feedback techniques used by teachers to correct students' errors

(c) To examine whether teachers correct all errors in the session

(d) To examine whether teachers treat an error committed by a learner as individual problem or the class problem.

All teachers CF techniques both from students' written assignments and spoken errors were collected and were categorized and analysed depending on their similarities.
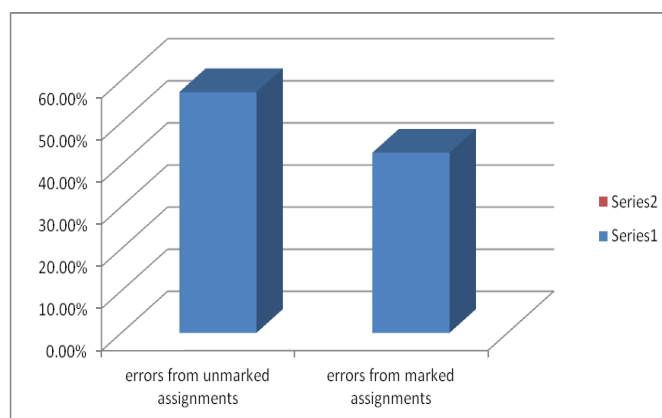
III. HANDLING OF LEARNERS' ERRORS IN ELCs

The way L2/FL learners' errors are handled can have either constructive or detrimental effect to the learning of the TGL. It is obvious that good treatment of learners' errors heals students' deficiencies while poor treatment makes the condition worse. This section presents the findings on corrective feedback techniques used by teachers in handling students' errors in Tanzania. The presentation is divided into two parts namely; handling of written errors and handling of oral errors.

A. Handling of Written Errors

Studies have reported that some sorts of meaningful explanation of learners' errors conducted in a non threatening environment lead to improvement of language development (Makino, 1993; and Samar & Shayestefar, 2009). Moreover, studies have reported that language learners feel the need to be corrected when they commit errors (Makino, 1993). This argument is supported by the findings of the present study whose data indicate that 38 (70.4%) out of 54 (100%) students in the sample showed that they like their errors to be corrected.

Though students' feelings and previous studies show the need for CF to learners' errors, the findings for the present study reveal that teachers do not mark all the assignments that they provide to their students. Using a documentation technique of data collection, researchers witnessed that English language teachers of some schools had not marked students' works for almost two months. Moreover, in the other schools in the sample, it was found that teachers were not committed to marking of students' works. Therefore, it was common to find that some assignments were marked and others not. Consequently, out of 486 written errors collected in the field, it was only 208 errors equal to 42.8% which were collected from the marked assignments. This implies that more than half of the written errors (57.2%) were collected from unmarked assignments as depicted below.

Graph 1: Teachers' Commitment in Marking Students' Assignments

The statistics above implies that a good number of learners' errors in ELCs are not noticed at all and for that matter no repair is done for them. The disadvantage of this is that students do not notice the gap between what they produce and what they are required to produce. That being the case, students are likely to commit the same errors in other assignments including examinations. Moreover, failure to notice learners' errors inhibit teachers from understanding of the common errors that face their students and consequently, teachers fail to provide meaningful assistance to their students since they know nothing or little about learners' errors.

A number of reasons can be provided by teachers as to why they do not mark all the assignments they provide to their students. However, the data collected in the field show that teachers' ignorance can be the most contributing factor. This claim bases on teachers' responses to a question (from questionnaire) which required them to mention the significance of learners' errors to the teacher. Out of nine SS teachers involved in this study, only four teachers equal to (44.4%) were able to mention and the rest five teachers (55.6%) were not aware of any significance. Three teachers out of those five provided no answer to this question while two teachers admitted to know nothing.

Common CF Techniques in ELCs in Tanzania

In his article 'a typology of written corrective feedback types', Ellis (2009) provides six categories of CF techniques which are used by teachers in written assignments. In this typology, the six identified techniques include; direct CF, indirect CF, metalinguistic CF, focused/unfocused CF, electronic CF and reformulation CF. On the other hand, several studies have attempted to compare the effectiveness of these types of CF so as to suggest the most suitable one. Sheen (2007) identifies some of these studies as Lalande (1982), Robb et al. (1986) and Fazio (2001). However, the absolute superiority of one CF technique over the other is still a contentious issue and for that matter, teachers should be wise enough to select the technique that is capable to facilitate a learning process. To achieve this task, teachers are required to consider factors like students' motivation, attitude, anxiety level, willingness to take risk, age, and pre-requisite knowledge.

The data for the present study show that a total of four CF techniques are commonly used in Tanzanian ELCs. These techniques include focused CF, direct CF, indirect CF and metalinguistic CF. In all cases, focused CF technique is not used in isolation of other types mentioned. Using focused corrective technique, teachers tend to select specific error types for correction. Normally, the objective of the lesson guides teachers to specific CF. It was discovered in this study that focused CF dominated unfocused CF in ELCs because each sub-topic in the syllabus is intended to achieve a certain pattern/structure. Therefore, whenever teaching, a teacher has a pattern/structure he needs to achieve and it is this pattern/structure which he focuses to when marking.

Focused CF as it is used in Tanzanian ELCs is not a bad technique of providing feedback to students. Different predictions have been made with respect to the relative effectiveness of focused and unfocused CF. Ellis et al. (2008) cited in Beuningen (2010) for example, claimed that there are theoretical reasons for expecting the focused approach to be more beneficial to accuracy development than unfocused CF. They stated that learners are more likely to notice and understand corrections when they target a specific error type(s). The idea that noticing and understanding are essential for acquisition by Schmidt (1990) led Ellis et al. (2008) to conclude that focused CF has greater potential to impact accuracy development. Furthermore, Sheen (2007) and Bitchener (2008) cited in Beuningen (2010) argued that unfocused CF may not be the most effective correction method because L2 learners have a limited processing capacity. They claimed that asking learners to deal with CF which targets a broad range of linguistic features at the same time might produce a cognitive overload, and prohibit feedback processing.

Focused CF was not used in isolation but the technique was paired with other three CF types as identified above. A direct CF was carried through ways like; crossing the erroneous form and write the correct one near the crossed form, and inserting of the omitted words/ morphemes. Indirect CF was carried through strategies like; crossing the erroneous forms without giving the alternative, circling of the erroneous forms, underlining of the erroneous forms, and the use of the cursor to show omission but without giving the correct form. Lastly, metalinguistic CF was carried through providing some comments (e.g. ww = wrong word; art =article) to learners' errors. Table 2 below shows the distribution of these three CF techniques in ELCs.

TABLE 2:
DISTRIBUTION OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TECHNIQUES IN ELCS

Type of corrective feedback	Frequency	Percentage
Indirect	130	62
Direct	50	24%
Metalinguistics	28	13.5%
TOTAL	**208**	**100%**

The statistics above show that, out of 208 written errors which were collected from the marked assignments, 62.5% had been marked using indirect CF. This suggests that these 130 (62.5%) errors were marked without indicating the correct form but rather by using some cues to show that there is an error in students' works. On the other hand 24% were marked using a direct CF and 13.5% metalinguistic CF. It is important to note that both indirect CF and metalinguistic CF provide no correct form to students instead, the two CF techniques provide cues to show that something is wrong and students are required to make self repair. Therefore, out of the three techniques in the table, it is only direct CF which supplies a correct form for erroneous structure.

It is interesting that teachers in Tanzanian ELCs prefer indirect corrective feedback to other types. This implies that students are given an opportunity to make reflection on their errors. This type CF is mentioned in some literatures as the best way of pushing students into both self meditation and repair, thus strengthening their comprehension on the matter.

Beuningen (2010) supports this conclusion when she asserts that, the superiority of indirect approach lies on the fact that it requires learners to engage in a self problem solving, as a result they promote a long-term acquisition. Moreover, Ferris (2002) cited in Sheen (2007) insists that indirect CF is more beneficial than direct correction because it pushes

learners to engage in hypothesis testing, thereby inducing deeper internal processing which helps them to internalise the correct forms.

Although teachers use CF techniques which allow students to make reflection on their errors and eventually self correction, it is discouraging to find that teachers do not make follow up to see whether students work upon the CF provided. In a documentation exercise, it was discovered that most students rarely do corrections for the previously committed errors. These students are free to write new assignments and submit it to their teachers who in turn mark the assignments without asking about the corrections for the previous errors. Moreover, it is discovered that even those corrections written by students are rarely marked. This observation was confirmed through students' responses to two questions below as they appeared in their questionnaire.

TABLE 3:
THE STATUS OF ERROR CORRECTION IN ELCs

Questions	Answers							
	Yes		No		Sometimes		Total	
	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Do you make corrections after teachers' feedback?	12	22.2	6	11.1	36	66.7	54	100
Does your teacher mark the corrections?	6	11.1	4	7.4	44	81.5	54	100

Note: *f* = frequency

The findings in this table imply that teachers' emphasis on error correction is very low. This teachers' behaviour (of not emphasising) has some disadvantages in the learning of their students. One of these disadvantages is that, nothing will push students to make reflection on their errors and that being the case; students fail to notice the gap between what they produce and what they are required to produce. Generally, indirect CF requires teachers' follow up so as to make sure that students correct their errors immediately after the corrective feedback has been provided by the teacher. This is to say, although teachers in ELCs seem to prefer indirect CF to others, they lower the effectiveness of this technique through their failure to comply with the requirement of the technique.

B. Handling of Oral Errors

As discussed above, the information on handling spoken errors was gathered through researchers having an opportunity to witness the way teaching and learning process is carried in ELCs. Throughout observation, the researchers kept on noting the committed oral errors as well as teachers' reaction towards those errors. Below are observational results of teachers' treatment of oral errors and they are presented in table 4 basing on the taxonomy for corrective feedback techniques by Lyster and Ranta (1997).

TABLE 4:
DISTRIBUTION OF ORAL CF TECHNIQUES IN ELCs

Types of CF	Frequency	Percentage
explicit	38	35.8%
recast	28	26.4%
clarification request	17	16.0%
metalinguistic feedback	11	10.4%
elicitation	03	2.8%
repetition	03	2.8%
not reacted upon	06	5.7%
Total	**106**	**99.9% ≈ 100**

As shown in table 4 above, explicit CF (35.8%) is the most applied technique in handling oral errors in ELCs. Explicit CF is followed by recast CF which makes (26.4%) of teachers' feedback turns towards learners' oral errors in ELCs. The two techniques comprise more than half of the CF applied by teachers in ELCs. However, neither explicit nor recast provides opportunities to students to reformulate their utterances whenever they commit errors since the reformulation of erroneous sentences is provided by teachers. Therefore these two types of CF do not expose students to a reflection of their erroneous utterances but rather students blindly repeat the teacher's reformulated utterances (Beleghizadeh & Abdi, 2010).

Apart from explicit and recast, the uses of other CF techniques are too limited in spite of their usefulness in language teaching. Clarification request, elicitation and repetition are good techniques in terms of giving learners opportunities for making reflection and reformulate their prior erroneous utterances. Despite this strength, their application in ELCs is either disvalued or ignored. Below, graph 2 provides a pictorial representation of the application of various CF techniques in English language classrooms (ELCs).
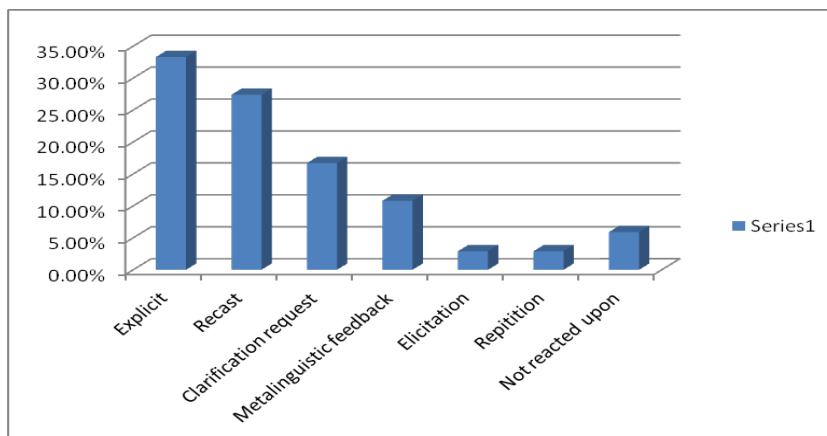
Graph 2: A Pictorial Discrepancies of Oral CF Techniques in ELCs

The observation findings in table 4 above are supported by teachers' responses to a question in appendix V. The question required them to explain their preferences for the techniques which they always use to handle learners' oral errors. The answers in table 5 below were provided for the question.

TABLE 5:
SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS' PREFERENCE FOR ORAL CF TECHNIQUES

Answers	Type of CF	f	%
• I always reform the sentence and ask them to repeat after me	Explicit	3	33.3
• I always ask them to repeat the sentence	Clarification	1	11.1
• I reformulate the sentence by myself (they did not say if they allow students to repeat the utterance after them)	Recast	3	33.3
• No answer	–	2	22.2
Total	–	9	99.9 ≈ 100

Note: f = frequency

From table 5 above, teachers' answers justify that both explicit and recast are mostly preferred to other techniques. Basing on these answers, the two techniques together make a total of 66.6% of all techniques for handling oral errors. This figure shows significantly how the uses of other techniques in ELCs are limited. On the other hand explicit technique emerged as the leading and the most preferred by TTC's trainees (diploma in education students). Answering the question which required them to explain the way they handled oral errors in their teaching practice, 35% of them showed their preference to explicit technique. Table 6 below shows TTC trainees' preference for corrective feedback techniques for oral errors.

TABLE 6:
TTC TRAINEES' PREFERENCE FOR ORAL CF TECHNIQUES

Answers	Type of CF	f	%
• I used to reform the sentences and ask them to repeat after me	Explicit	7	35
• I corrected them by uttering the correct form	Recast	3	15
• I asked them to repeat the sentence	Clarification	2	10
• I used to guide them to identify their errors (but did not say how?)	–	1	5
• I identified the error and ask them to correct	Metalinguistic	2	10
• I do not remember	–	3	15
• No answer	–	2	10
Total	–		20	100

From the presentation above, it is unfortunate that teachers in ELCs prefer CF techniques which hardly enable students to notice errors in the utterance they make. Consider the following interaction between a teacher versus his students in B1secondary school.
Teacher: Who else can make the sentence using this structure?
Teacher: Maria, stand up!
Student: Despite Juma is intelligent he failed his examination
Teacher: (providing a recast feedback) Despite Juma's intelligence he failed his examination. Another sentence....... Aisha (he allowed Aisha to stand up and make another sentence).
The teacher in the above example provided a recast CF to a student's sentence in order to repair the student's erroneous sentence which had some errors in the underlined part. However, the way a teacher presented the corrected version was as if he was just repeating the student's utterance. Indeed, it required someone who had enough knowledge on the structure to recognise that a teacher made a modification to a student's sentence. Such kinds of CF are worthy for

nothing in the sense that, the goal of CF is to let students improve their weaknesses but here teachers use CF which do not achieve the intended goal. Nicholous et al. (2001) report the same observation when he asserts that 'in their study Lyster and Ranta (1997) found that teachers often continued with their turn after recasting the students' utterance without waiting for students' response to the feedback'.

Although CF techniques like clarification request, metalinguistic feedback elicitation and repetition seem to be ignored in ELCs, findings form previously conducted research indicate that such CF techniques are the best in facilitating students' uptake and noticing of the knowledge gap. This conclusion is true since the role of teachers in these types of CF is not to give out the correct versions of students' erroneous utterances, but rather to facilitate students to recognise and correct their faults by themselves.

Carroll and Swain (1993) investigated the effects of different feedback techniques on L2 learners' ability and found that the group that received metalinguistic explanation were able to attain a long-term memory (Baleghizadeh et.al, 2010). Again, both Nicholous et al. (2001) and Samar & Shayestefar (2009) report that Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified the students' uptake in respect of the teachers' feedback and they found that recast resulted in less uptake than other types, while elicitation and clarification were more promoting. In a similar vein, Lochtman (2002) cited in Samar & Shayestefar (2009) points out a higher frequency of No-uptake after recasts but finds metalinguistic and elicitation feedback useful in leading to successful uptake. Another evidence comes from Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012) who report on one experimental research which investigated the effect of recast and metalinguistic CF on the acquisition of the past tense –ed form in a normal classroom situation to ESL learners. The overall results showed that metalinguistic CF group performed better than recast CF group.

The discussion above has shown teachers' preference to some CF over others. However, it is astonishing to find that most teachers do not use pedagogical criteria to select the type of CF they are using in their teaching. This was revealed by both secondary school English language teachers and T.T.C trainees when they were answering a question which required them to explain why they handle students' oral errors the way they do. Table 7 below presents their answers.

TABLE 7:
REASONS BEHIND THE SELECTION OF ORAL CF

Respondents	Reasons for selection of a CF	f	%	
SS Teachers	This is the way many teachers do	3	33.3	
	It is a simple way of providing feedback	1	11.1	
	This CF does not require much time	1	11.1	
	This is the way I know	2	22.2	
	This type of CF promotes students' uptake	1	11.1	
	It is enjoyed by students	1	11.1	
	TOTAL	9	99.9≈ 100	
Respondents	Reasons for selection of a CF	f	%	
TTC trainees	This CF is simple to handle	4	20	
	It consumes no time	5	25	
	It promotes students' understanding	2	10	
	It is common among many teachers	5	25	
	It is the technique I know	1	5	
	That is how I was taught	2	10	
	This technique is easier than others	1	5	
	TOTAL	20	100	

Table 7 shows that, it is one SS teacher who answered that 'this type of CF promotes students' uptake'. This finding implies that, there are only few teachers who provide CF basing on the academic benefit of the technique to their students. It is only this single reason equal to 11.1% that seems to conform to pedagogical principles. In contrast, the rest of the reasons which were provided by teachers (almost 88.9%) seem to base on; experience (e.g. this is the way many teachers do), teachers' need to simplify their task (e.g. this is simple to handle; the technique does not consume time), and ignorance (e.g. this is the way I know). The same situation happened to TTC trainees whereby out of 20 participants, only two of them (equal to 10%) provided the answer which conform to pedagogical principles. These two TTC trainees were of the view that, the reason behind the selection of CF techniques during their teaching practice was the belief that the techniques were good for promoting students' understanding. In contrast to these two, the rest 18 equal to 90% seem to have selected CF in their teaching practice basing on experience; need to simplify the work and ignorance.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper has attempted to assess the techniques that are used by English language teachers in handling students' morpho-syntactic errors in Tanzania particularly Dodoma region. Through observation in the classroom during teaching session, documenting how teachers handled errors in students written assignments and through letting teachers respond to some questions four important things are discovered as far as teachers' CF techniques are concerned, there are four important findings to note. The first one is that teachers are not committed in marking students' assignments and for that matter many students' assignments are not marked. This situation affects both students and teachers in the way that, students fail to understand whether what they write is right or not and for that matter there is a danger to understand

things in a wrong way. Teachers are affected in the way that, they fail to notice and understand the common language problems that face their students and for that matter, they cannot assist their students effectively. The second finding is that, most of the CF techniques which are used by teachers in ELCs are not pedagogically effective to treat students' errors. The third finding; many teachers select the CF to use in classrooms basing on either experience or the need to simplify their work and not the pedagogical requirements. The last finding is that teachers are blamed for not insisting their students to work upon their teachers' corrective feedback. This teachers' relaxation, has cultivated in students the behaviour of not writing corrections for the errors.

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Impact of Studying Foreign Language Preparation Class on Academic Achievement in Turkish Public and Private Selective Schools

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Abstract—Language preparation classes are an important way of teaching a foreign language with a one-year intensive program. However, they are also criticized for delaying academic studies of students. Preparation classes were also a widespread application in Turkey, where many thousands attended for one year at the start of their high school education. Science high schools in Turkey get the highest achieving students in statewide university entrance exam. Science high school students were divided into school two groups after High School Entrance Examination, and one group (1692) studied one-year language preparation and the other (1333) started their academic school year direct. Correlations and means between their HSEE entrance scores and University Entrance Exam (UEE) scores were compared to see whether there was a difference in achievement at the end of high school between the two groups. Significance of difference between correlations was calculated with Fisher's z test and significance of the difference between means was calculated by independent samples t test. Analyses showed the group that studied one-year preparation class had lower correlations between their HSEE and UEE scores. As for the differences between means, although 2005 group had higher scores compared to the other group in the beginning, this difference decreased at the national university entrance exam conducted after four years of high school study.

Index Terms—science high school, language preparation class, academic achievement, Z scores

I. INTRODUCTION

Because of the benefits it brings, many countries including Turkey have emphasized teaching a foreign language to its students. In a study by Thomas, Collier and Abbot (1993) comparing students participating in the (language) immersion program and the comparable group, language immersion program students scored at least as well as, and to some extent better than, students who were not in the program. It was the same for the mathematics test and immersion program students outperformed comparison group after two years of immersion program participation (Thomas et al., 1993).

A study by Hernandez (2007) attributed low achievement of minority Hispanics in the United States not to English, language other than their native language, but to students' socio-economic status (Hernandez, 2007). Genesee (2004) indicated that second language did not impair first language. Learning a foreign language did not decrease academic achievement in native language (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991). To the extent that overall GPA may be a global measure of native-language aptitude, the finding that overall academic achievement is the best predictor of foreign-language achievement is consistent with Sparks and Ganschow (Sparks and Ganschow, 1991, 1993a, 1993b).

There is plenty of evidence showing studying a foreign language benefits learners' academic achievement (Curtain & Pesola, 1994; Bankston and Zhou, 1995; Collier 1992; Armstrong and Rogers, 1997; Taylor-Ward 2003; Chow, 2004), brain development (Dumas, 1999), reading development (Garfinkel & Tabor, 1991; Taguchi, Takayasu-Maass & Gorsuch, 2004), cognitive development (Lee, 1996; Genesee, and Cloud,1998; Lee, 1996) and higher levels of executive control (Bialystok, Craik & Freedman, 2007). Adesope, Olusola, Lavin, Thompson, & Ungerleider, (2010) analysed 63 studies after carefully screening 154 articles about bilingualism and cognition. All the outcome measures produced statistically detectable mean effect sizes in favor of bilingualism associated with cognitive outcomes (Adesope et al. 2010). A cognitive variable [academic achievement] explained the greatest proportion of the variance in foreign language achievement (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 2000).

Bialystok, Craik, Klein, and Viswanathan (2004) found that lifetime bilinguals are more resistant to age-related losses of certain cognitive abilities than monolinguals and the age of dementia onset for the bilinguals was 4 years later than it was for the monolinguals. Kotik-Friedgut identified SLA variables that influence the recovery of bilingual brains from traumas (2001). Schwartz mentioned switching to second language when native language speaking was impaired (Schwartz, 1994). Kim et al. showed brain activities for native language and second languages were different (Kim et al., 1997). They had findings consistent with distinct roles for the anterior and posterior language areas in the processing of human language. Sheng, McGregor & Marian found bilingualism may enhance paradigmatic organization of the semantic lexicon in two (native and second) languages (Sheng, McGregor & Marian, 2006). Knowing a foreign language also helps learn another language (Abu-Rabia & Sanitsky, 2010).

Now that there is no doubt about benefit of knowing a foreign language, the question of how and when to teach it arises. Many start at very early ages, some start at primary school and some at middle schools. But, for some it has to be delayed until high school or university studies as is evident in university language preparatory schools.

Foreign language at high school

Teaching a foreign language at high schools is a widespread practice all over the world. Yet, styles vary as regards the type of education given. Some countries give extensive one-year foreign language education, whereas others prefer to embed it into the curriculum.

According to the regulations of Ministry of National Education among the five basic aims of science high schools is to provide students with a foreign language that will help them make scientific researches and follow scientific and technological developments (Ministry of National Education, 1999). In preparation classes, other lessons did not have effect on passing the class. If the student was not successful in language, he/she repeated the class for one more year (Ministry of National Education, 1999). Education period in the high schools concerned was 3 years after preparation class. As of 2006, the regulation was changed and these schools were turned into 4-year-schools, incorporating language learning into the curriculum.

Until 1997 preparation classes were devised to be held just after 5 year primary school education. A central entrance examination was held by the Ministry of National Education in order to select students after 5-year primary school education. Those students were exposed to a one-year preparatory class that includes intense foreign language lessons followed by three years of middle school foreign-language medium education. With the start of 8-year compulsory education, after 1997, the preparatory year was replaced between 8 year primary education and secondary education. This however affected language learning in Turkish schools.

Although language learning was supposed to start at 4th grade, even students of selective schools began to learn a foreign language (predominantly English) after the age of 14, which was evident with the application of preparation year before secondary schools. High school education was extended from three to four years and the application of preparatory year was terminated with law 184, beginning with 2005-2006 academic year, (Tebliğler Dergisi, 2005). High schools with preparation classes had 24-hour English lessons besides having other lessons. Among those lessons were Turkish and physical education. Science high schools taught 20 hours English and 4 hours of secondary foreign language at preparation classes (Soner, 2007)

The system was changed on the grounds that preparation year was not accepted as a class. Besides, it was claimed that research conducted with students, parents, English teachers, and guidance counselors revealed that preparatory year should be finalized because being educated on a foreign language intensively takes students away from other lessons and causes adaptation problems to other lessons in the following years (Kefeli, 2008).

In a study carried out by Kefeli parents of students from high schools who studied preparation class and parents of those did not were interviewed. Families of students from preparation classes said they were advantaged in passing preparation classes at universities. Similarly those who studied preparation classes were said to be better achievers in foreign language (English) and didn't have to spare more time for learning English (Kefeli, 2008). On the other hand, some saw the preparation 'a time to rest', which was also uttered by students of preparation classes in personal interviews.

There is significant difference between studying and not studying a preparatory class at high school and foreign language readiness. There is significant difference between studying at a preparatory class and skipping it as regards foreign language achievement (Özdemir & Ünal, 2008). In a study covering a sample of 81 students, students graduating from foreign language oriented high schools were more successful in language learning than those who were not (Aydın, 2006).

The strongest predictor of a school's academic performance was the socioeconomic status of students, followed by the foreign language enrollment, and the number of ELLs in a school. A school's academic performance as measured by the API used in California was significantly correlated with the percentage of students enrolled in foreign language classes (Sung, Padilla & Silva, 2006). However, foreign language appears to be more of a result in this case than a cause, since high achieving schools emphasize foreign language as reflected by the high socioeconomic status and more foreign origin language teachers.

On the other hand, there is also considerable negative attitude towards teaching in a foreign language, which is supported by some evidence. No matter how good they are at foreign language in terms of grammar and vocabulary, language competence in a foreign language may be a handicap while expressing their own ideas for students (Kocakulah, Ustunluoglu & Kocakulah, 2005). The quantitative and qualitative findings indicate that students who studied "the Energy Unit" in the native language were capable of giving more scientifically acceptable explanations than those who studied in a foreign language (Kocakulah, Ustunluoglu & Kocakulah, 2005). Johnstone and Selepeng (2001) indicated that students who learn science in a second language lose at least 20 percent of their capacity to reason and understand the process (Johnstone & Selepeng, 2001).

Foreign language preparation classes in Turkey

In Turkey, national education policies have greatly been influenced by governments of the respective times. Sometimes it has been influenced by nationalism, at other times it has been decided by internationalism. Turkey is among the countries where a language other than Turkish is considered a foreign language. Constitution of Turkey

allows for only Turkish as official language and no western language is spoken by the public. That is, English is a foreign language in Turkey. Even if Turkish is the national language of education, English gets hold of a non-official status in Turkey and it adopts a crucial place in every educational institution (Kefeli, 2008).

However, survey findings revealed the communicative language teaching proposed by the MoNE did not seem to have the expected impact on teachers' classroom practices because classroom activities were largely based on traditional methods of teaching (Kırkgöz, 2007). In a study carried out by Ergüder (2005) students at high school language preparation classes had similar problems (Ergüder, 2005). One reason for students' failure to learn may be that they do not feel the need of the English language in their daily life yet, and they delay learning the English language until adulthood when they become to be forced to learn English due to, say, professional needs (Karahan, 2007). Yet parents of the students do not favour abolishing preparatory school year on the grounds (that) their sons or daughters will not be able to learn a foreign language.

Another point to make is when student studying preparation class at high school enter preparation classes at universities they are less motivated to study than those who did not study preparation class at high school (Madran, 2006). Evidence from university preparation English language classes showed students from high schools that taught more English did not have more positive attitude towards English language classes compared to general high school students, who get very little English language education (Ertan, 2008).

Selective high schools and national exams

Turkish selective schools get their students via nationally (officially held) recognized nationwide exams. High School Entrance Exam (HSEE) is an exam with four subtests (Turkish, Social Sciences, Natural Sciences and Mathematics). About a million students enter these exams and students are placed according to their scores and preferences of the type and place of the high school. This type of selection clears the problem of equity met elsewhere such as in the UK where there is potential for discrimination and inequity (Coldron, Willis & Wolstenholme, 2009). The best selective schools can mainly be grouped into four school types. In the first place are social sciences high schools, the number of which is only 31 as of 2012 (Uysal, 2012). Most of the highest scoring students enter science high schools, which enroll about 6000 students. There are also teacher training schools whose number reached 298 in the year 2011-2012. Then, come Anatolian high schools enrolling the highest number of selected students around the country and therefore with the lowest scores among the best school types. All of the science high schools prepare their students for university entrance exam, without which science high school education is almost useless. University Entrance Exam (UEE) of Turkey is the sole medium to enter a university except for some arts colleges. UEE is a compulsory exam taken yearly by all graduates of high schools, and anyone who has finished a high school can enter these exams.

There is almost no study regarding science high schools and language although there is abundance of studies regarding Anatolian high schools. Nor is there any adequate research on preferring or disapproving the application of the preparatory year. Therefore, the requirement to fill the gap of the research related to the current program and termination of the preparatory year application is needed to be satisfied (Kefeli, 2005). This study sheds the first light on science high schools, language classes and their academic achievement at the same time.

II. METHOD

Participants

This study included 3025 students who enrolled in science high schools from among the successful 105.000 students – the exam was taken by 917.000 eight-grade students – after taking HSEE (High School Entrance Exam), a statewide exam conducted by the Ministry of National Education. These highest achieving students were divided by school administrations into two groups so that a group studied foreign language preparation classes for one year and the other group started 9th class direct, a sign that shows the confusion about the relationship between preparation classes and academic achievement. Even if this division did not stem from an experimental design, it served to test the difference between two groups.

Since HSEE is the only exam that can be taken to enter selective schools, students taking HSEE are motivated enough, a factor positively influencing the reliability of the exam. The exam is prepared by the sole state authority that prepares the test according to the curriculum, which considerably ensures the validity of the exam. A student enters these exams only once, at 8th grade.

University entrance exams (UEE) are statewide standard exams compulsory to enter higher education. They have the highest reliability coefficients and they are completely content-based even if there are occurrences of items (1 or 2 in a total of 120 questions) outside the curriculum. Both UEE tests (2005 and 2006) are taken very seriously as both are used to place students in their respective educational institutions and they are the only means for placement as Turkey is a country where placement is made by the hand of the state. Both tests are based on the curriculum determined by the Ministry of National Education.

Procedure

UEE-2005 and the UEE-2006 are independent of each other and means and standard deviations of both exams for all the population were retrieved from the official site of the governmental institution administering the exam. Both exam had four subtests testing the same curriculum. The test of 2002 HSEE consisted of four subtests each consisting of 25 questions comprising of a total of 100 questions. All 3025 students took the same HSEE exam in 2002.

First, scores of students who gained a place at high schools were gathered and then these scores were matched with scores of university entrance examination results of the same students. 1333 of these data matched and then the same high school entrance exam (HSEE) scores were matched with university entrance examination of 2006. 1692 of these data matched with HSEE data using the variable that differentiated between the students who entered for the first time and others who entered more than once. Later, descriptive statistics for both groups were determined. There was difference between the means of two groups due to different number of questions. Because students took different tests one earlier year and the following year, scores were turned to z scores, which standardize scores and distributes students according to others. As around one and a half million students take the test each year, turning into z scores distributed individuals in the two groups perfectly. Then, significance of difference between the z scores of two groups was calculated with independent samples t-test. Other than this, results of 2002 high schools entrance exam and 2005 and 2006 university entrance exam results were correlated for both groups. Significance of difference between correlations was calculated using Fisher's Z test. There was no missing data.

III. RESULTS

First, descriptive statistics and then correlations and differences in means were calculated.

TABLE 1.
TEST MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR COMPLETE GROUPS

UEE 2005	Mean	Total	Std. Dev.	UEE 2006	Mean	Total	Std. Dev.
Turkish	20,2	45	12,5	Turkish	14,7	30	7,2
Social sciences	11,3	45	11,0	Social sciences	12,3	30	7,3
Mathematics	7,5	45	11,5	Mathematics	8,5	30	8,4
Natural sciences	3,9	45	9,6	Natural sciences	2,7	30	5,6

Correlations between the HSEE tests and UEE tests

TABLE 2.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN THE HSEE AND UEE-2005 AND UEE-2006.

HSEE Tests	2005 Turkish	2006 Turkish	2005 Math	2006 Math	2005 Soc. Sci.	2006 Soc. Sci.	2005 Nat. Sci.	2006 Nat. Sci.
Turkish	,421	,313						
Mathematics			,662	,534				
Soc. Sci.					,487	,403		
Nat. Sci							,629	,490

*p<.001
2005 N=1333
2006 N=1692

After correlations were calculated using SPSS 15, significance of difference between these correlations was sought. SE was computed to be 0,03816. Z value for the difference between correlations of Turkish tests was 3,197, much larger than 2,58 cutoff point for significance at the .01 level. The difference between mathematics tests correlations was 5,136 which is again a lot larger than 2,58 at the significance level ,01. There was significant difference between social sciences tests at the ,05 level (2,62). As for natural sciences test, there was significant difference (5,372) between natural sciences tests correlations of 2005 and 2006 exams.

Mean differences for subtests between the two groups of HSEE takers

TABLE3.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST RESULTS FOR HSEE SUBTEST MEAN DIFFERENCES FOR 2005 AND 2006 GROUPS

	2005 (N=1333)	2006 (N=1692)			
	M	M	t	df	Sig.
Turkish	19,709 (2,852)	20,069 (2,602)	-3,581	2727,775	,000***
Social Sciences	20,1701 (4,441)	20,9249 (3,692)	-4,993	2575,761	,000***
Nat. Sciences	18,3775 (5,179)	19,5309 (4,039)	-6,685	2468,003	,000***
Mathematics	16,6716 (4,950)	17,9350 (3,946)	-7,607	2505,207	,000***

p=<.001

Independent-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that two groups have different scores. The language (Turkish) test was significant, t(2728)=-3,581, p<.001, As the standard deviations are different two groups have unequal variances. The second group (2006) had higher Turkish means than the group that had the exam in 2005. The means of both groups in the language test are statistically different. Because variances are different in two groups,

unequal variances assumed, is used as seen from the table t value is -3,581, which means students taking 2006 exam achieved higher in 2002 OKS exam.

Independent-samples t-test results for social sciences scores showed the difference between tests was significant, $t(2576)=-4,993$, $p<.05$. The second group (2006) had higher social sciences means than the group that took the exam in 2005. Independent-samples t-test conducted to see differences between 2005 group and 2006 group showed the test was significant, $t(2468)=-6,685$, $p<.001$ The second group (2006) had higher HSEE natural sciences means than the group that had the exam in 2005. As for mathematics scores, the test was significant, $t(2505)=-7,607$, $p<.001$. The second group (2006) had higher HSEE mathematics means than the group that had the exam in 2005.

Mean differences for subtests between the two groups of UEE takers

TABLE.4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST RESULTS FOR UEE SUBTEST MEAN DIFFERENCES FOR 2005 AND 2006 GROUPS

	2005 (N=1333)	2006 (N=1692)			
	M	M	t	df	Sig.
Turkish	1,236 (0,635)	1,196 (0,645)	-1,709	2877,6	,088
Social Sciences	0,600 (1,406)	0,710 (1,100)	-2,348	2472,982	,019**
Nat. Sciences	3,015 (1,135)	3,441 (1,001)	-10,785	2672,799	,000***
Mathematics	2,509 (0,676)	2,171 (0,429)	15,901	2143,234	,000***

p=<.001, p=<.05

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the hypothesis that two groups have different UEE Turkish scores. The test was insignificant, $t(3023)=-1,706$, $p<.05$, As the standard deviations are very close two groups have equal variances. There was no significant difference between the means of both groups. The second group (2006) (M=1,236, SD=0,635) and the first (2005) group (M=1,196, SD=0,645) had similar means.

The test for social sciences scores showed the difference between scores was significant, $t(2348)=-2,348$, $p<.001$. The second group (2006) (M=0,600, SD=1,407) had higher social sciences means than the group (M=0,710, SD=1,100) that had the exam in 2005. With regard UEE natural sciences scores, the difference was significant, $t(2673)=-10,785$, $p<.001$. The second group (2006) (M=3,441, SD=1,000) had higher UEE natural sciences means than the group (M=3,015, SD=1,135) that had the exam in 2005. Independent-samples t-test for the difference between mathematics scores showed the test was significant, $t(2143)=15,901$, $p<.001$. The first group (2005) (M=2,509, SD=0,676) had higher UEE mathematics means than the group (M=2,171, SD=0,429) that had the exam in 2006.

IV. DISCUSSION

Correlations between HSEE scores and UEE scores were higher in 2005 than in 2006 for all subtests. This clearly indicates that students' achievements are influenced in different ways, and probably for the negative, if they delay their academic studies. Interestingly enough, correlation in native language test was low contrary to other studies, although other evidence indicates positive effects of foreign language on mother language. As mathematics test is correlated with general ability, it was the least affected in correlation.

Independent samples t-tests showed that scores in HSEE scores between 2005 and 2006 entrants were different. The groups that were chosen for preparation classes (the group to enter the exam in 2006) had higher means in all test types of HSEE. That is, the high achieving group was chosen to study language preparation class.

After four years of education things have changed. Independent samples t test showed, of the four subtests students took, there was no difference between the two group means in language test results of UEE. The difference favoring second group in HSEE disappeared in UEE exam. As for social sciences test, UEE results favored the second group as it did in HSEE exam. So, the group continued its advantage. Again in natural sciences test, the group that had the UEE in 2006 continued its advantage over the group that had the exam 2005 because t test results showed, as in HSEE scores, second (2006) group had higher means in natural sciences test. Mathematics test results show that first group gained an advantage over the second group which achieved higher in the high school entrance exam.

Even if a comparison should be made with caution, the results of this study contradict with some research which say; "Most research show that, not only do foreign language immersion students perform as well as their nonimmersion peers on standardized tests, but often, outscore them" (Caldas & Boudreaux, 1999). A similar difference exits with what Thomas, Collier and Abbot (1993) said: It was the same for the mathematics test and immersion program students outperformed comparison group after two years of immersion program participation. (Thomas, Collier and Abbot, 1993).

V. CONCLUSION

Bilingual programs are especially important for older students who, because of the limited time left in their schooling, cannot afford to pause in learning social studies, math, and science while acquiring English as a second language (Collier, 1992; Krashen, 1996). Though bilingualism is not the same as foreign language proficiency, both are supposed to bring benefits in achievement to the speaker. This study cautions us to be careful about how to handle the issue of another language.

Sacrificing academic studies to learn a foreign language for one year seems to harm student future prospects. Results show delaying studies related to academic achievement may adversely affect achievement in students. This study showed the group that studied one year language class scores lower compared to other group. Because students are placed to universities with regard to their relative positions to all the other students, second group had a disadvantage in placement exam. The second group was not able to make up for the difference between academic achievement scores. So, instead of allocating a year for language preparation it might be more logical to incorporate learning a foreign language into the curriculum. Another cause of the problem encountered here may be the age of the student group was 15, a late time to learn a foreign language spending extensive time.

Lower correlations in the second group imply language studies should be hand in hand with academic studies. Personal interviews show students see language preparation year as a year of rest, which distances students from core courses. It is possible that students who entered by studying hard were affected most by the delay.

Although language learning is hailed by all as a means for many benefits, it should be made clear that it does not undermine other studies putting learners at a disadvantage relative to other students. Evidence indicates it could be beneficial to teach language including academic content to ensure learners do not lag behind others.

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A National Language Policy for Zimbabwe in the Twenty-first Century: Myth or Reality?

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Abstract—The thrust of the paper is on the activities that have taken place in Zimbabwe concerning the formulation of a plausible national language policy. The paper looks at how the current Zimbabwe's language situation affects its social, economic, political and educational development. The paper begins by tracing the history of language activities in Zimbabwe from the pre-colonial era and linking such activities with those that are taking place currently and how such activities have had an influence in development. The paper problematizes the idea of language policy and planning activities taking place in Zimbabwe through focusing on the suggestions, declarations, recommendations and acts that have so far been put in place concerning the language issues. The paper concludes by scrutinizing the link between multilingualism, politics of the day and meaningful development.

Index Terms—language policy, language planning, English language, global language, twenty-first century

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper looks at the language planning activities that are taking place in Zimbabwe and the possibility of having a clear national language policy in the twenty-first century. This article begins by looking at the language situation and the language planning activities that have taken place in Zimbabwe dating back to the pre-colonial era. The paper scrutinizes the suggestions, acts, recommendations and declarations that have been put in place regarding language issues in Zimbabwe. The act here referred to is the 1987 education act of Zimbabwe and the declarations are those that have come into being as resolutions to meetings and conferences especially involving the African heads of states and government, ministers, and academics. The recommendations are those that have been put in place by large governing bodies such as the United Nations (UN). The main focus of the paper is language and development, but the paper goes a step further to problematize the issue of language and politics and language and nationalism. The paper concludes by looking at the possibilities of having a clear and an all encompassing national language policy in Zimbabwe in the twenty-first century at a time when English is fast becoming a global language.

II. LANGUAGE SITUATION IN ZIMBABWE FROM THE PRE-COLONIAL ERA TO DATE

At the moment Zimbabwe has more than eleven indigenous languages and these include Shona, Ndebele, Tonga, Nambya, Kalanga, Sotho, Hwesa, Sena, Chikunda, Doma, Tswana, Tswawo/Khoisan, Barwe, Fingo/Xhosa, and Chewa (Hachipola, 1998) and all of them are marginalized except for Shona and Ndebele. The two 'major' indigenous languages of Zimbabwe which are Shona and Ndebele can be identified in a true sense as hybrid languages. Shona being a hybrid of what are now referred to as dialects which include Zezuru, Ndau, Korekore, Manyika and Karanga after the unification by Clement Doke in 1931. Ndebele was originally Nguni or better still Zulu but got the influence of Kalanga, Sotho and Shona as Mzilikazi, the leader of the Ndebele incorporated some people from these other groups into his group.

The power of language can be seen from how Mzilikazi built the Ndebele state by incorporating people from other linguistic groups during the pre-colonial era. As Mzilikazi moved from Zululand in the first quarter of the nineteenth century (Hadebe, 2002), he expanded his group by incorporating members from the other groups through force, consent and coercion. The groups whom some of their members were incorporated into Mzilikazi's group include the Sotho; the Ndebele of South Africa; that is Amanzunza and Amanala; Tswana; Kalanga; the Shona, particularly the Karanga and some other groups not mentioned here. However, those incorporated into Mzilikazi's group had to forego their own languages and adopt the Nguni language which is now called Ndebele. Discarding the native language and adopting Zulu for those incorporated was Mzilikazi's powerful strategy for building nationhood. The quest for identifying as one was achieved through the adoption and use of one language which is today called Ndebele. Once people identify themselves as one then they form a nation. It has to be noted that this process was not a friendly one because the one incorporated had to comply with the requirements of Mzilikazi's rule failure to which meant resistance. Some people from other groups surrendered themselves to Mzilikazi's group so as to seek protection from the raids.

This then shows that nationhood that is built through language is not a noble one because one state one language means forcing some members of the state to comply even against their own will. One is not born with a language so that he can later on forego it for certain other advantages, such an encounter is tantamount to total disposition. Even though

Mzilikazi built the Ndebele state through having those incorporated adopting the Ndebele language, it did not mean that they became equal with the Ndebele who came from Zululand. Those incorporated along the way were labeled as *Abenhla* and those incorporated in the present day Zimbabwe were labeled as *Amahole*. These two identity markers *Amahole* and *Abenhla* carried derogatory connotations, those of not being original. This kind of caste meant that in the Ndebele state there were what Mamdani (1996) calls the citizens and the subjects.

Then came colonialism in 1890, when what is today known as Zimbabwe went under the British rule and came to be called Southern Rhodesia. The following encounter will show how powerful language is since Shona and Ndebele languages were used in achieving total colonization of the country and its peoples. The demarcation of Rhodesia into provinces with the terms Matabeleland, Mashonaland and Midlands meant that in areas where the province was Matabeleland, the expectation was that it should be Ndebele that is dominant and is used there; Mashonaland meant that it is the Shona language that was expected to be used there and in the Midlands, it was both Shona and Ndebele languages that were expected to be used there. Of interest to note is that in some parts of Matabeleland, there was totally no Ndebele speaker at the time of colonization. The Ndebele people were concentrated around what today is Bulawayo, the second largest city of Zimbabwe. In   Matabeleland North, there were Tonga people in Binga, Nambya in Hwange and Kalanga in Tsholotsho. In Matabeleland South, there were Kalanga in Plumtree and Kezi, Sotho in Gwanda and some parts of Beitbridge and Venda in Beitbridge. All these languages mentioned here are mutually unintelligible with Ndebele. In Mashonaland West again in Chiredzi there was the Shangani people whose language is also mutually unintelligible with Shona.

It is clear, then that Shona and Ndebele were used to strengthen colonialism. Even the missionaries promoted only Shona and Ndebele and thus the bible was translated into these two languages in Zimbabwe. In industries, the dominant indigenous languages were also Shona and Ndebele. It is clear then that the dominance of Ndebele and Shona today dates back to the inception of colonization of Zimbabwe.

III. Acts, Declarations, Suggestions and Recommendations

A number of suggestions and declarations have been put forward regarding the use of languages not only in Zimbabwe but in Africa and beyond. Zimbabwe has its own education act which is one of the clear signs that language matters are a cause for concern.

In 1987, there came an Education Act which stipulates that:

1. The three main languages of Zimbabwe, namely Shona, Ndebele and English, shall be taught in all primary schools from the first grade as Follows:

a. Shona and English in all areas where the mother-tongue of the majority of the residents is Shona or

b. Ndebele and English in all areas where the mother tongue of the majority of the residents is Ndebele.

2. Prior to the fourth grade, either of the languages referred to in paragraph (a) or (b) of sub-section (1) may be used as the medium of instruction, depending upon which language is more commonly spoken and better understood by the pupils.

3. From the fourth grade, English shall be the medium of instruction provided that Shona or Ndebele shall be taught as subjects on an equal-time allocation as the English language.

4. In areas where minority languages exist, the Minister may authorise the teaching of such languages in primary schools in addition to those specified in sub-section (1), (2) and (3). (Part XII, 62, p.255)

This Education act was revised in 1990, but still there were no notable changes. Although it was revised it remains with a lot of questionable loopholes. Although this policy was put in place, many schools in the country in areas where minority languages exist did not implement it due to various reasons which are going to be outlined later.

Mutasa (2006) points out that there are three declarations that have been made concerning the issue of languages in Africa. First there was The Language Plan of Action for Africa followed by The Harare and then The Asmara Declaration.

The heads of state and government met of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), now African Union (AU) met in Ethiopia in Addis Ababa from the 28th to the 30th of July in 1986 it was agreed that "language is at the heart of a people's culture" (OAU, 1986) and that economic and social development can be accelerated through the use of indigenous African languages. The discussions evolved around the following key notions:

• That Africa needs to assert her independence and identity in the field of language;

• That African states need to take practical action to accord their indigenous languages their rightful official role as provided for by the Cultural Charter for Africa which was arrived at in Lagos;

• That each sovereign state has the right to devise a language policy that reflects the cultural and socio-economic realities of its country;

• That the adoption and promotion of African languages as official languages of the state can be achieved when there is political will;

• That the promotion and adoption of African languages as official languages of the state is of advantage in education, in politics, cultural and political affairs of the state;

• That mass literacy campaigns cannot be achieved without the use of African languages;

• That the promotion of cross boarder languages is a vital factor in achieving African unity;

• That in coming up with a national language policy, multilingualism must be emphasized; (OAU, 1986).

The following were the aims and objectives of the Plan of Action:

• To encourage each and every Member State to have a clearly defined language policy;

• To ensure that all languages within the boundaries of Member States are recognized and accepted as a source of mutual enrichment;

• To liberate the African peoples form undue reliance on the utilization of non-indigenous African languages as the dominant, official languages of the state in favor of the gradual take-over of appropriate and carefully selected indigenous African languages in this domain;

• To ensure that African Languages, by appropriate legal provision and practical promotion, assume their rightful role as the means of official communication in the public affairs of each Member State, in replacement of European Languages, which have hitherto played this role;

• To encourage the increased use [of] African languages as vehicles of instruction at all educational levels;

• To ensure that all the sectors of the political and socio-economic systems of each Member State is mobilized in such a manner that they play their due part in ensuring that the African language(s) prescribed as official language(s) assume their intended role in the shortest time possible;

• To foster and promote national, regional and continental linguistic unity in Africa, in the context of multilingualism prevailing in most African countries.

The Harare declaration came as a result of the Intergovernmental conference on language policies in Africa held in Harare, Zimbabwe from the 17th to the 21st of March 1997 organized by the United Nations Education, Cultural and Scientific organization. At the conference it was declared that the following anomalies would be corrected:

• The richness of linguistic diversity in Africa and its potential as a resource for all types of development is not being recognized;

• The urgent need for African States to adopt clear policies for the use and development of mother tongues;

• Use of African languages is a prerequisite for maximizing African creativity and resourcefulness in development activities;

• The language policies introduced since independence have generally favored the colonial languages by setting up language structures that confer a monopoly of official status to the languages of the former colonial powers;

• Most of the recommendations made to correct this situation have not been implemented;

• Only very few African countries have clear and comprehensive language policies and even fewer have enshrined the stipulations of such policies in their constitutions;

• Language policy decisions are actually political decisions that can only be taken up by national governments (UNESCO, 1997).

The following are the recommendations that came out during the conference:

• Each country should have a clear Language Policy Document within which every language spoken in the country should find its space;

• Guidelines for Language Policy formulation should be sanctioned by legislative action;

• Every country's policy framework should be flexible enough to allow each community to use its language side-by-side with other languages while at the same time giving provision to wider communication;

• A language policy formulating and monitoring body/institution should be established within each country (UNESCO, 1997).

The Asmara declaration came at the conclusion of a conference held in Asmara, Eritrea from the 11th to 17th of January 2000 where the discussion centered on examining "the state of African languages in relation to government policy and administration, publishing and public education, scholarship and intellectual (re)presentation and to the question of development more generally" (Mazrui, 2012). The title of the conference was *Against All Odds* and the discussion was on African languages being threatened by the European languages especially English. At the end of the conference a declaration was made on African languages and literatures and the following were contents of the declaration that were put forth by the writers and scholars:

• African languages must take on the duty, the responsibility and the challenge of speaking for the continent;

• The vitality and equality of African languages must be recognized as a basis for the future empowerment of African peoples;

• The diversity of African languages reflects the rich cultural heritage of Africa and must be used as an instrument of African unity;

• All African children have the unalienable right to attend school and to learn in their mother tongues. Every effort should be made to develop African languages at all levels of education (The Asmara declaration on African Languages and Literatures, 2000).

There are many other declarations which were made at this conference, but those included here are those that are much relevant to this article.

The declarations from the Language Plan of Action for Africa by the OAU now African Union (AU); by UNESCO in the Harare Declaration; and by writers and scholars in the Asmara Declaration are very interesting in that years after

these declarations have been made Zimbabwe still seems to be lagging behind in terms of implementation. This then raises the question of whether attaining a clear language policy in Zimbabwe would be a myth or reality.

These declarations are also open to criticism. First is clear in all these declarations that in all of them there are blames of the dominance of ex-colonial languages. One wonders whether is the colonialists who are still ruling Africa or it's the Africans themselves. Who should implement policies in Africa? Is it the former colonizer or it is the current rulers? When African countries gained independence the former colonizers did not come back and say continue using our languages, but decades after independence Africans are still concentrating on blaming the dominance of the European languages. If Africans feel that there can be development through the use of African languages, then who is stopping the use of those African languages. Concentrating on blaming would not bring development to Africa instead the African countries should know what they really want and then find ways of achieving their goals and they should also design clear policies of relating with their partners in a bid to achieve development.

The declarations are also questionable again as they also emphasize on the dominance of the ex-colonial languages. They all declare that each African state should promote the use and development of every language that falls within its borders, but they overlook the reality that some indigenous African languages suppress and dominate other indigenous languages of Africa. The case in point is that of Shona and Ndebele in Zimbabwe which dominate other languages which are now being labeled as minority. Shona and Ndebele dominate such languages as Kalanga, Venda, Tonga, Nambya, Shangani, Sotho, Chikunda, Chewa and some others not mentioned here. If such circumstances are ignored then, African governments would always be reluctant in formulating clear language policies because there is nothing that would be pushing them since the first languages of those in power are always the ones that dominate and are recognized in the unofficial policies. Phillipson (1992) observes that "Whether the decisions taken serve the interests of the mass of the population as well as the elites will depend on the nature of the state in question, and the degree of popular participation in decision making" (p. 84). The good thing about these declarations is that they contain sentiments of the realization that governments are the ones that are responsible for policy formulation. Development will therefore only be peculiar to those whose languages dominate; those whose first languages are perceived to be inferior would not fully participate in development because of their perceived inferiority complex. They will always be left out in the periphery and would not be part of development processes such as education, economics, politics and so on.

The Harare declaration leaves one with a lot of questions than answers if Zimbabwe would be able to attain a clear national language policy in the twenty-first century. The conference took place in Harare, Zimbabwe in 1997 and today, more than a decade after the declaration nothing contained in the declaration has taken place. Zimbabwe should have taken the initiative in implementing what was declared since the declaration carries the name of its capital city. Mutasa (2006) points out that what hinders development in Africa is planning without action. If such conferences are held and a lot of suggestions come out which at the end are not implemented then that is a clear sign of stalemate in development. With such a scenario having taken place in Zimbabwe, then one is left wondering if attaining a national language policy in Zimbabwe would be a myth or a reality.

IV. LANGUAGE AND EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN MODERN ZIMBABWE

This section looks at the perceptions of scholars and people in general regarding language issues in education in the modern day Zimbabwean society. The education act of 1987, which is outlined in 1.3 above, is the only official written document regarding language use in Zimbabwe. In many African countries there are no national official language policy documents but what exists are just education acts and policies. This has been inherited from the colonial governments.

During the colonial era in Zimbabwe, the indigenous languages were not recognized in education. From a research carried out by Mumpande (2006), it is apparent that the other indigenous languages, now called the marginalized languages, were taught at lower levels of primary schooling until the early 1960s when the Southern Rhodesian leader unilaterally declared independence from Britain. From then on the only indigenous languages that were taught in schools were only Shona and Ndebele. When Zimbabwe gained independence in 1980, the country continued with the Rhodesian policies. The indigenous linguistic groups other than Shona and Ndebele were labeled as minority and they started contesting against that labeling in the late 1980s (Mumpande, 2006). Although Shona and Ndebele were the only recognized indigenous languages, English remained the dominant official language. More prestige was attached to the English language and those who could speak English were accorded higher social and economic status. Rassool et al (2006), and Guo and Beckett (2007) point out that fluency in English has become associated with being educated and therefore seen as a leeway to upward social mobility. The dominance of English in education has continued into the twenty-first century and African countries are now seeing no need to develop their own indigenous languages or to spend time and resources in trying to come up with national language policies since English is regarded as a window of opportunities.

Rassool et al (2006), note that in South Africa in the context of the Bantu Education, African languages were stigmatized as "other", and thus inferior in educational policy framework. They go on to point out that The Bantu language syllabus, Joint Matriculation Board (1979) stated that:

Because the Bantu languages differ so much from the European languages it is necessary that the Bantu child should not view his (sic) mother tongue as if it were a European language. He must therefore be taught that his mother tongue has its peculiar character, which cannot be derived from European languages. He has to learn that his mother tongue is much more bound up with form, that in its system of writing it does not necessarily follow the European languages… (Rassool et al 2006).

The legacy of English in most African countries such as South Africa, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Malawi, Kenya, Botswana, etc was inherited from the colonial period and this partnered with it becoming a global language results in the underdevelopment of African indigenous languages. Sure and Webb in Webb and Sure (2000), observe that although the use of colonial languages in education has led to serious problems, it has also brought with it "enormous advantages such as access to knowledge, creativity and entertainment of the entire western world as well as global trade and commerce". The African languages are now viewed as inferior and there is no motivation amongst policy makers in developing these indigenous languages and even including them in the learning of other subjects such as agriculture, science, mathematics, geography and so on. Engin (2006) is of the view that "The motivation of the learners how ready and eager they are to get more information and to increase their ability to understand, write, and speak the second language" (p.1036). Learners can be motivated when learning in English because they know that there are gains at the end.

In some situations, despite the efforts by government authorities and authorities in institutions of learning to have children learning in indigenous languages, parents and even the children resist. In Botswana, private schools attract parents to send children to their schools by using the phrase "English Medium" when advertising their schools. Peresuh and Masuku (2002) have observed that in Zimbabwe, parents prefer their children to enroll in English medium schools because of the perceived high status of English even at elementary levels. In 2010, Zimbabwe started considering a compulsory four subject pass rate in all primary schools which are English, Shona/Ndebele, Mathematics and English. Those who do not pass Ndebele/Shona are now considered as having failed and this has seen the elitist schools' pass rate dropping way below those considered to be of people of low class in 2011. Peresuh and Masuku (2002) note that the lack of pride in the Zimbabwean children's primary languages has resulted in poor performance in Shona and Ndebele. However at ordinary level (O' level), for one to be considered as having passed, the candidate must have scored a grade C or better in five subjects including the English language. Ndebele and Shona are not regarded as substitutes of English although they are also languages. Thondhlana in Burnaby and Reyhner (2002) notes that notes that in Zimbabwe without English language one cannot be considered for further education and employment. Guo and Beckett (2007) point out that English is a precondition for employment and promotion, and many professionals invest heavily in English language learning because it is used as a yardstick to measure general competence. This demonstrates that the linguistic situation in Zimbabwe forces the people to embrace the English language and see no necessity to push for an official language policy that also recognizes the indigenous languages of Zimbabwe.

The use of English as an official language of learning has seen the majority of Zimbabweans becoming bilingual. In schools the learners use English in learning all the other subjects except when learning Shona or Ndebele where the respective language is used. Ndebele and Shona, in school are used for communication amongst peers. These two languages are also used at home and therefore for one to become bilingual is inevitable in the Zimbabwean context. The issue of bilingualism has been received with mixed feelings. Yazici et al (2010) are of the view that "In a bilingual context, the mother tongue plays a key role in a child's social and personal development, in education and in second language learning. Vygotsky (1962) is of the view that access to two languages accelerates the development of metalinguistic skills. It is argued that bilingualism enhances cognitive flexibility, analytic skills and creative thinking. Bilingual education supports children's personal development and assists a positive exchange between two languages and cultures, and the development of knowledge in both languages has a positive effect on children's opportunities to express their feelings, thoughts and needs (Yazici et al, 2010; Hamers and Blanc, 2000; and Thondhlana in Burnaby and Reyhner, 2002). However, Rassool et al (2006), are of different view and they point out that the official language of teaching and learning within nation states is associated with high status knowledge and, as such, constitutes a potent form of cultural capital. They further observe that those who are fully literate in the national language have greater cultural capital to exchange in the labor market than those who have not. Their argument is that even if people are bilingual there is one language which carries more prestige and advantages than the other and the first language speakers of the prestige one will always be at an advantage when it comes to the labor market. When an ex-colonial language is the one that carries advantages, those people who live in the rural areas are always left in the periphery because of lack of exposure and as a result they lag behind when it comes to educational development. In Zimbabwe the children who live in urban areas have greater exposure to the English language because they have adequate human and material resources in schools such as the availability of qualified and experienced teachers and textbooks. They also have access to television which most of its programmes are done in English.

The above situations in the education sector especially the advantages that are attached to English makes it difficult to engage into serious language planning activities, because the people see no need to worry about the other languages when they have the English language which is a vehicle of success. The tendency to view language planning as an activity that promotes a single language or that which lobbies for the inclusion of the use of indigenous languages as

medium of instruction in formal domains such as education, media, law courts and so on has hindered African countries from coming up with official language policy documents.

V. Recognition of the Indigenous Languages in the Face of the Dominant English Language

English is fast becoming a global language but the idea of a global language was suggested first in Europe in the 17th century (Etzioni, 2008); second by Comenius in 1938 (Etzioni, 2008); thirdly by Mauro E. Mujica, Chairman of US English (Kayman, 2004) and later emphasized by Crystal (1997), who advocated for and pointed out that English is already a global language. These ideas may have been triggered by the idea of a single language that is understood by all the people in the bible in Genesis 11vs 1-9 on issues about the tower of Babel. The wide use of English in a wide geographical space global has trivialized the use of indigenous African languages. Most people find no motivation in using their indigenous African languages because they can only be used in their locality when speaking with people of the same linguistic background. In Zimbabwe, even people of the same linguistic background use the English language in formal domains such as education, banking sector, parliament, media, etc. Kayman (2004); and Guo and Beckett (2007), view English as a language that has become truly global which no longer belongs to anyone. The very reason that English is now used globally and that it facilitates communication with anyone, anywhere and for whatever purpose means that in any language planning process, English will eventually take the center stage. Most African countries will find it difficult to come up with an official language policy document because any language policy will mean embracing the English language. The official acceptance of English as an ideal language for communication across peoples of multiple linguistic backgrounds in most African countries seems to be perceived as recolonization by Europe. English in a true natural sense is dominant but to accept its dominance is perceived as a defeat. Because English is dominant and accepting its dominance particularly through language policy documents will be perceived as a defeat that then implies that such an assumption will always be a hindrance in coming up with official language policies in African countries.

English has occupied a superior position in Africa because of colonial history. Etzioni (2008) points out that "Although the U.N. or some other such global organization could, theoretically, choose a language to serve as the global language, English is already (and increasingly) occupying this position as a result of the colonial period and post-colonial developments" (p.113). In Zimbabwe, during the colonial period when the country was Southern Rhodesia, the black people who could speak English had access to many opportunities of developing their lives socially and economically and politically. The negotiations for Independence at Lancaster House were done in English and after the independence was gained the dominance of English continued. In parliament and the media, the politicians continued using English language while the indigenous languages were only used when campaigning for votes before elections. Because the politicians who happen to be policy makers find comfort in using English and because they feel that it is easier to communicate with the masses through the use of English which is perceived as neutral they find no push in coming up with an official language policy document. To many policy makers a language policy document is not perceived as a way of rationalizing the use of languages but as a way of protecting and promoting the indigenous languages.

The indigenous languages will hardly be ranked at the same level with English because the English language has been associated with everything that is good. Phillipson (2001), notes that "Throughout the entire post-colonial world, English has been marketed as the language of 'international communication and understanding', economic 'development', 'national unity' and similar positive ascriptions..." (p. 190). It has become a language of communication, business, aviation, entertainment, diplomacy, internet and technology (Guo and Beckett, 2007; Melanovic, 2010; Fishman, 1998; and Crystal, 1997). In multilingual countries such as Zimbabwe, English plays a key role in facilitating communication between people of diverse linguistic backgrounds and also acts as a unifying force. It is also a language of trade across countries regionally and internationally and is also a language that is associated with opportunities as it facilitates access to higher education and to one's economic development. Guo and Beckett (2007) are of the view that English has become a gateway to education, employment and economic and social prestige. Given this background it is clear that Zimbabwe will find it difficult to engage policy makers in drafting a language policy because English is there to cater for communication needs. However sometimes English marginalizes some other members of the society especially those who don't get access to education because English is learnt at school. The increasing dominance of English is empowering the already powerful and leaving the disadvantaged further behind (Guo and Beckettt 2007). What that implies is that those who can't speak English are not part of the development process.

VI. Can Zimbabwe Achieve a Plausible National Language Policy?

There are a number of questions that need to be answered before thinking about achieving a plausible language policy in Zimbabwe. The following are questions that need to be answered in order to be clear if Zimbabwe can really come up with a clear official national language policy:
1) Why does Zimbabwe need an official national language policy?
2) Who should initiate the drafting of the policy?
3) Who should be involved in the actual drafting of the policy?
4) Does language really need to be planned?

5) Which languages should be involved and which ones should be left out?

6) What yardsticks or criteria should be used in the selection of languages to be recognized in the policy?

7) What is wrong with the current situation?

8) If there is a language policy document can it really be implemented and practiced, and who should ensure the practice and implementation?

If these questions and fully addressed then it means that a clear official national language policy can be attained in Zimbabwe?

VII. THE FUTURE OF ZIMBABWE'S INDIGENOUS LANGUAGES

Philiipson (1992) asserts that "globally, what we are experiencing is that English is both replacing other languages and displacing them" (p.27).The higher market value of English is replacing and displacing the indigenous languages of Zimbabwe in more important sectors such as education, finance, law courts, parliament, media, business administration, home affairs, etc. English has become a global language and is now a requirement for decent employment, social status and financial security in various parts of the world, including language minority areas where inhabitants also have to learn the dominant languages of their countries (Guo and Beckett, 2007). In Zimbabwe English occupies the dominant positions and the languages that follow after are Shona and Ndebele. Speakers of other languages find themselves in difficult situations because over and above carrying the burden of English they are also supposed to learn one or both of the indigenous languages which are Shona and Ndebele. This kind of a situation puts their first languages further into the periphery and at the risk of extinction. Speakers of marginalized languages end up finding no importance in them because they are not examined at O' Level and are not a requirement for decent employment. The survival of marginalized languages in Zimbabwe is rather at risk because over and above being overshadowed by the English language, they are also being preyed on by the dominant indigenous languages which are Shona and Ndebele.

The indigenous languages of Zimbabwe can be protected from extinction through coming up with a language policy. If a language policy is put in place and is not implemented then there is no guarantee that these marginalized languages will be protected. One of the languages that has been forced into extinction in Zimbabwe in Nyubi which was spoken in the mountainous areas of Matopo. A research that was carried out in 2010 showed that there were only two remaining speakers of the language and these two speakers were at an advanced age. Indications showed that the Nyubi language was forced into extinction by the Ndebele language. Another language that is showing signs of extinction in Zimbabwe is the San language spoken in Bulilima in Plumtree and Mgodimasili in Tsholotsho. The San language is also being forced into extinction by the dominant and the prestigious Ndebele in Tsholotsho and Plumtree although the language of the majority in Plumtree and Tsholotsho is Kalanga which is also a marginalized language. The San people have in many instances raised some concerns that they are being marginalized when it comes to development projects. During the land reform programme they were not included and the fact that they have always been nomads and they now want to be subsistence farmers is not being taken into full consideration.

The linguistic situation in Zimbabwe is an interesting one in that whilst the country might not be having an official national language policy there still exist a scenario regarding the use of languages. The existing scenario regarding linguistic situation is not written down but is being practiced. Shona and Ndebele are the dominating indigenous languages and they sometimes replace English which is the official language although Shona enjoys a better status than Ndebele. Because there are three dominating languages in Zimbabwe which the majority of the population speaks and there is a perceived idea that there is 'a natural language policy', the policy makers find no obligation in coming up with an official language policy document. However if there could be an official language policy each and every citizen of Zimbabwe will understand his or her place in the linguistic landscape and know how to get involved in the development of the country. One of the differences between political parties in Zimbabwe concerning the draft constitution was to regard sixteen languages of Zimbabwe as official (The Standard 23 September 2012). In Zimbabwe, those who need a national language policy, that is the marginalized linguistic groups have no power to push for it, and those who have the power to push for it, that is, the political elites don't need it because they have no languages to protect. It for this reason why it is questioned in this paper whether attaining a national language in Zimbabwe will be a myth or a reality.

VIII. CONCLUSION

If a language policy is to be achieved in Zimbabwe, there is need for commitment by the policy makers, the politicians and those who want the official recognition of their languages. It has been shown that the twenty-first century has seen the dominance of English language to the extent that is now being regarded as a global language. Its importance in Zimbabwe and other African countries has hindered the drafting of official language policy documents because of the feeling that it caters for all communication needs. It has also been shown in this paper that despite the importance in using English language in education bilingualism is also important as it facilitates development as well. The paper has shown that coming up with a language policy in Zimbabwe is a myth because after all the declarations, suggestions, acts and recommendations have been done nothing has so far taken place regarding coming up with an official language policy. The language policy of Zimbabwe if it comes into existence will protect the marginalized

languages from extinction but those who are responsible for coming up with policies find no urgent need to come up with such a policy because they don't see the necessity and because of the feeling that the English language acts as a unifying force in a multilingual country like Zimbabwe.

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An Ideal Model to Measure Humorousness: 1+1 Two Factor Formulae

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Abstract—At present, humor is mainly studied on its internal mechanism and communication function. Humorousness is an indicator of humor quality, usually equivalent to the comic effect generated by the verbal humor in a special context. It is not a scattered random sequence that can be qualitatively defined only, but measurable and adjustable through a set of pragmatic devices and strategies. Based on Relevance Theory, this paper is intended to establish an ideal model "1+1 Two Factor Formulae" to quantify humorousness of verbal humor by deconstructing traditional Incongruity-Resolution Theory. It is expected to shed some light on humor research and give some inspiration to stylists and humorous writers.

Index Terms—humorousness measurement, incongruity, resolution, relevance theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Humor research can be traced back to the time of Aristotle and Plato from different disciplines involving philosophy, aesthetics, psychology, sociology, anthropology and linguistics. There are three main traditional humor theories to explain humor: Superiority Theory, Relief Theory and Incongruity Theory.

Humorousness is an indicator to test the quality of humor, generally equivalent to the comic contextual effects achieved by verbal humor in certain contexts. Humorousness is measurable because it is an indirect speech act, and the indirectness of language directly influences the contextual effects of language, which can be measured by its "relative length" through the manifestation of the "degree of its zigzag line" (Hou Guojin, 2004). Therefore, it is reasonable to believe the feasibility of humorousness measurement. This paper develops a set of "1+1 two factor formulae" to bridge humorousness with the degree of relevance on the basis of the traditional incongruity – resolution theory.

II. 1+1 TWO FACTOR FORMULAE

Prototype and Function of 1+1 two Factor Model

"1 + 1 two Factor" Model is aspired by the traditional theory of humor research: Incongruity – Resolution. According to this theory, the process of interpretation of humor is roughly deconstructed into two sub-processes: the interpretation of incongruity, and the interpretation of resolution. Although not a clear time boundary has been made between the two sub-processes, and even some think they are ongoing simultaneously (because the hearer almost begins to make response, either laughing or humming, the very second he senses the incongruous part in the story), they are desperately two independent components for the hearer (the addressee) to deal with: the former is tangible and physical, for incongruity can be sensed by the hearer's common sense, and the latter is intangible and mental, which depends on the hearer's cognition and inferential capacity, and to the largest extent, on whether the inference results are amusing enough to bring about laughter. A joke maker mostly fails in a cold joke as the incongruous elements in his story is only captured but not appreciated by his addressee, so the process of resolution seems weightier for success of verbal humor. Based on this belief, resolution is completely independent from incongruity in this research, which outlines the prototype of our model:

Incongruity + Resolution = Humor
(1) + (1) = (?)

The model "1+1" indicates the interaction of two independent factors: incongruity and resolution, and their interaction affecting the change of humorousness. Considering the number of incongruity and resolution, and for mathematics' sake, we coin two terms "incongruitum" and "resolutor" to replace the above two in the prototype model, and convert humor into humorousness to make the equation more direct and illustrative, so the final model is:

Incongruitum + Resolutor = Humorousness
(1) + (1) = (?)

The model appears simple and easy to operate, however, measurement of humorousness is too complicated to be covered by the interaction of merely two factors. Other variables or factors are probably involved including the hearer's cognitive ability, emotion, culture differences, and contexts. Only cognitive ability may cover various factors like gender, age, job occupation, area etc. If so, this task will be an impossible mission, so it is just a basic yet ideal model by which major factors or variables affecting humorousness are taken into account. That is to say, "interferon" is

possibly excluded from this model, leaving only three basic parameters and two factors as said above, and it targets at simple verbal humor only for a preliminary test of its validity.

1) Settings of three Major Parameters

Tan Daren's "a piece of comic work generated by the author with a sense of comic spirit for the special purpose (1997, p. 5)" plus Kerbrat-Orechioni's pragmatic supplementation "of whose perlocutionary (intended) effect is laughter" is selected in this paper as the definition of humor (to be exact, verbal humor) because this one is the plain reflection of the three major attributes of verbal humor, which will be used as the three parameters for quantitative analysis.

a) Parameter I: Cognitive Capacity

"Humor is an attribute indispensable to man's welfare" (Xu Lixin, 2004, p. 14); "Humanity is the only species with a sense of humor" (Palmer, 1994, p. 1). Verbal humor is man's works. Talking humor is totally nonsense for lack of the author or the joke maker.

Freud distinguishes three kinds of participants in a successful joke: the addresser, the laughing stock, and the addressee (Wang Yong, 2002). For the addresser and the addressee, there are different synonyms: the author and the audience in rhetoric and the speaker and the hearer from the conversational perspective. However, the relationship between the three kinds of participants in a piece of humor cannot be separated completely. Overlapping and confusion often occur.

The addresser is the humor producer; the laughing stock is the object to be satirized or made fun of, and the addressee is the humor receiver who is motivated to interpret the addresser's comic thought from context. All of the three can be set in or out of the context. Generally, the addressor will keep himself and his addressee away from the context with a common target at the laughing stock, so this humor is to be appreciated by both the addresser and the addressee, called "inclusiveness". If either the speaker or the addressee, or both were placed in the context, the case would become complicated. Not only the role of the addresser might overlap that of the addressee, or the role of the addressee might overlap that of the laughing stock, but the addresser can act the role of all-in-one as shown in the words of the famous cartoon star, the cat of Garfield:

Φa. Money is not everything. There's Master Card & Visa.

Φb. One should love animals. They are so tasty.

Φc. The wise never marry, and when they marry they become otherwise.

Φd. Hard work never killed anybody. But why take the risk?

Φe. Work fascinates me. I can look at it for hours!

Hence there are humor participants like Garfield or other creatures likewise; the law that only man creates humor may be vetoed. However, Garfield or those creatures are all personified actors in literary works. After all, those comics are "generated by the author".

The underlined meaning of "an attribute indispensable to man's welfare" for linguists is that humor is subject to man's cognitive capacity. That is, verbal humor should be limited to the cognitive scope of both the author and the addressee; otherwise the estimated effects will fail. In our questionnaire, an English brain teaser is specially designed for the illiterate or half-literate (middle school students or middle aged men with elementary education). Undoubtedly it makes nonsense for the word meaning cannot be comprehended. This is a typical case to prove the failure of humor caused by cognitive incompetence and further confirms our belief that cognitive capacity, also called "cognitive environment" by Sperber and Wilson, is the foundation of verbal humor, the primary parameter to measure humorousness, recorded as Parameter I (P1 for short) hereafter. But for P1, humor is deemed to abortion at the very beginning.

b) Parameter II: Laughing Index

Palmer (1994, p. 3) echoes the "perlocutionary (intended) effect" of humor by the assertion that humor is "everything that is actually or potentially funny and humor is also the process by which this 'funniness' occurs" (Xu Lixin, 2004, pp.17-18). Laughter (chuckle or giggle) is the criterion to appraise the quality of verbal humor in daily life. To be scientific, we term this criteria Laughing Index, the second parameter (P2) to test humorousness.

Palmer's view again resonates incongruity resolution theory in that they both agree that humor is the integral of two laughing indicators: one is the laughing stock "actually or potentially funny" (obviously it should be incongruous in some aspects) and the process of resolution "the process by which this 'funniness' occurs". In a word, the relationship and interaction between those two indicators directly affect the quality of humor. To quantify the degree of humor requires quantification of both two indicators in advance and foundation equation accordingly. However, a single equation cannot solve all the problems as both indicators are changing with a dynamic interaction, so more efforts are made to consider various situations as much as possible, achieving a set of formulae to take an overall account to the most potential.

Laughing index as P2 is the drive and the kernel parameter of humorousness, the focus of our discussion. For the sake of unification and brevity, the two indicators of P2 are converted into two statistical factors: incongruity and resolutor.

c) Parameter III: Context

The degree of verbal humor changes every minute. Language is the direct or indirect carrier of most jokes or loose talk, which distinguishes them from non-verbal humor like pantomime and antics. Verbal humor is confined to time and space, culture, social communication at its birth and all those are subject to context. Context as Parameter III (P3) plays an important role in measurement of humorousness. To be specific, the change of context leads to the change of the interaction between incongruitum and resolutor. A joker succeeds in placing his intrigue in a proper context, where all the participants and every objective and subjective conditions adapt to the current communicative requirements.

2) Settings of two Factors

Parameter II is subdivided into two indicators: incongruitum and resolutor, the two factors serving as the drive and final destination of verbal humor. Both two factors are derived from the original psychological research on humor by incongruity – resolution proposed by Peplcello (1983). Traditional incongruity – resolution theory stands on the perspective of cognition science, fully demonstrating P2, and commencing P2. An offset of involvement in P3 will remarkably improve the incongruity – resolution theory, nevertheless, most types of verbal humor are still in its domain.

a) Incongruitum

The first concern of theoreticians of the incongruity-resolution school is incongruity. Bergson holds that if one's morality should have been the audience's concern, and yet his physical side catches most attention, the man will be a comic. Bergson stands fro superiority theory, but some of his views mirror incongruity. He attributes "when something mechanical is encrusted on something that is living" to the cause of laugh, with the basic thought of incongruity embedded beneath: the major task of humor is to settle down the differences and disharmony between the expected value and the actual value and incongruity lies in the limitless possibilities hidden behind a series of synonyms like "disagreement", "discord", or "disharmony" (Xu, 2004, p. 25). Each entity or occurrence of such "disagreement", "discord", and "disharmony" is termed as a point of incongruity – an incongruitum as mentioned above.

b) 2.3.2 Resolutor

Norrick describes humor based on frame shift theory by asserting that "a joke activated a schema and then twisted it", and "interpretation of humor requires first identification of this frame, and rebuild (recomprehend) this frame when encountering information clashed with this frame of expected results" (Liu Naishi, 2005). The rebuilding (recomprehension) process is the process of resolution of an incongruitum.

During the process of resolution, a non-demonstrative inference is ongoing. Unlike logical demonstrative inference as Aristotle's Syllogism, non-demonstrative inference, based on the hearer's encyclopedia knowledge, is a random and fuzzy inference with a probable but not absolute result. The frequency of such a non-demonstrative inference in the process of resolution is the second factor of P2, termed resolutor hereunder. In other words, the frequency of inferences in the recomprehension process is equivalent to the number of resolutors.

Incongruity – Resolution Theory has its domain in that it succeeds in finding the foundation and the drive force of laughter, but it is too theoretical to put into practice for verbal humor fails to be set and reconstructed in a particular context. RT is proposed to offset incongruity theory in this respect. Non-demonstrative inference of RT will serve as the tie to unify three major parameters and two individual factors in a whole.

3) Formation of 1+1 Two Factor Formulae

With all parameters and factors settled down, the next and most important step to formulate equation is to find out the correlation between parameters and factors, from where RT is cut into this model.

From the above analysis for setting parameters and factors, a conclusion can be drawn that incongruity is the necessary and sufficient condition to generate humor. The existence of one incongruitum is enough to make fun, in need of no resolution. However, pure fun brought by incongruitum(s) takes up quite a little, mainly centered among non-verbal humor. Most jokes and punch lines are generated out of a certain context, which requires the addressee to pay processing efforts for the optimal relevance and obtain the most amount of humorousness. It is easy to figure out that incongruity corresponds to the ostensive stimuli, and resolution is the addressee's ostensive inferences in the process of recomprehension. Plus our pragmatic definition of humorousness, RT is naturally bridged with incongruity-resolution.

According to RT, the value of measured humorousness should have coped with such a law: more relevant, less processing effort and more amount of humorousness (because humorousness is the contextual effects in a piece of verbal humor). By contrast, more irrelevant utterances mean more processing effort and less amount of humorousness. However, the final findings by handing out 300 questionnaires to 3 groups of objects show an opposite result: usually an irrelevant context brings about more pleasure, although the addressee will spend more processing efforts to interpret the context. In other words, the correlation between relevance and humorousness turns to be an irregular or even opposite change against the correlation between relevance and contextual effects of common conversation. After data processing from and analysis of 300 results (over 200 valid ones), our experiment on the correlation between relevance and humorousness yield 4 outcomes, where an incongruitum is recorded as x, a resolutor as y, with unit as 1, the 4 outcomes are converted into our model to measure humorousness of verbal humor:

Incongruitum(s) + Resolutor(s) = Humorousness

$$\begin{cases} x + y = 0(x = 0, y = 0) \\ x + y = 1(x = 1, y = 0) \\ x + (-|y|) = 0(x = 1, y = 1) \\ x + y \geq 2(x \geq 1, y \geq 1) \end{cases}$$

Figure 1. 1+1 Two Factor Formulae

In the set of 1+1 Two Factor Formulae, each factor is assigned with 4 values and each value should be an integer equal or exceeding zero. By restoring those values, the whole set of formulae corresponding to 4 outcomes of our experiment can be converted into the following table.

TABLE 1.
CONVERSION TABLE OF 1+1 TWO FACTOR FORMULAE

Incongruitum (Variable x)	Resolutor (Variable y)	Humorousness (Sum)	Contextual Effect	Processing Effort	Relevance
0	0	0	None	None	Max.
1	0	1	Max.	None	Max.
1	(-) ≥ 1	≤ 0	Negative Growth	Ascend	None
≥ 1	≥ 1	≥ 2	Positive Growth	Ascend	Descend

Note: neither incongruitum nor resolutor will disappear automatically whether ideal contextual effects are achieved or not, so neither x nor y will be a negative number.

The above table mainly indicates that:

• Zero incongruitum or resolutor (x = 0, y = 0) means no ostensive inference. There is no need of processing effort for resolution of an unexisting incongruitum. A general ostensive inference for utterance relevance will directly yield the explicit or implicit meaning of this utterance. The utterance is relevant to the largest extent, but there is no contextual effect, so humorousness (x+ y) is zero.

2.   A: Is it raining?

B: Take an umbrella with you.

Ostensive inference according to RT:

When it is raining, people need an umbrella (implicated premise)

B needs to take an umbrella (explicated premise)

It is raining (implicated conclusion 1)

It is going to rain (implicated conclusion 2)

This example illustrates the fuzziness of language. B's answer may yield more than one interpretation. His answer is relevant to A's question to some extent but less relevant than plain reply like "Yes, it's raining". And this conversation contains no "disharmony" or "disagreement". A lack of an incongruitum and a resolutor keeps it out of the domain of verbal humor.

• An incongruitum (x = 1) is an ostensive stimulus. Triggered by an incongruitum, contextual effects of humor can be directly achieved even sparing processing effort for resolution (y = 0). Typical examples are non-verbal humor like pantomime or antics. In this kind of humor, the audience's reaction is to the large extent relevant to actor's performance, and theoretically, a maximum of contextual effects can be achieved while the humorousness reaches the peak.

Nerhardt (1976) holds that humor is generated from the opposition of two kinds of psychological representation, and the degree of humor is depending on the distance of expected results from its stimuli in a comic matter (Liu Ping, 2005). He designed an experiment to let participants lift a row of weights by order. All those weights look the same, so one cannot judge their weight by eye test. Actually all those weights except the last one are arranged in an order from light to heavy, but the last one is the lightest. Most participants chortled when lifting the last one because of unexpected results. Besides, larger weight variation causes more incongruous effects, so one is more likely to burst into laughter. Nerhardt's experiment is a typical example to prove that a single incongruitum without resolution is enough to generate humorous effects. However, without the process of resolution, no resolutor is generated, nor is a new incongruitum. Such humor is at the risk of "crib death" after being appreciated once. We believe that those participants in Nerhardt's experiment seldom have interests to repeat this game and the fun arising out of the distance between the conspiracy and their expectation will fade away if they are informed of the truth and forced to play it again. From this perspective and in fact, verbal humor requiring resolution is more funny and valuable for academic research.

• Co-existence of incongruitum(s) or resolutor(s) (x>0, y>0) will lead to two opposite tendencies in terms of the growth of humorousness: negative and positive.

• Negative growth of humorousness under the co-existence of incongruitum and resolutor is abnormal. As existed incongruitum resolutors will not disappear under any circumstances, the cause for the loss of humorousness shall be sought from other perspective. Probably, the influence of P1, or P2 or both surpass the role of both factors of P2, serving as the key parameter(s) to write down humorousness. The English brain teaser mentioned in the illustration of P1 is such a case. In a particular context, the addressor's design exceeds the capacity of the addressee's cognition. It is already a communication failure in nature, to say nothing of relevance of humorousness. At the same time, communication failure produces incorrect and negative ostensive inference and incorrect resolutors accordingly. As

resolutors cannot disappear, "-" in the third equation of the formulae does not mean loss or diminishing of resolutors, but incorrect resolutors which will cause loss of humorousness; meanwhile, "≅"does not simply means that humorousness descends down to zero or negative. Humorousness as an indicator to describe quality of humor can never be a negative number. So "≅" here indicates that communication failure not only leads to abortion of fun (=0), but also brings about passive consequences like inferiority or revenge in the addressee's mind (<0), for example, if the addressee resembles the laughing stock in the story said by the addressor, the addressee would feel offended even though it is not the addressor's original intention.

P1 and P3 are to the largest extent interacted. Any of the following attributes, including but not limited age, area, gender, social distance, cultural background, education level, and living standards will produce pragmatic failure. For example, adult jokes popular in male employers will insult female colleagues in the same office. *Journey to the West* (*Da Hua Xi You*), the masterpiece of Hong Kong's king of comedy, Stephen Chow (Zhou Xingchi), is one of the compulsory courses for student of folk literature of Peking University on the one hand, and on the other hand, his "Wulitou" style of performance is censored by orthodox films. And a story of the dumb or the blind is improper to disabled people anytime.

To be strict, the third equation shall be deleted from our model because it exceeds the range of P2. P2 works for successful communication only. Failure of verbal humor arising out of P1, or P3 is failure of communication.

• The co-existence of incongruitum and resolutor will increase the degree of humor at a speed faster than "1+1". More surprisingly, the relevance of utterance in verbal humor increases with a reciprocal ratio to that of humorous contextual effects (see Table 1). This is contradictory to RT.

The final inequation of the formulae indicates that the correlation between humorousness and two factors are not simple "1+1=2". The two factors are mutually stimulated and promoted. Resolution of one incongruitum will generate a new incongruitum and a new resolutor accordingly. Before verifying this hypothesis in the next section and for brevity's sake, we term the first incongruitum "meta-incongruitum", recorded as n_0, and derived incongruitum(s) in the process of resolution, or re-resolution "neo-incongruitum", recorded n_1, n_2, n_3… As for the factor of resolutor, the first thing is to distinguish inference in the resolution process from that of conventional inference, so we term the inference of conventional inference r_0. Relatively, the first resolutor is termed initial resolutor for r_1, and the following resolutors are multi-resolutors r_2, r_3, r_4…

III. HUMOROUSNESS MEASUREMENT OF SIMPLE VERBAL HUMOR

From this section, the major task is to verify the validity of our model by case studies. As 1+1 Two Factor formulae are construed on an ideal model, the cases we choose are possibly simple and typical, which enables us to give a rough description of the growth of humorousness. The process goes from simple to complex (relatively) in order. As the first three equations are illustrated in the last section, this section focuses on the last inequation.

A. Single Incongruitum and Single Resolutor

The cut-in is the simplest verbal humor with a single incongruitum and a single resolutor.

"A comic text is generally divided into two parts: 'preface' and 'punch line'" (Liu Ping, 2005). According to incongruity-resolution theory, the object reflection of incongruity is the contrast between the actual value and the expected value of the hearer after the occurrence of the punch line. Then governed by RT, one gets used to seeking for the optimal relevance adapting to convention. When plausible optimal relevance is located, the hearer will stop his inference. Therefore, a joker takes advantage by "properly making use of this routine cognitive tendency of the hearer and designing a tactic strategy that the preface is 'misleading, while the punch line is the 'steering wheel' to pull the loser back to the correct way of interpretation."(ibid.) The preface is the foundation of generating an incongruitum, which requires the hearer to make a conventional inference to obtain primary optimal relevance, recorded as a_1. The punch line is the essence of verbal humor, which requires the hearer to limp out of convention and make a second inference to obtain secondary optimal relevance a_2. To sum up, the total optimal relevance of verbal humor is the difference between primary optimal relevance and secondary optimal relevance $|a_2 - a_1|$ (see Figure 2).
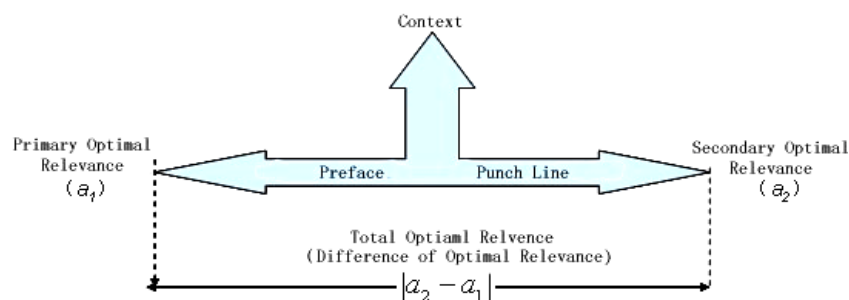

Figure 2. Relevance of Verbal Humor According to RT Inference

As shown in the above figure, conventional RT inference from the preface and unconventional RT inference from the punch line all yield optimal relevance, however, the addressor trickily intrigued the story in a particular context, where his intentional misleading in the preface diverts the first conventional inference from the correct destination. As the direction of the first inference is opposite to the direction of the second inference, more optimal relevance obtained from the first inference and the second inference, less the total optimal relevance arrives. The addressee's confusion lies here: the punch line seems irrelevant to the preface, but the whole story matches well and is perfectly relevant. Then the contradiction between humor inference in the process of resolution and conventional inference is resolved.

3.　　　A: If 2 is company and 3 is a crowd, what are 4 and 5?
　　　B: The answer is 9. (*Brain Teaser*)

Analysis:

Meta-incongruitum (n_0): the paradox of semantic meaning of "and"

Preface: If 2 (-person) is company and 3 (-person) is a crowd

First conventional inference (r_0)

It's a word game (Implicated premise)

2 (-person) is company and 3 (-person) is a crowd (Explicated premise)

The answer should play a word game for "4" and "5" individually (Implicated conclusion)

Punch line: The answer is 9

Second resolution inference (r_1)

It's a mathematic exercise. (Implicated premise)

4 plus 5 (Explicated premise)

4 plus 5 makes 9 (Implicated conclusion)

The trick of this brain teaser composed of the meta-incongruitum lies in the pun of semantic meaning of word "and": the first "and": conj; connecting two or more phrases of similar function; the second "and" means addition). By playing the word game of "and", the author succeeds cheating us: logically, the preface is relevant to synonyms of some numbers, so the answer should be relevant to synonyms of some more numbers, and a simplest addition exercise is disguised to a capricious word game, which misleads the hearer to choose the first semantic meaning of "and".

Now the humorousness of this brain teaser is measurable:

Where there is one incongruitum, the paradox of semantic meaning of "and", so $n_0 = 1$, and there is one resolution inference, so $r_1 = 1$;

Humorousness = incongruitum + resolutor = $n_0 + r_1 = 1 + 1 = 2$.

Verb humors with a single incongruitum and a single resolutor are widely seen in word game and brain teaser because most of them require the addressee to make response in no time, otherwise the little fun will diminish as the addressee spends much time obtaining an absurd answer.

The above example shows the relevance of the punch line with the whole text, and accordingly Table I is modified as follows:

TABLE 2
CONVERSION TABLE OF 1+1 TWO FACTOR FORMULAE (REVISED)

Incongruitum (*x* Variable)	Resolutor (*y* Variable)	Humorousness (Sum)	Contextual Effect	Processing Effort	Relevance		
$\geqq 1$	$\geqq 1$	$\geqq 2$	Positive Growth	Ascend	n_0	n_1	Sum $\mid n_0 - n_1 \mid$
					Max	Max	Min

Note: neither incongruitum nor resolutor will disappear automatically whether ideal contextual effects are achieved or not, so neither *x* nor *y* will be a negative number.

B. Multiple Incongruitums and Resolutors

One incongruitum plus one resolutor is the simplest form of verbal humor, which makes sense by first conventional inference and second resolution inference and almost accords with the basic 1+1=2 equation. However, most jokes or loose talk are no easy job, requiring the addressee's effort to deal with multiple incongruitums ($\geqq 2$) and resolutors ($\geqq 2$). From a single factor to multiple factors, those new incongruitums or resolutors are not the addresser's invention, but mostly, the result of motivated adjustment of P3, which forces the addressee to take those changes for granted and reconsider the original context where the meta-incongruitum survives. Hence the addressee has to make a second or a third resolution inference during the process of reconsideration, new resolutors $r_1, r_2, r_3 \ldots$ are generated. At the same time, the addressee will bear a new expected value in mind during the second or a third resolution inference, and this new expected value strays further from the real destination, which means generation of one or more than one neo-incongruitums ($n_1, n_2, n_3 \ldots$). The famous "counter-dilemma" case *Protagoras vs. Euathlus* (Suber, 1990) is one of the best examples.

Protagoras taught rhetoric and argumentation, which in ancient Greece comprised the education of a lawyer. Euathlus wished to learn these arts and asked Protagoras to teach him. He said he could not pay right away but promised to pay in full after he won his first case. Protagoras agreed, and taught Euathlus rhetoric and argumentation. Some accounts

say Protagoras sued Euathlus for payment immediately upon the completion of the lessons; other accounts say he waited until it was evident that Euathlus was not taking on any cases. The case was heard in the court of Areopagus in Athens.

The judge asked Protagoras why he thought he had a claim against Euathlus. Protagoras argued, "I will either win this case or lose it. If I win it, then Euathlus must pay me, by the judgment of the court. If I lose it, then he must pay me, under our contract. So he must pay me either way."

(*To be continued*)

Call it here, the story has already made verbal humor because:

Meta-incongruitum (n_0): the dilemma of Euathlus to pay his debts whether he wins the case or lose it.

Preface: If I win it, then Euathlus must pay me, by the judgment of the court.

First conventional inference (r_0)

In a court, the plaintiff either wins or loses the case. (Implicated premise)

Protagoras wins the case. (Explicated premise)

The judge will ordain Euathlus to pay his debts. (Implicated conclusion)

Punch line: If I lose it, then he must pay me, under our contract. So he must pay me either way

Second resolution inference (r_1)

In a court, the plaintiff either wins or loses the case. (Implicated premise)

Protagoras loses the case. (Explicated premise)

Euathlus shall pay Protagoras on his promise. (Implicated conclusion)

By calculating all the favorable conditions in the court and of the contract, Protagoras had a "wily scheme" in bringing the suit in the first place (probably to win in a second suit if he lost the first). His words are witty and appreciating, so both the judge and the audience are impressed. Humorousness then is calculating as meta-incongruitum + initial resolutor = $n_0 + r_1$ = 1+1 =2.

However, the court, as said, wouldn't feel so puzzled that it adjourned for 100 years if the case is over like this. Actually when all of it suggests that Protagoras should have won, Euathlus showed off his cleverness to make things totally different, please see *Continue*.

(*Continue*)

"I will either win this case or lose it. If I win it, then Euathlus must pay me, by the judgment of the court. If I lose it, then he must pay me, under our contract. So he must pay me either way."

The judge was impressed, and asked Euathlus to reply. Euathlus had learned his lessons well, and replied, "I too will either win this case or lose it. If I win it, then I need not pay Protagoras, by the judgment of the court. If I lose it, then I need not pay him, under our contract. So I need not pay him either way."

Euathlus's response deserves separate, special treatment as a classical illustration of the use of reflexive language for responding a "dilemma" with a "counter-dilemma". Reflexivity is the generic term for all types of logical circularity: the self-reference of signs, the self-application of principles, the self-justification and self-refutation of propositions and inferences, the self-creation and self-destruction of legal and logical entities, the self-limitation and self-augmentation of powers, circular reasoning, circular causation, vicious and benign circles, and feedback systems. The common practice of using self-reference to cover all this territory is inaccurate and unfortunate. (Suber, 1990)

Euathlus would be better off hiring a lawyer because, if he won with a lawyer, his victory would be non-paradoxical, and if he lost with a lawyer, he would not yet have won his first case, however, it is by the price of losing humorousness of the story. Protagoras's argumentation has already formed a verbal humor. But according to our questionnaire, most participants agree that the essence of this story lie in the latter part of Euathlus's retort, a proof that the latter part is more humorous than the former part, i.e. with more amount of humorousness:

Analysis:

Neo-incongruitum (n_1): the dilemma of Protagoras to pay his debts whether he wins the case or lose it

Preface: If I win it, then I need not pay Protagoras, by the judgment of the court

First conventional inference (r_0)

In a court, the plaintiff either wins or loses the case. (Implicated premise)

Euathlus wins the case. (Explicated premise)

The judge will release Euathlus from his debts. (Implicated conclusion)

Punch line: If I lose it, then I need not pay him, under our contract. So I need not pay him either way.

Second resolution inference (r_2)

In a court, the plaintiff either wins or loses the case. (Implicated premise)

Euathlus loses the case. (Explicated premise)

Euathlus needn't pay Protagoras. (Implicated conclusion)

To sum up, this case contains two variable contextual factors, court and contract, clutching each other to form a dynamic circle. Both Protagoras and Euathlus found out proper and favorable conditions in this circle to defend themselves. The role of the one who takes the initiative is replaced as the contextual circle rolling, rendering Protagoras to lose his advantages at first. Because all of us as the audience of the story expect that Protagoras will be paid, and find wit and fun in Protagoras's words, the final counterturn is totally our expectation and consequently, the amazement

brought by Euathlus's malicious prosecution surpasses the appreciation from Protegra. The evidence is the ascending humorousness as follows:

Humorousness = meta-incongruitum + initial resolutor + neo-incongruitum + 2nd resolutor

$$= n_0 + r_1 + n_2 + r_2 = 1+1+1+1$$
$$=4.$$

Now simple humor including both single factors and multiple factors verify the validity of 1+1 Two Factor Formulae formed on data collected from 300 questionnaires. A safe conclusion can be drawn that humorousness of verbal humor is the result of interaction between both incongruitums and resolutors under the common influence of three major parameters, cognitive capacity, laughing index and context. Variation of any parameter will lead to corresponding changes for two factors, followed by the change of humorousness accordingly.

IV. CONCLUSION

A. Findings

This thesis aims at exploring the pragmatic mechanisms of interpretation of verbal humor, that is, to investigate why some of the utterances are perceived to be humorous and formulation of a trial model for measurement of humorousness accordingly, which will be deductively processed by setting 1+1 Two Factor formulae based on our hypothesis and verification of the formulate by case study.

For the first target, many similar efforts, past and present, have been examined from different angles such as psychological, linguistic, pragmatic and cognitive. However, varied humor theories so far still remain sporadic and fragmentary. Humor scholars are mostly amateurs engaged in the pastime of musing about laughter. What is more, even few of them have concerned themselves with the cognition of the production of humor interpretation. Thus from the perspective of cognition, we have built a bridge with relevance to incongruity-resolution theory and harvested the following findings:

• RT combined with incongruity-resolution has a powerful theoretic force to explain the phenomenon of verbal humor. RT's inferential-ostensive communication is applicable to the verbal humor interpretation.

• Humor interpretation is guided by the Relevance Principle and it is a process of the hearer's search for (cognitive) maximal and (communicative) optimal relevance.

• According to RT, humor understanding is a perception and/or resolution of the incongruity from two different interpretations.

• Verbal humor must be studied within the context and the humor interpretation is also a process of contextual assumptions.

And as for the second target, humorousness, though literally understandable, is still a virgin land full of riddles. Based on our observation and our findings of pragmatic and cognitive mechanisms of verbal humor, we have further proposed a hypothesis and built a trial model for measurement of humorousness, which is verified by case study and data collected from 300 replies of our specially designed questionnaire, including:

• Humorousness is an indicator to test the quality of comic text, which is reflected by the contextual effects the addressee obtains after interpretation with processing efforts and the degree of the perlocutionary force of laughter and surprise.

• Humorousness, the degree of humor, is not a scattered random sequence that can be qualitatively defined, but a continuum measurable and adjustable through a set of pragmatic devices and strategies.

• Humorousness can be defined as the humorous effect of a discourse or utterance in special context, but the changing rules of humorousness differ from general discourses or utterances in daily communication in terms of relevance.

• Humorousness varies along the degree of relevance at different intervals. Such intervals mainly depend on one's cognitive ability and are assisted by context.

• Humorousness is the result of interaction between both factors of incongruitum and resolutors under the common influence of three major parameters, cognitive capacity, laughing index and context. Variation of any parameter will lead to corresponding changes for two factors, followed by ascending or descending of humorousness accordingly.

B. Contributions

The model succeeds in deconstructing humor into two factors: incongruitum and resolutor and three parameters: cognitive capacity, laughing index and context. Bearing this in mind, a composer can have a clear clue for design of his work and improvement of humor quality. Cognitive capacity will help the composer choose his audience, avoiding misinterpretation of his punch line, which leads to communication failure. Laughing index tells the composer about what makes the audience laugh, so both incongruity and resolution will be considered in his composition. Meanwhile, another technique the composer should learn is to add incongruitum and resolutor for purpose of improving quality of his verbal humor. Knowledge of context is especially useful in renewal of an old joke. As far as we know, many old stories rejuvenate after being set in another context. For example, the American Film *Monster Shriek* mainly succeeded in that an ugly monster replaced the handsome prince in legend Cinderella. In a word, a skillful composer may provide

the audience with a story funny enough to their satisfaction by delicate design of two factors and three major parameters of verbal humor in his composition because he knows well what the audience want and how to make them laugh.

In the long run, research on humorousness will open a new horizon for humor research and help integration of humor theories and analysis of various disciplines. Moreover, consciousness of humorousness will help ordinary people improve their sense of humor and ability to appreciate funny things in life.

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On the Theory of Multiple Feature-checking: Arabic Verbs of Speech and Communication

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Abstract—This study examines case checking in constructions controlled by verbs traditionally classified as verbs of speech and communication. These are constructions in which accusative case is licensed on more than one element. It is shown that these constructions can be offered a consistent account by the theory of multiple feature- checking. This account allows case to be multiply checked in a single configuration framework.

Index Terms—feature-checking, case, accusative

I. INTRODUCTION

This study presents an account of case checking in constructions controlled by a group of verbs called *ʔaraa and its sisters* by Arabic traditional grammars. These verbs take two internal arguments, the first is a nominal complement and the second an embedded clause in which both the subject and the predicate are marked as accusative. They are ħadaθa, xabara or axbara, nabaʔa or anbaʔa, ʔaʕlama "to tell or inform", and ʔaraa "to show". The following are examples of these constructions in Modern Standard Arabic:

(1) ʔaʕlama   Bakr-un   Zaid-an ʕamr-an   qadim-an
     informed.3ms Bakr-nom   Zaid-acc Amr-acc coming-acc
     "Bakr informed Zaid that Amr is coming."
     (Wright, 1976, p. 53)

(2) anbaʔatu   ʕabdullabha   Zaid-an   musaafir-an
     informed.1s   ʕabdullabh-acc Zaid-acc   leaving-acc
     "I informed ʕabdullabh that Zaid was out of the country."

(3) xabartu   Zaid-an   ʕamr-an   ɣaaʔib-an
     told.1s   Zaid-acc   ʕamr-acc   absent-acc
     "I told Zaid that was not present."

(4) ħadaθtu   Zaid-an   Bakr-an   muqiim-an
     told.1s   Zaid-acc   Bakr-acc   staying-acc
     "I told Zaid that Bakr was staying."
     (Ibn Aqiil, 1990, p.382, 383)

(5) axabartu   al-mariiD-a   ar-raaħa-ta   laazima-tan
     told.1s   the-patient-acc   the –rest-acc   necessary-acc
     "I told the patient that rest was necessary."
     (Hassan, 1973, p.61)

As we see in the above examples, the first NP to the right of the verb as well as the subject and predicate of the embedded small clause are marked with accusative case.

II. CASE CHECKING

Assuming that accusative case is generally assigned by transitive verbs, it is important to provide an analysis that explains how two NPs in one structure bear the same case features. In other words, a configuration in which two NPs

get to check the same case features needs to be proposed. As a first step towards developing such an analysis, I assume that the D-structure of a construction like (1) is represented as in (6):

(6)
```
                TP
          ┌──────┴──────┐
        Spec           T'
                  ┌─────┴─────┐
                  T          vP
                        ┌─────┴─────┐
                      Spec         v'
                        |      ┌────┴────┐
                    Bakr-un    v        VP
                            ┌──────┴──────┐
                         Zaid-an         V'
                                    ┌─────┴─────┐
                                    V          PrP
                                    |      ┌────┴────┐
                                 ʔaʕlama  Spec      Pr'
                                          |     ┌────┴────┐
                                      ʕamr-an   Pr       AP
                                                          |
                                                          A'
                                                          |
                                                      qadim-an
```
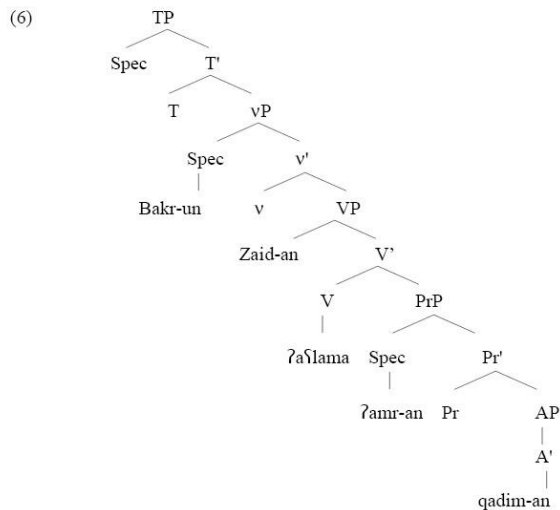
The assumption is that the base-generated DP (objective complement) *Zaid-an* moves to a Spec of vP. This movement is followed by the subject of the embedded small clause *ʕ amr-an* raising to an inner Spec of vP. Once they reach their ultimate positions, the two DPs enter into a checking relation with the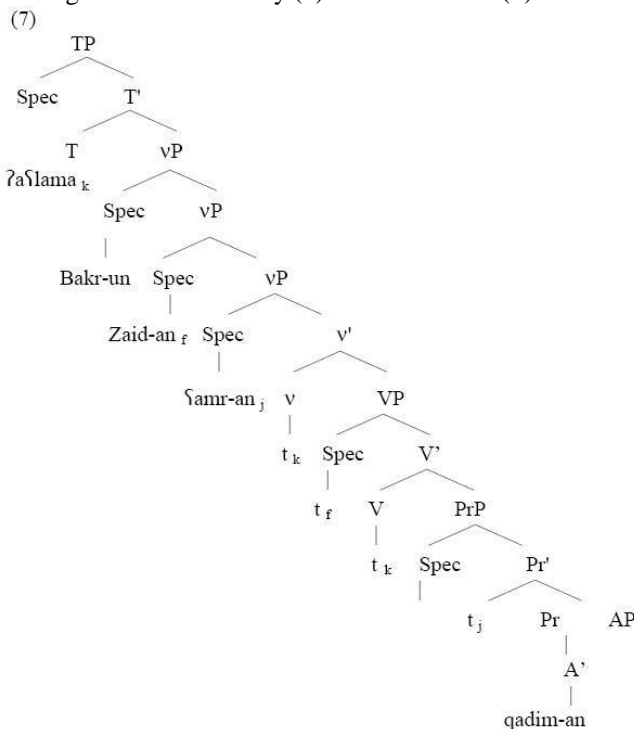 verb of the matrix clause which as we assume allows for a multiple checking of its accusative case- feature. We also assume that the verb first moves up to merge with the light v. The motivation for the movement of the verb is to provide the configuration under which case checking will take place. The predicate of the equative sentence checks its accusative case under agreement with the subject. This is mediated via the trace of the subject. After case checking is achieved, the verb raises overtly to T to check its [+V] features. The subject is not motivated to move to the Spec of TP because the nominal features of T are not strong in Arabic. Thereby (7) is derived from (6):

(7)
```
            TP
       ┌────┴────┐
     Spec       T'
           ┌─────┴─────┐
           T          vP
       ʔaʕlama ₖ   ┌───┴───┐
                 Spec     vP
                  |   ┌────┴────┐
               Bakr-un Spec    vP
                        |   ┌───┴───┐
                     Zaid-an ₍ Spec  v'
                              |   ┌───┴───┐
                          ʕamr-an ⱼ v    VP
                                    |  ┌──┴──┐
                                   t ₖ Spec  V'
                                        |  ┌──┴──┐
                                       t ₍  V   PrP
                                            |  ┌──┴──┐
                                           t ₖ Spec Pr'
                                                |  ┌──┴──┐
                                               t ⱼ  Pr  AP
                                                     |
                                                     A'
                                                     |
                                                 qadim-an
```

Adopting Bowers' (1993) theory of predication, it is assumed that embedded equative sentences in Arabic may have a standard X-bar representation in which the subject occupies the specifier position of PredP and the predicate occupies the complement position of Pred. This provides the configuration in which the predicate gets to check its accusative case feature by agreeing with the subject (cf.Abujoudeh, 2013). The assumption that the predicate of the equative sentence checks its accusative case-feature via agreement with the subject is empirically supported. There is empirical evidence that when the subject of the equative sentence moves to a peripheral position and its case shifts from accusative to nominative, the same is expected to occur to the predicate. This predication is borne out in the following examples:

(8)   ?aʕlamatu   Zaid-an   <u>la-ʕamr-un</u>   <u>qaiim-un</u>

      told-1s   Zaid-an   truly-ʕamr-nom   standing-nom

      "I told Zaid that ʕamr was standing up."

(9)   <u>ʕamr-un</u>   ?aʕlamatu   Zaid-an   <u>qaiim-un</u>

      ʕamr-nom   told-1s   Zaid-an   standing-nom

      "I told ʕamr that Zaid was standing up."
      (Ibn Aqiil, 1991, p.387)

When the negation particle *La-* introduces the predicative phrase, both the subject and the predicate get the nominative case. Notice that in (9) the predicate still agrees with the subject even when it moves to a peripheral position. This suggests that the predicate checks its case under agreement with the subject.

Another refinement could be made to the analysis proposed above for how case in these multiple-accusative constructions in Arabic is checked. The case feature of the verb in Arabic, being [+multiple] can enter into an agree relation with all the elements in one single operation. This is partly based on Chomsky's (2001) theory of Agree which eliminates the feature- movement part of ATTRACT developed in Chomsky (1995) and proposes instead "a relation Agree holding between α andβ, where α has interpretable inflectional features and β has uninterpretable ones, which delete under Agree" (2001, p.3). The assumption is that the Φ-features of the probe (T orv) are interpretable and agree with the uninterpretable Φ-features of N. Case is not matched itself but deletes under agreement.

Following Hiraiwa (2001), we further assume that case checking in multiple-accusative constructions does not require the verb to enter into multiple applications of the same operation. Rather it is proposed that the verb in these constructions undergoes one single simultaneous syntactic operation. Hiraiwa (2001, p.70) poses that at the point of the derivation where the probe is introduced by merge, it starts to probe for a closest matching goal within its c-command domain and matches with the closer goal β. Since the probe feature is [+multiple], the probe continues to look for a next closest goal within the active phase, which results in matching with γ. It is at this point, states Hiraiwa (2001) that "Agree applies to all the matching goals derivationally simultaneously, establishing AGREE (α, β, γ). Thus under MULTIPLE AGREE, a superficial 'covert multiple feature-checking' is not multiple instances of the syntactic operation AGREE; rather it is reduced to a single syntactic operation." So we assume that the verb in multiple-accusative constructions enters into one single feature-checking operation by agreeing with the matching goals via long-distance. This operation comes problem-free since the goals are equally distant from the verb and no intervening elements come between them. That is to say, the cost of matching with one goal and holding till the probe finds its other goal is not in any way problematic for the derivation.

To conclude, the above assumptions are consistent with economy conditions since they eliminate movement unless absolutely necessary. Hiraiwa's assumptions are also consistent with the fact that the verb in Arabic has a [+multiple] case feature that results in overt morphological case on the two objects in double-object constructions. However, they differ in the sense that case checking is not a series of multiple applications of the same operation but rather one single syntactic operation in which the probe agrees with all the matching goals simultaneously.

Hiraiwa (2001, p.73) provides support for his theory of MULTIPLE AGREE from an interaction of Exceptional Case Marking (ECM) and Possessor-Raising Construction in Japanese.

(10)   a. John-ga [CP   [TP Mary-ga me-ga waru-i] to]   omikondei-ta.
           John-NOM   Mary-NOM   eyes-NOM bad-PRES C   believe-PST
           "John thinks that Mary has a bad eyesight."
       b. John-ga [CP   [TP Mary-o me-ga waru-i] to]   omikondei-ta.
           John-NOM   Mary-ACC eyes-NOM bad-PRES C   believe-PST
       c. * John-ga [CP   [TP Mary-ga me-o waru-i] to]   omikondei-ta.
           John-NOM   Mary-NOM   eyes-ACC bad-PRES C   believe-PST

The contrast in grammaticality between (10b) and (10c) clearly shows that a probe cannot have an Agree relation with a matching goal beyond another inactive matching goal.[1] In (10b) the closer goal in the outer TP specifier is ECMed, whereas in (10c) it is the lower goal in the inner specifier position of TP that is ECMed. Therefore, there is no way for v as a probe to ECM a lower goal beyond an intervening inactive goal . The intervening goal is inactive due to a prior Agree with the embedded T at the point of the derivation where the probe v is merged. The theory of MULTIPLE AGREE and the DIC as developed by Hiraiwa (2001, p.74) makes a crucial predication: "if a probe for multiple goals is derivationally unique, then multiple ECM should be grammatical in the ECM construction in Japanese". This prediction is to be validated by examples like the following (Hiraiwa 2001, p.75):

(11)   #John-ga [CP   [TP Mary-o me-o waru-i] to]   omikondei-ta.
        John-NOM   Mary-ACC   eyes-ACC bad-PRES C   believe-PST
        "John believed Mary's eye to be bad."

---

[1] The **Defective Intervention Constraint** (cf Chomsky 2000:123) which states that no AGREE relation is established between a probe and a matching goal when an inactive goal intervenes.

However, due to the Double-O Constraint, which does not allow an accusative marker to occur more than once within a sentence, this sentence is ruled out as ungrammatical. One way to overcome the problem is to cleft the sentence. Thus the cleft version of the sentence is grammatical with multiple ECM:

(12)　John-ga [CP [TP t $_i$　me-o wariu-i] to] omoikondei-ta no] wa Mary-o$_i$ da.
　　　John-NOM eyes-ACC　bad-PRES C believe-PST-AND　C –TOP Mary-ACC　CPL
　　　"It is Mary that John believed her eye to be bad."

It follows that the matrix v is properly allowed to check the accusative case on the lowest goal as well as on the closer accusative goal. The same result is gained when combining the "multiple cleft" test with multiple ECM as the following examples show:

(13)　#John-ga Mary-o taido-o insei-ni (-taisite) tsumeta-ku/tumeta-I to] omot-ta
　　　John-NOM Mary-ACC attitude-ACC grad.students-DAT cold-INF/cold-PRES C think-PST
　　　"John felt that Mary is cold to graduate students."

(14)　[John-ga [t $_i$ taido-o t $_i$ tsumeta-ku/tumetai to] omot-ta no]-wa　Mary- o $_i$ insei-ni (-taisite $_i$)da.
　　　John-NOM attitude-ACC cold-INF/cold-PRES C think-PST C-TOP Mary-ACC grad.students-DAT CPL
　　　"(Lit.) It is Mary, to grad students that John feels cold."
　　　(Hiraiwa 2001, p.75):

As the above examples show, multiple accusative DPs are in an agree relation with the matrix verb. We conclude that the theory of MULTIPLE AGREE as proposed by Hiraiwa (2001) accounts for covert multiple feature-checking phenomenon in languages like Japanese and Arabic. It provides a convincing explanation for the multiple occurrences of accusative case on more one element in ECM constructions.

III. Cross-linguistic Applications of Multiple Case Checking

The constructions investigated in this section provide an entirely new line of support for the analysis proposed in the previous section. It will be shown that the multiple feature-checking approach accounts for the appearance of the same case features on more than one element in the same construction. It will be argued that T/v in the languages under consideration is endowed with an uninterpretable [+multiple] feature that enters into more than one checking relation. Multiple accusative constructions are not uncommon in the languages of the world. Ura (2000) conducts a cross-linguistic survey and finds out that there are many languages in which both objects of a ditransitive verb are marked in the same way as the typical transitive object. Among these languages are Korean, German, Malagasy, Ormo, Modern Standard Arabic, Modern Greek, and Yindijbarndi. The following are representative examples:

Malagasy (from Keenan, 1976, p.251)
(15)　nanome azy　　an-dRabe　aho
　　　gave　it (acc)　　acc-Rabe　I
　　　"I gave it to Rabe."

Greek (from Anagnostopoulou, 2000, p.11)
(16)　Didaksa　　ta pedhia　　　tin grammatiki ton Arxeon.
　　　taught- 1sg the children (Acc) the grammar (Acc) the Ancient
　　　"I taught the children the grammar of Ancient G reek"

(17)　Servira　　ton pelati　　enan kafe
　　　served-1sg the customer (Acc) a coffee (Acc)
　　　"I paid the customer a coffee"

German (from Czepluch, 1988, p.83)
(18)　Sie　haben　den jungen　　das Lied　gelehrt
　　　they have　the boy (acc)　the song (acc)　taught
　　　"They have taught the boy the song."

Korean (Shibatani, 1977, p.804)
(19)　Nae ka　ai ril　　yəngə ril karichiətta.
　　　SU-NOM　　IO-ACC　DO-ACC
　　　I　child　English　teach-PAST-IND (icative)
　　　"I taught English to the child."

(20)　Nae ka　ai ril　chaek il cuətta.
　　　SU-NOM　IO-ACC　DO-ACC
　　　I　　　child　book　give-PAST-IND
　　　"I gave a book to the child."

(21)　Nae ka　ai ril　pap il　məki-ət-ta.
　　　SU-NOM　IO-ACC　DO-ACC
　　　I　　　child　rice　feed-PAST-IND
　　　"I fed the rice to the child."

Yindijbarndi (from Dryer, 1986, p.829)
(22)　Nagaarta yungku-nha ngayu　　murla-yi

man-NOM   give-PAST me-OBJ   meat-OBJ
"A man gave me the meat."

As shown in the above examples, both objects have the same case morphology and are contiguous. Therefore, we propose that the account developed in the present study extends interestingly to these languages. We assume that the verb in these languages allows for multiple checking of its accusative case feature.

Multiple nominative constructions present good empirical evidence for multiple feature-checking. It will be demonstrated that T in the languages under investigation has an uninterpretable [+multiple] case feature that can enter into more than one checking relation. This assumption will account for the appearance of nominative case on more than one element. Modern Hebrew, Japanese and Modern Standard Arabic are among the languages that allow more than one nominative phrase in a single clause. It has been noted that more than one phrase can surface in Japanese bearing the nominative case marker –ga (cf. Kuno 1978, Kuroda 1978, Shibatani 1978, Miyagawa 1989, Saito 1982, Akiyama 2004). Consider the following examples:

(23)   Ano oya-ga   kodomo-ga   atama-ga ii.
       that parent-NOM   child-NOM   head-NOM good
       "It is that parent whose child is smart.

(24)   Boku -ga   kono   hon -ga   yomi-t
       I - NOM   this   book- NOM   read-want
       "I want to read this book."

(25)   Tanaka ga   musuko ga   sinda.
       Tanaka-NOM   son- NOM   died
       "Tanaka's son died."
       (From Miyagawa ,1989,p.102,192)

(26)   mary - ga   kami -ga nagai (koto)
       Mary-NOM hair-NOM long (fact)
       "Mary has long hair"

(27)   yoi   otya-ga nihonzin-ga   kononde nomu (koto)
       good   green-tea-NOM Japanese-NOM enjoying drink (fact)
       "Good green tea, Japanese people drink [it] with pleasure."
       (From Doron & Heycock, 1999, p.70)

Doron and Heycock (1999, p.71) argue that the initial nominative phrase in these constructions is a subject followed by a sentential predicate which already contains a subject. These initial phrases (Broad Subjects as called by Doron and Heycock) have all the properties exhibited by thematic subjects (henceforth Narrow Subjects). They can, for example, freely alternate between nominative and accusative case marking when they occur in the complement clause of ECM verbs. In this respect, they act just like Narrow Subjects as shown by the following example (from Doron and Heycock, 1999, p.72)

(28)   boku-ga   john-o/-ga   imooto-ga kirei-da to omowu
       I-NOM   John-ACC/NOM   sister-NOM beautiful-be that think
       "I think that John's sister is beautiful."

They also behave like thematic subjects in binding the reflexive zibun:

(27)   sono hito $_i$-ga   kodomo-ga zibun $_i$-yori atama-ga ii (koto)
       that person i-NOM child-NOM self i-than head-NOM good (fact)
       "That person $_i$ [is such that his/her] child is more intelligent than him $_i$/her $_i$."

The ability to bind zibun is significant for two reasons. First, it suggests that Broad Subjects are in A-positions since binding of anaphors is only possible from A-positions. Second, zibun is known as a "subject-oriented anaphor" and thus binding it implies the subjectivity of the antecedent.

Akiyama (2004, p.672) also argues for the subjecthood of the initial nominative phrases. He points out that both can control an embedded pro while a genitive DP cannot:

(28)   a. [[Taro-no$_i$] musuko]-ga$_j$[[pro {*$_i$/$_j$} [ryuugaku-si –tei-ru] aida-ni] sin-da.
          [Taro-Gen son]-Nom study abroad-do-ASP-PRES-while-die-PAST
          "Taro's son$_j$ died while he $_j$was studying abroad."
       b. [[Taro-ga$_i$] musuko]-ga$_j$ fukoo-ni-mo [[pro {$_i$/$_j$} [ryuugaku-si –tei-ru]
          Taro-Nom   unfortunately
          aida-ni] sin-da.
          "Unfortunately, Taro's $_i$ son$_j$ died while he $_i$/$_j$was studying abroad."
       c. Taro-ga$_i$ fukoo-ni-mo [[pro {$_i$/$_j$} ryuugaku-si –tei-ru] aida-ni]
          musuko]-ga$_j$ sin-da

Based on the evidence so far presented, Doron and Heycock (1999) and Akiyama (2004) conclude that the initial nominative phrases in the constructions above are indeed subjects. They exhibit all the properties presumably associated with thematic subjects. However, they are different from Narrow Subjects in a number of respects. Most importantly, they are base-generated in [Spec, TP] while Narrow Subjects are base-generated within the VP, and thus their existence

in [Spec, TP] is due to movement. That is, the occurrence of these nominative phrases in multiple specifiers of TP is the result of two different operations: *Move* in the case of Narrow Subjects and *Merge* in the case of Broad Subjects (Doron and Heycock, 1999, p. 77).

A straightforward piece of evidence for base-generation comes from Modern Standard Arabic where Broad Subjects cannot trigger verbal agreement. Consider the following illustrative examples:
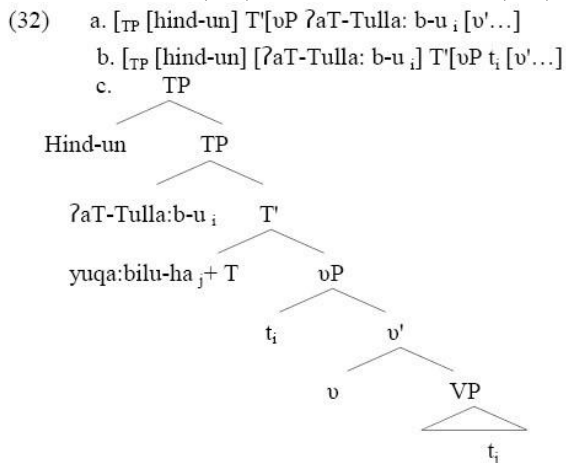
(29) a. ʔaT-Tulla: b-u   yuqa:bilu-una   hind-an
        the-students (M)-NOM   meet (3M)-P   Hind(F)-ACC
        "The students are meeting Hind."
      b. hind-un   yuqa:bilu-ha   T-Tulla:b-u
        Hind(F)-NOM   meet (3M)-her the-students(M)-NOM
        "The students are meeting Hind."
        Literally: "Hind, the students are meeting her."
        (form Doron and Heycock, 1999,p.77)

(30) hind-un   samʕa-haa   muħammad-un
      Hind-nom   heard.3sm-her   Muhammad-nom
      "Hind, Muhammad heard her."
(31) al-kitaab-u   wajada-hu muħammad-un
      the-book-nom   found.3sm-it   Muhammad-nom
      "The book, Muhammad found it."
      (Bakir, 1980, p.60,62)

In (29), for example, the Broad Subject is the first nominative *Hind-un* "Hind" while the Narrow Subject is *ʔaT-Tulla: b-u* "the students." Based on Chomsky's proposal that features cannot be checked by an element in the position in which it is merged, Doron and Heycock conclude that the Broad subject *Hindun* is merged at [Spec, TP] and thus cannot check agreement features there.

Now with these facts in mind, it is reasonable to assume that these NPs all enter into a checking relation with T. That is, T is a probe that has an uninterpretable [+multiple] feature that can undergo several operations of checking. Once T is introduced, the Narrow Subject moves covertly to an inner Spec of TP, followed by the merge of the Broad Subject. It is at this point in the derivation that they enter into a checking relation with T. Therefore, a sentence like (29b) above has the D-structure in (32a) and the S-structure in (32b), with the tree (32c):

(32)   a. [$_{TP}$ [hind-un] T'[υP ʔaT-Tulla: b-u $_i$ [υ'…]
       b. [$_{TP}$ [hind-un] [ʔaT-Tulla: b-u $_i$] T'[υP t$_i$ [υ'…]
      c.   TP

To conclude, the cross-linguistic data provided above presented empirical evidence for multiple feature-checking as proposed by Chomsky (1995) and Ura (2000). We have argued that the assumption that υ and T may allow for multiple feature-checking provides an insightful analysis of constructions involving multiple accusative and nominative constructions in the languages under consideration

IV. Conclusion

We have presented an account of case checking in constructions governed by Arabic verbs of communication and speech. Following Ura (2000), we have argued that these verbs allow a multiple checking of their accusative case feature. Under this analysis, multiple specifiers of υP are projected to provide positions where the nominal DP and the subject of the embedded clause get to check their case features by entering each into a checking relation with the verb under a Spec-head configuration. Empirical as well as cross-linguistic evidence has been given to support the proposed account.

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A Study of Interpreting Skills from the Perspective of Interpreting Process

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Abstract—**The paper starts from the analysis of the interpreting process, analyzes the problems and factors that may effects the quality of interpreting in different procedures, then focuses on the discussion of four categories of interpreting skills, namely, listening comprehension skills, decoding skills, recording skills, and re-expressing skills to overcome those problems and factors.**

Index Terms—**interpreting skills, interpreting process, comprehension, recording, decoding, re-expressing**

I. INTRODUCTION

Interpreting as a modern profession has established its status in the international communities. Interpreters help people overcome languages barriers, dispel their suspicion and serve as a bridge in intercultural communication. But, to finish all these tasks, an interpreter should possess special talents and skills and therefore interpreting skills have become one of the hot issues that received wide attention. Also, based on the analysis of interpreting process and all aspects of the teaching of it, the experts, at home and abroad, are generally convinced that it is the prime task and ultimate objective of teaching interpretation to train abilities and skills. Liu Miqing (1999) states that the sooner one gets aware of the significance of the interpretative skills training, the sooner he/she will be good at interpretation.

Yet research on interpretation in our country is still at the primary stage, and no systematic theories have been established to show interpreters and those want-to-be interpreters what kind of skills they must possess and how to possess necessary skills effectively. In this case, the current thesis will probe into the issue of interpreting skills from the perspective of interpreting process.

II. ANALYSIS OF INTERPRETING PROCESS

A. The Perception Procedure

There are mainly two ways for the interpreter to perceive the message: one is auditory perception and the other is visual perception. In this procedure, factors that will influence the quality of the interpretation include the interpreter's listening ability, and the setting.

Compared with the general listening, listening in interpreting is a more complicated and difficult process. The setting, temporal and physical conditions, in which communication takes place also play an important role in the interpretation process. Time constraints for speakers at conferences often lead them to deliver their message at a furious pace. Noisy listening conditions make the reception of the communicating message difficult both for intended receptors and for the interpreter.

B. The Decoding Procedure

The decoding procedure follows in an almost indiscernible instance, during which the interpreter processes the information stored in the "perceptual auditory storage" and extracts necessary information from both linguistic and non-linguistic codes. It is where the message is born.

In this procedure, factors that will influence the quality of the interpretation include the source, particularly the speaker, the interpreter's linguistic competence and his background knowledge, which includes the knowledge of the world and knowledge of the subject under discussion.

C. The Recording Procedure

In this procedure, the interpreter's memory plays a crucial role, and is a decisive factor in whether this procedure is successful or not or at least in how much the interpreter can get from the source's speech. A supplementary way of securing this procedure is note-taking, which seems to be more important in consecutive interpretation.

Recording must be based on comprehension, and it is two folded, mental and written. According to Bao Gang (1998), there are three kinds of memories in human being's information processing system, known as sensory store (perception), short term store (working memory) and long term store (permanent memory) (p.146). Among these three kinds of memories, working memory plays an important part in our work especially in interpreting, but short memory is severely limited in size, it can only hold approximately seven plus or minus two information units.

Obviously, we cannot solely depend on our brain and memory while interpreting. Instead we should make good use

of notes to help enlarge each unit and help record information as much and accurate as possible. From the above analysis, it can be concluded that recording stage in interpreting process must be fulfilled with the combination of effective mental memorization and necessary notes.

D. The Encoding Procedure

This procedure includes the activation of the target language (TL) elements found in the long-term memory, as well as syntactic and semantic word processing and word-string processing according to the TL syntactic and semantic information stored in long-term memory. The result is a paraphrase in TL of the source language message.

As long as the interpreter successfully accomplishes the first three procedures, factors that take effect on this procedure include the interpreter's second language proficiency, his master of various kinds of translation skills, and the intended receptors.

E. The Expressing Procedure

Expression is the terminal procedure in the process of interpretation. Although sound and effective expression can only be realized on the basis of successful fulfillment of the first four procedures , expression itself directly influences the final output and result, thus of great significance.

It is without doubt that the preceding procedures are the decisive factors for the success of the last procedure. However, there are still some points that the interpreter must pay attention in terms of the way of expressing. The interpreter's voice should be loud enough for everybody to hear, and it should be smooth and even, and the pitch should be appropriate. The interpreter's pronunciation of words should at least be good and constant, if not standard British or American English.

III. BASIC INTERPRETING SKILLS

A. Listening Skills

1. Anticipation

Anticipation is an important means that helps the interpreter to relieve the on-line memory load so that the processing capacity can be preserved for other efforts. From the aspect of language knowledge, anticipation can be generated from three levels, namely, the grammatical, syntactic and contextual levels.

At the grammatical level, anticipation can be activated by taking care of some signals offering clues for predicting what may come next to follow up such signals. Generally speaking, the signals will lead to set phrases and expressions. At the syntactic level, within a sentence, the meaning can sometimes be anticipated thanks to the presence of conjunctions which usually imply certain logic relationship between different parts of the sentences, such as although, therefore, etc. At the contextual level, the anticipation will be further expanded into a combination of several sentences or several paragraphs, which can be made based on the vocabulary, grammar rules, fixed phrases and idioms and the logical relations within the context.

The most important point is that all the anticipations are based on the topic-specific knowledge because all the meaning of the language comes from the combination of grammatical meaning and context meaning.

2. Improve psychological preparation

Effective listening is very important for comprehending the discourse. However, it is quite possible that the interpreters will get nervous when they are listening to the speaker's speech. As a matter of fact, getting nervous is inevitable for anyone who is going to interpret. While listening to the speaker, they should have a clear understanding of their identity and try to compose themselves as soon as possible before doing the interpreting job. The interpreters should set up confidence and enhance spirit to overcome difficulties.

The interpreters should learn to listen effectively. To listen effectively needs attention and concentration. Concentrating properly does not mean adopting a certain posture, frowning and straining with clenched fist, and it means to focus on the speaker's speeches.

When interpreters hear an idea that is not immediately clear to them, or miss an idea in the heat of the moment, the interpreters should keep calm and cautiously. At this time, the interpreters learn to continually fill in gaps as they listen, refer back on what they have already understood and understand difficult and unclear points by listening effectively to what is said.

3. Use redundancy in listening training

Interpreting work requires concentrated or discriminative listening, also known as active listening, which means avoiding all distractions and learning to be alert. The redundancy present in speech is a great advantage for the interpreters. In other words, they should learn to distinguish useful information from redundant information, and only concentrate their attention on the essential information.

Besides following the speaker's line of thought and catching the main idea, interpreters should also try to detect his/her attitude, mood and tone, recognizing special stylistic characteristics and rhetorical strategies used by him. These can provide non-linguistic information for the interpreter, thus forming the proper context for his speech, which might provide some hints for the interpreter in case he fails to catch one word or two during listening.

4. Use the expert or booth mate's help

In consecutive interpreting, when an interpreter runs into comprehension problems, he may run to experts on site for help. Although the credibility of the interpreter may be reduced, this tactic can save the interpreter from misunderstanding and the serious problems in reconstruction.

In simultaneous interpreting, there are theoretically at least two interpreters in the booth at all times. One is active, while the other is passive. The passive colleague, who can devote full attention to listening, has a better chance of understanding difficult speech segment than the active interpreter, who has to share his attention into listening comprehension, short-term memory and reconstruction. Moreover, the passive interpreter has enough time to consult a glossary of other documents, and then give the information to the active interpreter, in writing or by murmuring.

5. Consult document during interpreting

An interpreter can also look for solution in documents, especially when there is no help from experts present or from the passive colleague available.

This tactic may be time-consuming and requires much processing capacity, but finding an important word in a document that had been read and marked before the conference can be very fast.

B. Decoding Skills

1. Cultivate familiarity with English pronunciations and dialects

As interpretation must be done orally, all the contents of interpretation soon fade away, interpreters should understand all the things the moment speeches come out. And owing to different geographic situation, cultural background and educational standard, people's pronunciation, intonation, wording and way of talking differ from each other. It is important to know the rule of pronunciation of source language and the feature of oral English. And sometimes interpreters have to work for non-native speakers, for example, Japanese, African, etc. Their pronunciations are generally hard to understand with the influence of their mother tongue.

Familiarity with different accents and dialects which is one of the symbols of senior interpreters can give some clues for interpreters during the course of interpretation so that they can fulfill interpreting tasks better. As non-native English speakers are trained in different places and organizations which have different pronunciation standards, and moreover, speeches made in international conferences often embodied features of Arabic, Nigerian and Spain English. Therefore, interpreters have to get themselves familiar with the diversity of English pronunciation and dialect.

2. Master a well-knit vocabulary system

Here, vocabulary includes not only ordinary words that can be found in dictionary, but also newly adopted words, abbreviations, slang and jargons. Nowadays, abbreviations are popular and common in the oral styles like oral communication and conference interpretations. The wide use of abbreviations had posed high requirements on interpreters. Except for the existence of abbreviations, English slang and jargons are hard nuts to crack to understand an English speech. Slang, an informal language, is often used in some informal situations, but they do appear in some non-official meetings and conferences.

Almost every interpreting assignment will challenge the interpreter with a complete new glossary of a certain field or discipline. Although understanding of special terms will not guarantee a successful interpretation, failure to do so will undoubtedly put an interpreter into a dilemma. As an interpreter is a generalist, to master a well-knit vocabulary is only the first step of accumulating background information.

3. Smooth shift of sentence structures between source language and target language

Theoretically, interpreters tend to have good command of languages and they know most syntax rules and sentence structures, but practically, "language specificity" often disturbs their thinking. Take English and Chinese as examples, attributives are pre-posed in Chinese, this is what linguists called "left-branching", while in English attributive clauses are often post-posed and "right-branching".

This difference may cause problems in interpretation. For instance,"姑苏号称水乡泽国，其水巷千姿百态，高低宽窄错落有致，尺度宜人富有韵律，留恋岸边，移舟水面，宁静幽雅，诗意盎然。"We have ample time in written translation and it can be put into English with a post-posed attributive clause. However, time is limited to form a sentence with well-knit structure, so interpreters should compromise to remain major information while give up its form.

4. Form logical analysis

Logical analysis can help facilitate comprehension, so it is necessary and important to train interpreter a logical analyzer. There are several ways to form logical analysis in interpretation. The first one is cognitive analyzing, in which interpreters relate the speaker' speech to their own knowing and understanding. The second one is analyzing according to position, in which interpreters make analysis based on their positions.

Each interpreter has his own views and judgment on certain things and remarks. These views and judgment can be helpful to understand the involving issues more deeply and accurately and easier to remember. But what worth mentioning is that no matter what attitude the interpreter has, his views cannot be revealed in the interpretation, for interpreters must interpret all the things in an objective, neutral manner, otherwise misinterpretation will occur.

5. Gradual Accumulation of ELK

Interpreting is a communication process that demands the interpreter have not only linguistic knowledge-phonology, lexis, syntax, semantics and texts which enables him to receive aural messages, but also extra-linguistic or encyclopedic

knowledge (ELK) to help pave the way to efficient oral communication.

Extra-linguistic knowledge can be classified into three subcategories: knowledge of specific subject matter, knowledge of different interpreting situations and knowledge of cultural background. Subject knowledge refers to the basic knowledge for a particular field under discussion. Situational knowledge is also known as contextual knowledge which includes the background of speakers and audience, general information about the situation and some ideas of the working environment.

However, unlike linguistic knowledge, extra-linguistic language is much more subjective and dynamic. It can be pre-existing, for it is the knowledge which the interpreter has before he accepts a certain assignment and it can also be the knowledge which the interpreter takes from the context and the communicative situation. A good interpreter should be imbued with the spirit of the people who speak the language he is working with, familiar with their tradition, and closely acquainted with those literary works which have influenced the language. He should also appreciate their sense of humor, know the outstanding names of their history, sense the nuances of their styles as well as other euphemisms that may have lost their original meanings in part or in whole. To some extent, the interpreter could be regarded as a cultural bridge between people who are unfamiliar with each other's language and culture.

C.   Recording Skills

In this procedure, the interpreter's memory plays a crucial role, and is a decisive factor in whether this procedure is successful or not or at least in how much the interpreter can get from the source's speech. A supplementary way of securing this procedure is note-taking, which seems to be more important in consecutive interpretation.

1. Visualizing memorization

Visualizing memorization is to visualize what the speaker is saying, for example, to form a picture or certain scene to accentuate memory. Such pictures and scenes are called situational models which are built on the basis of special or consequential relationship of contexts and thus acquire the longest time to be remembered.

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The result of experiments showed that the capacity of memory of viewed pictures and image is much larger than that of words and speech. If interpreters can store the information of source speech as a single or a series of situational models rather than just words and sentences, they can memorize relatively more information with fewer symbols.

2. Outlining memorization

Interpretation is an oral communicative activity with strong purposes and be influenced by differed situations and discourses. Generally, each interpreting activity is focused on one or more clear topics and each speaker will keep consistence on the given topics. All these make outlining memorization possible.

Interpreters can make full use of the structure and main ideas of source language speech to outline the contents. In the outline or framework, what the interpreter memorized are the key points and the relationship among them. Later, the interpreter can use this outline or framework to activate relevant information in long term memory included. This skill is so useful that all the information can be completely generalized suitable for speeches to make arguments or introduction.

3. Reasoning memorization

Psychological and psycholinguistic experiments show that information is stored in form of abstract network. Reasoning memorization requires interpreters to make good use of the relationship among different information to combine bigger information units. This way of memorization is suitable for those boring speeches without good consistence.

4. Chunking

Chunking is a proven effective way to enlarge the short term store (STS) capacity in interpreting in that it allows interpreters to handle more information at one time. By recoiling the information held in STS with the activation of relevant information in long term store (LTS), new meaningful larger units of information that are familiar to interpreters are formed.

One way is to chunk the words into grammatical constituents such as nouns and verb phrases, thereby reducing the storage burden to perhaps two or three constituents. Chunking in interpreting is a process during which interpreters actively analyze, summarize and reorganize the messages of the speech. The external representation of chunking is to extract the key words from various layers of sense.

The key words can be either from the original speech or generated by interpreters to best summarize the intended meaning of a specific layer. In doing so, the memorization of a whole paragraph becomes the memorization of several key words. However, the collective use of key words cannot represent that full message intended in the speech since there do exist logical links between different layers of meaning as between different chunks.

Interpreters must, therefore, search for or generate the logical links during the chunking process besides extracting or generating the key words of messages. Key words are the pearls in a memory necklace while logical links are the thread that links the pearls. Together, they form the meaning structure of the full messages contained in speech. During the memorizing stage, interpreters mainly memorize the key words and logical links while in the recalling stage, they have to reactive them as the correspondent clues of the speech and then make out the sense of the speech they are going to

interpret.

5. Note-taking skills

The success of interpretation is determined largely by interpreters' comprehensive recording capability. As there is a limit of human memory, so the recording capability includes "necessary note-taking" besides the mental recording of information in human mind. The notes taken for the purpose of interpretation are different from those written down by means of stenography. According to Li Kuiliu (1994), stenography is used to settle the contradiction between speech speed and recording speed, and it is the transformation between different ways of expression and involves only one language in its process while interpreters take notes to reveal original sense instead of original speech itself. Stenography needs great amount of attention and psychological concentration, however, interpreters must spare large portion of attention to realize the smooth comprehension and re-expression. What interpreters need to jot down in notes is words or symbols that can convey the important messages, clearly to recognize and can be told efficiently.

Generally speaking, interpreters should bring a pad of appropriate size with them which is easy to look through. And in order to make the notes convenient to be read out, the contents written down in each line should not be too much to avoid the occurrence of misunderstandings and misinterpretation. Space should be left after each phrase or sense group and diagonals must be added after each sentence, and when a comparative long paragraph is over, a line can be drawn to make the note clearer and help interpreters find the right place to start and finish interpreting units.

It is advisable that an interpreter should take notes vertically so as to break the sentences into sense units for easy digestion. Ladder structure pattern can vividly embody the logic order of the speaker. Taking notes in this way can help the interpreter follow the speaker's trace of thoughts. Thus he can perform the interpretation task more efficiently.

As far as the contents of the notes are concerned, first of all, what should be kept in the notes is the main idea of the original text. Secondly, it is words used to link or separate ideas like "and", "or", "but", etc. Thirdly, it is the point of view of the original text. Fourthly, the tense should be taken into consideration. And finally, it is contents such as numbers, dates, proper nouns, lists, etc.

It should be emphasized that what should be recorded in one's notes is not the actual words used in the original text, but its information. For example, numbers are very important in note-taking and they must be recorded accurately. However, what these numbers refer to is more important than these numbers.

Taking notes can help the interpreter remember the details and long sentences of a speech. However, in practicing note taking, many people will meet a dilemma, that is, sometimes taking notes will take away their focus, too. The only way to break through the bottleneck in note-taking training is to keep on practicing and learn to strike a balance. Good notes are always simple and easy, thus taking away the least focus possible.

Interpreters should not take notes for notes' sake. An interpreter may use either source language or target language or both in taking notes. He may choose the language that comes to his mind as the easiest or most appropriate one.

D.   Re-expression Skills

1. Timely adjustment

Zhang Weiwei (1999) has asserted that interpreters can follow the principle of syntactic linearity during interpreting. It means that the interpreters follow the order of the source language, segmenting the input sentences into sense groups, concepts or information units and then naturally linking them together by some techniques so as to interpret the original meaning of the whole discourse. For example, in translating the sentence "I went to Holiday Inn for a seminar, at 10 o'clock yesterday." According to the principle of syntactic linearity, we may interpret the sentence as"我去了假日酒店参加一个研讨会，在十点钟，昨天。"This sentence sounds awkward. As far as the latter part of the sentence is concerned we had better make timely adjustment and add some words to it so as to make it sound more natural. The version"时间是在昨天上午10点"will be much better than the previous version.

By "timely adjustment" we mean interpreters should adjust the organization of language from time to time. Usually by making addition we can complement the meaning or tense or other minute information contained in the SL.

2. Adding information

Due to the difference in culture and habits, sometimes, interpreters need add some words or change the sentence structure to express the speaker's meaning. The following is an example.

The source speech: 特别是中下游河段, 水能集中, 交通方便, 工程量小，地理位置好, 所以被国家列为十大水电基地之一。

The target language: The middle and lower reaches of the river are particularly characterized by concentrated water energy, convenient transportation, small construction quantity as well as good geographical situation thus being listed as one of the ten largest hydropower basis in the country.

The interpretation adds one word "characterized", but the meaning becomes more clearly.

3. Reconstructing the segmental information in context

When the interpreter fails to hear or understand certain segmental information in the discourse, he can try to reconstruct it with the help of the context. His knowledge of language, his understanding of the subject and the situation he is in may also help him to reconstruct. If it is successful, the reconstruction can result in full recovery of the information.

However, since we need to allocate time and processing capacity on reconstruction, which may increase time

pressure on the interpreter, reconstruction from the context can be used if needed, but it should not be considered as a highly priority tactic.

4. Reformulation

Due to the limitation of one's processing capacity, it is quite possible that the interpreter may miss some information when the information density is too high for him to cope with. On such occasions, the interpreter may reformulate the main idea in a general way. Though the accuracy of the discourse decreases, the audience can still get a whole picture of what the speaker has said. If the interpreter understands the meaning of the terms used in SL, but can hardly find the equivalent words in the TL, they can use paraphrasing or explaining method to get the meaning across.

5. Paraphrasing and explaining

For the so-called checkmates, it's impossible to find out an equal in TL in a short time, and the equal is not enough to make the audience understand the meaning of the source speech, in this case, paraphrasing and explaining are necessary.

In paraphrasing, the interpreters should obey the following rules:

a. They should not omit the facts given in the original text.

b. They should not change or alternate facts stated in the original text.

c. They should not slant attitude, stance, point of view, and tone that are stated explicitly in the original message.

Here are some paraphrasing tactics:

a. Changing the parts-of speech.

b. Changing the sentence structure.

c. Breaking up the long sentence into several short ones.

6. Reproducing the sound heard in the SL speech

When the interpreter comes across a proper noun or technical term which he can not recognize, he may reproduce the sound as heard. If the audience knows that term or proper noun, they may recognize it at once.

In conclusion, this section introduces some useful techniques that can be adopted in interpreting. Bearing these tactics in mind, the interpreter may tackle the problems in a more skillful way. However, these tactics cannot be overused, since they achieve successful reformulation at the sacrifice of overlooking some information.

IV. CONCLUSION

This thesis probes interpreting skills from the perspective of interpreting process and proposes four main categories of skills to ensure the smooth fulfillment of the five procedures in interpreting process. It is hoped that this thesis will enable the language learners and those want-to-be interpreters to acquire a clearer understanding of interpreting skills and carry out relevant practices so as to make bigger progress.

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The Effect of Extensive Reading on Iranian EFL Learners' Motivation for Speaking

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Abstract—The present study was conducted to investigate the effect of extensive reading (ER) on Iranian EFL learners' motivation for speaking. The participants were 60 students from different levels (i.e., 20 elementary, 20 intermediate and 20 advanced) at an English institute in which there was a library. The participants did ER for twelve weeks (2 semesters) and studied three books (graded readers) in one week. To meet the aim of the study, a 155-item questionnaire (Gardner's 104-item AMTB questionnaire (Gardner, 1985) and 51-item questionnaire developed by Schmidt et al., 1996) were administered to the participants. Data were analyzed using ANOVA. Results indicated that ER did not have a significant effect on EFL learners' motivation for speaking across the three levels.

Index Terms—extensive reading, motivation, graded readers, speaking

I. INTRODUCTION

A number of researchers (Bell, 2001; Day &Bamford, 1998; Leung, 2002; Nation, 1997; Takase, 2007; Yamashita, 2008) have stressed that Extensive Reading (ER) can play an important role in learners' language education and language proficiency. ER seems to have outstanding effects on improving all four language learning skills (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing). Learners benefit from ER in a range of language uses and language knowledge (Shen, 2008). According to Tanaka and Stapleton (2007), and Mason and Krashen (1997), many studies (Bell, 2001; Shue, 2004) have emphasized the benefits of ER and its positive impact on reading comprehension, vocabulary knowledge, writing performance and grammatical competence. Apart from these, ER has been shown to have a considerable effect on foreign language (FL) learners' motivation to read as an effective domain (Leung, 2002; Mason &Krashen, 1997; Nishino, 2007; Takase, 2007). The emphasis on motivation is essential for weak readers who lack the will to read and find FL learning difficult.

The most widely used concept for explaining the failure or success of FL learners is motivation. As a key factor in following anything in our lives (Gardner, 2001b-as cited in Kato, Yasumoto& Van Aacken, 2007), motivation also plays an important role in language acquisition. It provides a source of energy that is responsible for why learners decide to make an effort to learn another language and how long they are going to continue it (Brewster &Fager, 2002).

Reading is a source of information and a pleasant activity which must be learnt because of its importance as a communicative and learning tool. Among all benefits of ER, the two obvious goals are enabling students to read without stopping and providing an increased knowledge of words (Day &Bamford, 1998). Benettayeb (2010) has stated that ER is a kind of active process which involves the reader in getting the meaning, interpreting and extracting information. It may be a good way for EFL learners who want to keep contact with English outside the classroom with no help. He has also contended that ER mainly zooms on recognizing and solving some reading difficulties related to vocabulary knowledge. Apart from these, EFL learners make noticeable gains on grammar too. Kit U (2009) has claimed that almost all participants (92 of the 99 experimental students) in his study reported the positive effect of ER program on their L2 vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension. Therefore, when the vocabulary and grammatical knowledge of FL learners increase, they become more interested and motivated in reading (Day &Bamford, 1998; Jarrell, 2003) and this may lead to a high level of interest in communication.

Students' motivation is an important factor in the success of anything they want to do. In SLA studies, there are two important classifications for motivation: intrinsic/extrinsic and integrative/instrumental. Intrinsic motivation, which is important in promoting success, refers to the motivation inside a person with no reward except the activity itself, while extrinsic motivation refers to the motivation outside a person with an expectation of reward from outside (Brewster & Fager, 2000; Chalak&kassaian, 2010; Zubairi&Sarudin, 2009).

Gardner and Lambert (1972) argued that integrative motivation means the desire to find out about the culture of SL and learn it to communicate with its members to become a part of that society, this is different from instrumental

motivation that refers to the motivation to acquire SL as a means of promoting a career or job or reading technical texts (as cited in Chalak&Kassaian, 2010).

As mentioned above, motivation is one of the crucial predictors of FL performance and has a basic role in language acquisition (Mori, 2002). Teachers often observe in their classrooms that students prefer to be silent; they avoid asking and answering questions. This avoidance may be due to lack of enough vocabulary knowledge which affects students' motivation for speaking. Students' unwillingness to speak and communicate in FL classroom will often lead to unwillingness to communicate in real contexts. The question which is raised here is "how can we enhance FL learners' motivation for speaking in both classroom and real contexts?"

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study aims at answering the following questions:
1. Is there any improvement in FL learners' motivation for speaking following an ER program?
2. Are there any significant differences among the effects of ER on elementary, intermediate and advanced learners' motivation for speaking?

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Mason and Krashen (1997), in their study about university level students of English as a foreign language in Japan who had failed English, proposed that after a semester of doing ER program, the experimental group's gains were greater than the gains made by the comparison group in reading comprehension and reading motivation. In this study the improvement in attitudes and motivation shown by the experimental students was the most important and influential finding which helped unwilling students of EFL to become earnest readers.

Day and Bamford published a book in 1998 in which the characteristics of ER and its positive effects on different language skills were discussed. The authors defined ER as "an approach to the teaching and learning of second language reading in which learners read large quantities of books and other materials that are well within their linguistic competence" (p. 8). They claimed that ER can play an important role in learners' language education and language proficiency. They claimed that the success of ER depends considerably on interesting texts- "in the absence of interesting texts very little is possible" (p. 28). This success can be gained through reading graded readers which provide important factors such as "entertainment, information, learning to read and becoming hooked on books" (p. 61). The findings of their study indicated a large amount of positive results in reading ability, reading motivation, reading speed, word recognition, vocabulary size, grammar, fluency, spelling and automaticity.

Leung (2002) investigated the effect of ER on a Japanese female adult's self-study over a 20-week period. He gained some outstanding results about that learner in his study. A big improvement was shown in the learner's ability to recognize words and use them in semantically and grammatically correct sentences. Leung claimed that the gains in grammar and vocabulary knowledge resulted from the large linguistic input she experienced through ER and self-study. In addition, her reading comprehension gradually improved and she got this opportunity through ER and self-study as well. Furthermore, both her confidence and her excitement toward reading increased gradually. As a result, her positive attitude towards reading also improved. Leung asserted that having a large quantity of reading materials suited to each learner's interest and their proficiency level, was a key factor in successful ER.

Mori (2002) conducted an investigation into motivation to read in a foreign language. He hypothesized that motivation to communicate and motivation to read may be different and unrelated. A total number of 447 female students of a university participated in this study. The findings indicated that in Japan, where students do not have enough contact with English language and English culture, students do not have the necessary desire to read English newspapers, magazines, etc. It was also revealed that the more L2 learners contact with the target language, the more they become motivated to read in L2. However, their willingness and motivation to read did not affect their motivation to communicate. Consequently, according to the gained results, motivation to read and motivation to communicate can be neither the same nor related.

Asraf and Ahmad (2003) investigated the effect of ER program on reading motivation in three rural secondary or middle schools in Malaysia with the purpose of motivating students to read extensively as much as possible, helping them solve their problems in understanding texts. They discussed the principles of ER for rural school students, the purpose of the reading program and its characteristics, the materials used, and the attitudes of students participating in the program. The results suggested that ER was one of the best ways to help students develop their proficiency in language learning. They also showed that students, who read extensively, learned the language incidentally, their positive attitudes towards reading were increased and finally their language proficiency was improved. This study was done during a period of four months and the findings suggested that rural school students gained some advantages from doing ER. Almost all of the students in this study developed positive attitudes towards reading in English and became motivated to read English books. The findings also revealed that students' language proficiency was also increased through this longitudinal reading program.

The effect of ER on developing FL competence specially on reading comprehension, attitudes towards and motivation for learning FL has been studied in many studies over the past decade. Hitosugi and Day (2004) in their

study about doing ER program in a Japanese university for beginners gained positive results after a ten-week program which showed that students' scores were enhanced with a traditional measure of reading comprehension. They also found positive and outstanding results in students' attitudes toward and motivation for learning Japanese. In this study, Hitosugi and Day claims that ten weeks is too short to gain remarkable results in language learning. However, the beginner students of the university showed great improvement by reading easy materials.

ER program has been implemented in many educational environments in Japan. Powel (2005) studied the role of this kind of reading in Japanese high schools. The results showed that ER increased learners' reading abilities and other language skills; it was also a basis for listening, speaking and writing activities. Students who participated in this program confirmed that not only they enjoyed ER, but also their abilities and attitudes developed. As students chose books within their own capability range, less proficient students were not worried about not keeping up with advanced ones. In this way their motivation to read improved. Powell also observed a great development in vocabulary and grammatical knowledge, automaticity, comprehension skills, confidence and motivation during his study. Therefore, ER has an important role in language learning process.

Rosszell (2006), in his study about the role of ER in second language vocabulary acquisition, indicated some purposes, such as increasing ER practitioners' awareness of the importance of vocabulary acquisition, and stimulating them to focus on their practices which follow all the suggestions made in the second language vocabulary acquisition literature. He argued against the usefulness of inferring word meanings from context and suggested that although guessing the meaning of the words from context might be useful comprehension strategy and probably a practical way to strengthen known vocabularies, it was a deficient strategy for learning new vocabulary (Hulstijn, 2001; Nation, 2001). In ER, learners read self-selected books and titles with few follow-up activities to fix the gained knowledge, as a result of his experimenting with both self-selected group and class readers, Rosszell found that class reader approach was more practical and suitable for learners' needs. He added that when learners read books as a class, many of their difficulties can be overcome in comparison with readers who read self-selected books. Moreover, teachers can directly observe the problems. He also maintained that as learners work in pairs and in groups; they gain word meaning and usage from each other. Therefore, they comprehend, remember and use new vocabularies better and easier.

Pigada and Schmitt (2006) examined the effect of ER on vocabulary acquisition. This case study of a French learner analyzed the effect of ER on improving lexical knowledge and how vocabulary acquisition changes in relation to how often learners encounter words in the text. The results showed that firstly, ER increased the knowledge of spelling, meaning and grammatical behavior of words in the text. Secondly, spelling knowledge benefited mostly from ER, especially in languages which are difficult to spell such as French. Therefore, English spelling knowledge can be mainly developed due to its spelling simplicity in comparison with French. Apart from this, learners can also acquire meaning through reading but not to the same extent. Overall, spelling is the lexical aspect that mostly benefited from ER with even few exposures. Knowledge of meaning and prepositions seems to be obtained gradually at a similar lower level. Finally, lexical knowledge improvement is affected by the frequency of occurrence in the texts. However, when words are seen more than twenty times in a text, word knowledge will be increased.

Waring (2006) claims that ER or graded reading is a necessary part of any language program. In order to illustrate ER, he introduced two different types of learning: 1) learning to use language, and 2) studying about language. The former means to be able to use language fluently in communicative contexts without sticking to the language features and the latter means understanding how the language works and finding about its vocabulary, grammar, sound system, etc. He argues that the focus of ER and GR is on meaning; therefore, they are preferred over course books in language learning and teaching. Learners increase their vocabulary knowledge through more exposure to a large amount of texts. They learn new vocabulary and enrich the old ones, as Nation (1997) agreed upon as well. Consequently, this depth of vocabulary knowledge gives learners the confidence in speaking and writing.

A number of studies (Day &Bamford, 1998; Nation, 1997) have shown proficiency gains through ER. Imrie (2007) started an investigation concerning the benefits of ER in promoting autonomy. The growth of learners' autonomy through using graded readers and the degree of success were discussed in his paper. Reading out of the classroom is usually considered one of the characteristics of ER which has clear and outstanding benefits. In this study, the more the students were exposed to graded readers out of the classroom, the better their reading speed was. As the students read self-selected books at their own proficiency level out of the classroom, they took responsibility for their own learning. This process of learning was continued wherever and whenever they wanted and it also made students independent learners. Independency, autonomy, or individualization were the terms used to define the way of working which learners are expected to do in ER program. Imrie also proposed that ER changed learners' study and reading habits. Graded readers were very successful in ER as a means of presenting learners' autonomy through selecting what they wanted to read; they were also suitable for learners' proficiency level at their favorite time and place out of the classroom. In fact, these factors all led to improved and successful autonomy.

Yamashita (2008) discussed the effects of this kind of reading on the development of different aspects of L2 proficiency and FL/SL ability. Some of these abilities may be improved and some may not. For the students included in this study, their English class was the target class, and the only reading they did during the program was ER. Yamashita also argued that this type of reading (ER) seems more likely to improve the acquisition of vocabulary, expressions and automaticity. This may be the cause of repetitive exposure to the reading materials and the target language. As

development of general reading ability and lower-level linguistic ability were also examined in his study, the findings indicated an improvement in reading ability of participants. However, their linguistic ability did not change and stayed constant.

Lee and Hsu (2009) examined the impact of ER on less successful students' writing in a Taiwanese university. In the measurement of their writing, five subscales were included: content, vocabulary organization, mechanics and language use. The same numbers of writing assignments were done by all of the students in a writing class. The results indicated that reading has a strong and remarkable effect on writing and fluency. Having a longer duration was essential in having better results and this study confirmed that the longer the period of ER program, the better the writing development.

Benettayeb (2010) investigated the role of ER in vocabulary learning and teaching, automaticity, and reading fluency. She proposed that reading as a communicative and a learning tool was a basic skill which must be learnt by FL/SL learners. She also argued that among the numerous types of techniques for teaching vocabulary, ER is the best. Based on her study, the relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension is evident. The findings indicated that without understanding the text vocabularies, text comprehension was impossible both in native and foreign languages. In other words, reading development is supported by vocabulary knowledge and vocabulary knowledge is increased through reading. Therefore, the more FL/SL learners read, the more the exposure to vocabulary items, and the more their reading fluency develops.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of the present study were 60 students (30 control group and 30 experimental group) studying EFL in an English institute. Their sex and age were not taken into account. They were selected from among the elementary, intermediate and advanced levels. All of the participants took both pre-test and post-test of Gardner' AMTB and Schmidt et al.'s MQ in Persian with a total number of 155 questions. They were assigned to three groups of 20 members each (20 elementary, 20 intermediate and 20 advanced participants) in which 10 of the participants were in the control group who continued their regular reading instruction and the other 10 participants were in the experimental group who did ER program during two semesters.

Instruments

For conducting the study and collecting data, the following instruments were used:

■ **Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) and Schmidt's Motivation Questionnaire (SMQ):** In order to collect data in the field of motivation as an important factor in language acquisition, these questionnaires with a total number of 155 questions (104 questions of the former and 51 questions of the latter in which 1 item was asked in four different ways) were administered to all elementary, intermediate and advanced levels to know about their motivation level.

■ **Pre-test and Post-test:** Since the participants in the study might not have the same level of motivation for speaking, AMTB and SMQ pre-tests were administered to them to know about their prior motivation. After all participants did ER program, for measuring the level of their motivation for speaking AMTB and SMQ post-tests were given to all of them as well.

■ **Graded Readers (GR):** The students were asked to use the graded readers which were available in the library of the institute.

■ **Library:** The library of the institute had 120 graded readers for all levels; the books were classified into three parts according to the level of the books: 1) beginner and elementary, 2) lower-intermediate and intermediate, 3) upper-intermediate and advanced. Students chose their books based on their levels and interest with their library cards.

Procedure

A total number of 60 students in an English institute were selected. Sex and age were not taken into account. To collect data about students' prior motivation, the AMTB and SMQ pre-tests were administered to all participants. As a treatment one session was held to introduce ER and the process of doing this kind of reading to the students. Then, from the following session students were asked to choose a graded reader from the institute's library based on their interest at their own level. The participants were supposed to read three books in a week (all classes were held 3 times a week). They were also asked to keep reading extensively following their own interest as an out of class activity. To make sure that all participants keep reading extensively, the teacher asked them to give a summary (oral or written) of what they had read. To have a serious reading program, the students were also told that the program is part of their English education and will affect their final scores. The period of ER practice lasted for 2 whole semesters (12 weeks). At the end of the instruction, the post-test of AMTB and SMQ were administered to the participants to be compared with data collected in pre-test.

V. RESULTS

A set of test scores should satisfy four assumptions before being analyzed through parametric tests (Filed, 2009). These four assumptions are Independence, Interval data, normality and homogeneity of variances. The assumptions of independence and interval data do not have any statistical indices. No subject should participate in more than one group

– independence – and the dependent variable(s) should be measured at least on an interval scale –interval data. However the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances should be probed empirically.

In order to test the assumption of normality, the ratio of Skewness and Kurtosis over their respective standard errors should be within the ranges of +/- 1.96 (Filed, 2009). As displayed in Table 1, the ratios of Skewness and Kurtosis over their associated standard errors are all with in the ranges of +/- 1.96. Based on these results it can be concluded that the present data enjoy normality assumption.

TABLE 1.
NORMALITY TESTS

	N	Mean	Skewness		Normality of Skewness	Kurtosis		Normality Of Kurtosis
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error		Statistic	Std. Error	
PRETEST	60	635.2500	-0.555	0.309	-1.79	0.597	0.608	0.98
POSTTEST	60	634.9333	-0.476	0.309	1.54	0.896	0.608	1.47

The assumption of homogeneity of variances will be covered when discussing the results of the independent t-test and two-way ANOVA below.

Pretest

An independent t-test was used to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the pretest in order to prove that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their motivation for speaking before the administration of the treatment. The t-observe value of 1.27 (P = 0.208 > 0.05) indicates that there were no significant differences between the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the pretest. This shows that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their motivation for speaking before the administration of the treatment.

TABLE 2.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST PRETEST OF SPEAKING MOTIVATION

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.02	0.317	1.27	58	0.208	11.10	8.71	-6.34	28.54
Equal variances not assumed			1.27	54.54	0.208	11.10	8.71	-6.36	28.56

As displayed in Table 3, the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the pretest of speaking motivation are 629.70 and 640.80, respectively.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRETEST OF SPEAKING MOTIVATION

GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CONTROL	30	640.8000	29.19424	5.33011
EXPERIMENTAL	30	629.7000	37.76255	6.89447

The assumption of homogeneity of variances is met. As displayed in Table 2, the Levene's F of 1.02 (P = 0.31 > 0.05) is not significant. That is why the first rows of Table 2, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" is reported.

Research Questions

1) Is there any improvement in FL learners' motivation for speaking following an ER program?

2) Are there any significant differences among the effect of ER on elementary, intermediate and advanced learners' motivation for speaking?

A two-way ANOVA was run to investigate the effect of the proficiency level (advanced, intermediate and elementary) and grouping variable (experimental and control) on the posttest. The F-value for the comparison of the two groups probed the first research question while the F-value for the effect of the proficiency levels tapped on the second research question.

As displayed in Table 4, the Levene's F of 1.47 (P = 0.21 > 0.05) is not significant. Thus it can be concluded that the two-way ANOVA design does not violate the assumption of homogeneity of variances.

TABLE 4.
LEVENE'S TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES FOR TWO-WAY ANOVA

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.478	5	54	0.212

The F-observed value for the effect of the treatment factor was not significant (F = 3.45, P = 0.069 > 0.05) (Table 5). Based on these results it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest of speaking motivation. Thus the first null-hypothesis as there is not any improvement in FL learners' motivation for speaking following an ER program is supported.

TABLE 5.
TWO-WAY ANOVA RESULTS FOR POST-TEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
GROUP	2208.267	1	2208.267	3.454	0.069
PROFICIENCY	869.633	2	434.817	0.680	0.511
GROUP * PROFICIENCY	17337.233	2	8668.617	13.559	0.000
Error	34524.600	54	639.344		
Total	24243360.00	60			

As displayed in Table 6 the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the posttest of speaking motivation are 628.86 and 641, respectively.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS POSTTEST OF SPEAKING MOTIVATION BY GROUPS

GROUP	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CONTROL	641.000	4.616	631.745	650.255
EXPERIMENTAL	628.867	4.616	619.611	638.122

The F-observed value for the effect of the proficiency levels was not significant (F = 0.68, P = 0.51 > 0.05) (Table 5). Based on these results, it can be concluded that the proficiency levels do not have any significant effect on the performance of the students on the posttest of speaking motivation. Thus the second null-hypothesis as there are not any significant differences among the effect of ER on elementary, intermediate and advanced learners' motivation for speaking is also supported.

As displayed in Table 7 the mean scores for the advanced, intermediate and elementary students on the posttest of speaking motivation are 637.55, 629.55 and 637.70, respectively.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS POSTTEST OF SPEAKING MOTIVATION BY PROFICIENCY LEVELS

PROFICIENCY	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
ADVANCED	637.550	5.654	626.215	648.885
INTERMEDIATE	629.550	5.654	618.215	640.885
ELEMNTARY	637.700	5.654	626.365	649.035

As it is the concern of the present study, there is a significant interaction between the grouping variables and the proficiency levels (F = 13.55, P = 0.000 < 0.05) (Table 5). As displayed in Table 8 and Graph 1, at elementary and intermediate levels, the experimental group performed better than the control group. However at advanced level the reverse happened. The control group outperformed the experimental group.

TABLE 8
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS INTERACTION BETWEEN GROUPING VARIABLE AND PROFICIENCY LEVELS

GROUP	PROFICIENCY	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CONTROL	ADVANCED	667.600	7.996	651.569	683.631
	INTERMEDIATE	622.200	7.996	606.169	638.231
	ELEMNTARY	633.200	7.996	617.169	649.231
EXPERIMENTAL	ADVANCED	607.500	7.996	591.469	623.531
	INTERMEDIATE	636.900	7.996	620.869	652.931
	ELEMNTARY	642.200	7.996	626.169	658.231
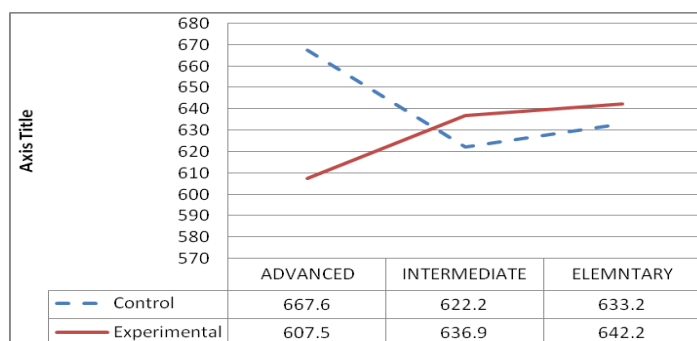
Graph 1. Interaction between Grouping Variable and Proficiency Levels

VI. DISCUSSION

The present study examined the effect of ER on Iranian EFL learners' motivation for speaking. According to the results ER was not effective for Iranian L2 learners who lack the necessary motivation for speaking. In this section, the unexpected results of the present study are compared with the results of the studies conducted previously. Based on the results, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest of speaking motivation. Thus the first null-hypothesis as there is not any improvement in FL learners' motivation for speaking following an ER program is supported. This means after doing ER for L2 learners of an institute in Iran during 12 weeks, their motivation for speaking did not increase. The finding of this study is in agreement with the study by Mori (2002), who hypothesized that reading and motivation to communicate may be different and unrelated. The finding of his study showed that when students do not have enough contact with English language and culture, they do not have the necessary desire to read English texts. He claimed that the more the L2 learners contact with the target language, the more they become motivated to read in L2. However, according to his study, and the amount of their reading, L2 learners' motivation to read did not affect their motivation to communicate.

The investigations that have been done by Day and Bamford (1998), Powell (2005), and Waring (2006) are in contrast to the findings the present study. The findings of the investigations by Day and Bamford (1998), and Powell (2005) showed that ER is the basis for listening, speaking and writing activities. In addition, Waring (2006) declared that being exposure to vocabularies and the large number of texts in ER or GR, high vocabulary knowledge makes learners confident enough in speaking and writing. However the present study showed that ER had no significant effect on L2 learners' speaking.

Although many studies (Asraf& Ahmad, 2003; Bell, 2001; Fender, 2008; Hitosugi& Day, 2004; Nishino 2007; Powell, 2005; Shen, 2008) have done ER program on L2 learners of different levels, the findings of most of them showed that ER affects students who have low L2 proficiency level. However, the results of the present study revealed that the F-observed value for the effect of the proficiency levels was not significant. Based on the results of the present study, it can be concluded that the proficiency levels do not have any significant effect on the performance of the students on the posttest of speaking motivation. Thus the second null-hypothesis as there are no significant differences among the effect of ER on elementary, intermediate and advanced learners' motivation for speaking is supported as well.

Doing ER in the present study lasted for twelve weeks but the post tests showed ER did not affect the participants' motivation for speaking. This may be due to insufficient time for doing ER. As Asraf and Ahmad (2003) and Hitosugi and Day (2004) claimed, to gain remarkable results in language learning, L2 learners needed a longitudinal reading program. In this study, the period of ER program was 12 weeks which is too short to achieve the favorite results.

VII. CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the present study, the learners' speaking motivation is not related to reading extensively. Although the participants read three books in a week during two semesters, their motivation did not change. This may be due to the limited time they had for experiencing ER as Asraf and Ahmad (2003) and Hitosugi and Day (2004) agreed upon. In addition, in Iran L2 learners do not have the necessary desire to read English texts such as newspapers, magazines, books, etc. This may be due to the lack of contact with English language and culture. Therefore, lack of improvement in participants' speaking motivation in this study can be due to the fact that they did not have enough contact with English and this leads them to demotivation in reading. Consequently, the less they read in English, the less they improve in speaking and language knowledge.

It was also found that ER is not related to the learners' proficiency level. Students' motivation for speaking in all three levels (elementary, intermediate and advanced) was not impressed by reading extensively. Despite the fact that ER develops FL learners' L2 vocabulary, grammar, spelling, reading speed, reading comprehension and reading motivation, it did not improve the participants' motivation for speaking across the proficiency levels.

ER can be used in schools and universities' curriculums for longer periods of time. Teachers and university instructors can use ER in their classes for FL learners to motivate them to read. This may help FL learners to improve their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. Further research should be conducted in the area of extensive reading, motivation, and speaking or communicating in foreign languages. Future studies can investigate whether allocation of longer period of time for ER program affect EFL learners' speaking motivation, and whether learners' gender affect their motivation to read extensively.

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A Study of Appraisal in Chinese Academic Book Reviews

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Abstract—This article employed Appraisal theory to study the rhetoric and stylistic features of Chinese academic book reviews. A corpus of 30 Chinese academic book reviews were studied from the perspective of the "attitude resources" employed by the book reviewers to present his/her opinion on the book under review, and the perspective of the "engagement resources" by which the reviewers position their authorial voices with respect to, and engage with, the other voices and alternative positions.

Index Terms—appraisal theory, academic book reviews, discourse analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

The academic book review is an important sub-genre of academic discourse. The major purpose of this special genre, usually published in international journals, is to introduce a new book to the general readers in an academic discipline, and at the same time, to "evaluate the scholarly work of a professional peer within the scholarly community" (Lindholm-Romantschuk, 1998, p. 40). From the perspective of Systemic Functional Linguistics, the three variables of the context of situation through which the genre of academic book reviews is realized can be briefly described as follows: (1) field: information about the content of the book as well as the reviewer's opinion of the book will be provided; (2) tenor: the reviewer provides information and the readers receive the information, and the reviewer tries to persuade the readers to accept his opinion of the book; (3) mode: formal written language published in academic journals. We should say that the deepest study on academic book reviews was done by Hyland (2004) in his work *Disciplinary Discourses: Social Interactions in Academic Writing.* In his research Hyland studied hundreds of academic book reviews from more than twenty disciplines, all of which were publish in 1997. Through observing how book reviewers 'praise' and 'criticize' the book under review, Hyland concluded that the reason why soft discipline and hard discipline practice 'praise' and 'criticism' differently is because different disciplinary cultures' requirements are different. At the level of ethnic culture, Salager-Meyer and Alcaraz Ariza (2004) compared criticisms in medical book reviews, and found that French, English, and Spanish book reviewers used criticism differently in terms of frequency, indirectness and the way of mitigating criticisms. For example, it is the Spanish book reviewer who was found to have made the most criticisms in their book reviews. And a lot of mitigation expressions were employed by Spanish and French reviewers to make their criticism mild and easy to be accepted. In contrast, English reviewers were found to make critical points more directly without using those mitigation expressions. Another contrastive study of book reviews written by people from different national cultures was conducted by Hiroko Itakura and Amy B.M. Tsui (2011). Their paper investigated how English and Japanese book reviews make critical points in their book reviews. They collected 20 English and 20 Japanese linguistics book reviews. Their findings show that Japanese book reviews have a lot of striking differences from the English book reviews. 'Rhetorical questions', 'self-denigration', 'recasting problems as potential for future research' and 'attributing problems to the next generation' are used only in Japanese reviews. In addition, Ana I. Moreno and Lorena Suarez (2008) conducted a research to compare English and Spanish book reviewers' ways to show their positive and negative attitude to the books under review. Their results suggest that compared with the English book reviewers, peninsular Spanish writers of literary academic book reviews are, generally speaking, much less critical and are less likely to evaluate the book under review negatively.

All the previous studies mentioned above suggest that academic book review is a culture-specific sub-genre of academic discourse, both in terms of disciplinary culture and in terms of ethnic culture. The present study applies the concept of "appraisal" and "generic structure" to the analysis, with an aim of investigating how academic book reviewers in Chinese cultural context employ appraisal resources in each generic stage to produce a coherent, reader-friendly prose, and at the same time engage his or her readers (book author and other general readers).

II. APPRAISAL THEORY

Appraisal Theory concerns about the interpersonal meaning of a language. It is considered to be a significant development of the theory within the paradigm of Systemic Functional Linguistics. The major concerns of Appraisal

Theory include how writers or speakers express their stance toward the things or ongoing events in the world, how they express their agreement or disagreement with the potential responses form the other readers, and how they establish and strengthen their identities in a text or discourse. Martin and White (2005, p. 20) believe that appraisal items in a language should be assigned to the rank of discourse semantics. The level of discourse semantics is more abstract than the level of grammar and lexis, which is more abstract than the level of phonology and graphology. The highest rank, discourse semantics, is about how to organize clauses into a meaningful discourse. The function practiced by appraisal items in a discourse is to help writers or speakers to express their evaluation, negotiate their relationship with the respondents, and establish their persona.
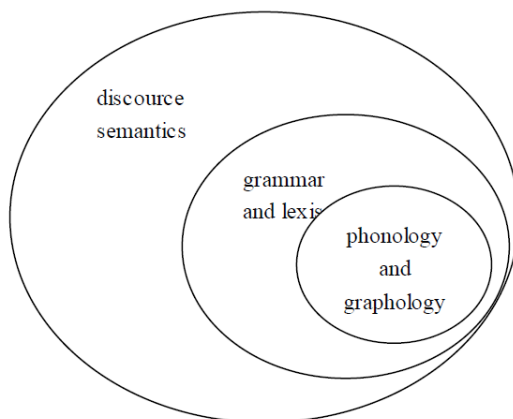

Figure I. Language strata (Martin & White, 2005)

According to Martin & White (2005), appraisal items can be employed to express people's attitudes, positive or negative feelings towards material things or social events. In this sense, attitude is classified into their minor system: affect, judgment and appreciation. Modality is another aspect which has attracted linguists' attention. Within the paradigm of Appraisal Theory, modality helps writers or speakers to show whether they are certain, confident or committed about certain issues. The term 'engagement' is used in Appraisal Theory to substitute the term 'modality'.

A. Attitude

A subsystem within Attitude is called 'affect'. The linguistic terms in this category are those that express human beings' emotive reaction. In the following examples about human beings' emotion, we can find dis/inclination, un/happiness, in/security, and dis/satisfaction. According to Martin & White (2005), affect items are a natural part of our languages because we human beings are born with the need to express our feelings towards the world.

TABLE I.
LEXICAL REALIZATION OF AFFECT (MARTIN & WHITE, 2005)

Affect	Positive	Negative
dis/inclination	demand, request	afraid
un/happiness	buoyant, adore	gloomy, broken-hearted
in/security	trusting, together	startled, freak out
dis/satisfaction	absorbed, satisfied	sick of, fed up with

Another subsystem within Attitude is called 'judgment'. Judgment refers to human beings' attitude towards behavior. Judgment items include expressions about whether a person's behavior is normal, whether he is capable, whether he is reliable, whether he is trustworthy, or whether he is moral, etc. Positive judgment is for the good behaviors that we admire, while negative judgment is for the bad behavior that we criticize.

TABLE II.
LEXICAL REALIZATION OF JUDGMENT (MARTIN & WHITE, 2005)

Judgment	Positive	Negative
normality	predictable, cool, fashionable	unpredictable, erratic, out-of-date
capacity	witty, humorous, expert, successful	dull, dreary, inexpert, unsuccessful
tenacity	cautious, careful, loyal, constant	rash hasty, disloyal, inconstant
veracity	frank, discrete, tactful	deceptive, blunt, blabbermouth
propriety	modest, humble, respectful, generous	snobby, arrogant, discourteous

Appreciation is a kind of evaluation, not on human beings' behaviors, but on things, whether natural or artificial. Reaction is about whether the object attracts us or not. Composition is about whether the object is in order. And valuation is about whether the object is worthwhile.

TABLE III.
LEXICAL REALIZATION OF APPRECIATION (MARTIN & WHITE, 2005)

Appreciation	Positive	Negative
Reaction 1	moving, lively, dramatic	dry, flat, tedious
reaction 2	good, appealing, enchanting	yuk, ugly, revolting
composition 1	logical, shapely, unified	flawed, disorganized, shapeless
composition 2	elegant, rich, detailed	simplistic, wooly, monolithic
valuation	profound, creative, genuine	fake, useless, bogus

B. Engagement

Engagement refers to the linguistic items that help the writer or the speaker to engage in a dialogue with the value positions the discourse is talking about or with the people who are addressed. Linguist Voloshinov expressed the nature of human beings' interaction like this:

The actual reality of language-speech is not the abstract system of linguistic forms, nor the isolated monologic utterance, and not the psychological act of its implementation, but the social event of verbal interaction implemented in an utterance or utterances (Voloshinov, 1995, p.138)

In Appraisal Theory, engagement system is composed of monogloss and hetergloss. Within the category of monogloss, bare assertion is expressed as the only one voice to be heard, which is considered to be intersubjectively neutral, and leaves no open space for alternative voices. Within the category of heterogloss, two sub-categories are included. They are dislogistically contractive items like 'disclaim' and 'proclaim', and dialogistically expansive items like 'entertain' and 'attribute'. The following table shows the monoglossic and heteroglossic features of our utterances:

TABLE IV.
MONOGLOSS AND HETEROGLOSS

monoglossic	heterogloss
This book is thought-provoking.	This book is not thought-provoking. Professor Mair said this book is thought-provoking. There can be no denying that this book is thought-provoking. In my view, this book is thought-provoking.

III. METHODOLOGY

The data of present study is composed of a corpus of 30 Chinese reviews, written by competent L 1 writers and experienced researchers in the field of linguistics. Four criteria were used to select the book reviews. First, we chose book reviews from the same academic discipline. The journals selected for the Chinese academic book reviews are: 外语教学与研究, 修辞学习, and 中国语文. These journals were chosen because they are regarded as authoritative in the field of linguistics and only good reviews could be accepted and published. The second criteria is the historical time, because this factor may affect the type and frequency of appraisal used in the corpora (Salager-Meyer, 2006). So in the present study, only texts published form 2008 to 2011 were included. The third criteria is that only the book reviews written by a single reviewer were chosen, and that was to "eliminate stylistic differences between individual reviewers" (Hiroko Itakura & Amy B.M. Tsui, 2011). The fourth criteria is the length of the book reviews. Since the length of individual texts is considered as a potential confounding factor (Ana I. Moreno & Lorena Suarez, 2008), we excluded those academic book reviews that are too long or too short. Table 4 below shows the average number of words per book review and the average number of words of the corpus

TABLE V.
NUMBER OF WORDS IN THE CHINESE BOOK REVIEW CORPUS

	Chinese academic book reviews(30)
Total number of words	32,610
Average number of words per book review	1,087

All the reviews in the two sub-corpora were analyzed at different generic structure stages. Martin (1984, p. 25) defines genre as a staged, goal-orientated, and purposeful social activity that people engage in as members of their culture. "Social because we participate in genres with other people; goal orientated because we use genres to get things done; staged because it usually takes us a few steps to reach our goals" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 32-33). From the perspective of appraisal, the kinds of evaluations that a genre employ to attain its goals and how it displays these evaluations would attract the researchers (Martin & White, 2005, p. 33). Based on Martin's theory of generic structure, the present study suggests that academic book review can be divided into three stages: INTRODUCTION, OVERVIEW, and EVALUATION. INTRODUCTION, as an optional stage, brings the book and its author into the picture and gives them a preliminary over-all evaluation. OVERVIEW, as an obligatory stage, outlines the book under review, provides an account of book's major elements. This part is usually interspersed with evaluation from the reviewer. EVALUATION is another obligatory stage where the reviewer comes to a final evaluation of the book as a whole and may appraise the author as successful or not in writing this book.

IV. FINDINGS

A prominent feature of the appraisal resources in academic book reviews is that they seem to permeate the whole text from the beginning to the end. Almost every stage of an academic book review is filled with various instances of evaluation. Table 5 illustrates the appraisal resources we found in the 3 generic stages of the 30 Chinese academic book reviews.

Generally speaking, the frequency of affect is much lower than that of judgment and appreciation in Chinese academic book review texts. The reviewer seldom expresses his opinion of the book under review by talking about his own emotional reactions, probably because affect is the most subjective among the three subcategories of attitude and it seems not professional and convincing enough to comment by relying too much on affective resources. Instead, evaluation of a book is mainly achieved through appreciation values targeted at the book or judgment values targeted at the book author. And we found more appreciation than judgment across the three genetic stages. That is probably because, compared with an evaluation on things, an evaluation on people is more likely to be challenged.

TABLE VI.
DISTRIBUTION OF CHINESE APPRAISAL RESOURCES ACROSS DIFFERENT GENERIC STAGES

Appraisal resources	Introduction (per thousand words)	Overview (per thousand words)	Evaluation (per thousand words)
AFFECT	6.1	3.3	10.2
JUDGEMENT	11.1	9.4	16.4
APPRECIATION	44.1	35.2	50.1

A. Appraisal at the Generic Stage of Introduction

The analysis of the Chinese academic book reviews reveals that in the generic stage of Introduction, there are more resources used to express the reviewers' AFFECT than in the Overview stage; and the resources for AFFECT in the Evaluation outnumber the first two stages. In the opening of book reviews, 8 instances of positive AFFECT were found in the book review corpus. All of the 8 instances of AFFECT are used to show the reviewers inclination or satisfaction. In the following examples, the reviewer used one sentence from a poem to show how cheerful he/she was when he/she finally had the opportunity to read the reviewed book.

(1) "千呼万唤始出来"。

(Translation: Finally it showed up!)

(2) 数年前，听到郑子瑜先生编写我国第一部规模宏大的修辞学通史，我是十分高兴的。现在，看到《中国修辞学通史》的出版，怎不令人万分喜悦呢!

(Translation: Several years ago, I was glad when I was told that Mr. Zheng was compiling a book about the history of Chinese rhetorics. Now, I was hilarious when I finally saw the book got published.)

In the first example, the reviewer didn't reveal his/her AFFECT directly, but the idiomatic meaning of the sentence helped expressed how much he/she longed for the publish of the reviewed book in a symbolic way. While in the second example, the review's love of the book was expressed directly and assertively.

Just like the resources of AFFECT, the resources of JUDGMENT in the Introduction stage outnumber that in the Overview stage, but are less than that in the Evaluation stage. All the judgments of the book author are positive, and the praises are directed to the book authors' talent, their capacity and their contribution the research in their fields of study.

For example:

(3) 本书作者是美国语言学界颇具影响力的青年语言学家之一。

(Translation: The author of the book is one of the most influential young linguists in America.)

(4) 郑先生是著名的语言学家，他对古文有着丰赡的学养。

(Translation: Mr. Zheng is a well-known linguist, and he has quite a deep understanding on Chinese Classics.)

In the Chinese academic book reviews, we also found some instances of self-judgment: the judgment on the book reviews by themselves. All of these judgments can be labeled as self-denigration.

For example:

(5) 本人才疏学浅，如有评论不当之处，敬请谅解。

(Translation: The reviewer of the book is not knowledgeable, so if the review is not appropriate, please forgive me.)

The self-denigration in the Introduction stage is used here to reduce the face-threat of the book review. By judging oneself negatively as "not knowledgeable", the book reviewer used the negative politeness strategy to establish solidarity with the book author. Attending to the face needs of the book reviewer is one of the concerns of book reviewers since the unfolding review is sure to be full of critical comments on the book and its author.

B. Appraisal at the Generic Stage of Overview

In the stage of Overview, the reviewer is expected to take a neutral standing to present the outline of the reviewed book objectively to the readers. So the number of appraisal resources in this stage is fewer compared with the other two stages. In this stage, the book reviewers represent the book authors to introduce the reviewed books to the readers so they believe that they don't have to negotiate with the readers. That is the reason why monogloss is used more to describe the content of the reviewed book.

For example:

(6) 全书有八章,由三部分组成:第一部分是概念部分(第一、二章),主要介绍相关的背景知识。第二部分是实证部分(第三至第六章),也是全书的核心部分,主要讨论具体的语言现象。第三部分是总结部分(第七、八章),这部分从更宽广的视角,详细呈现了该系统的整体结构。

(Translation: The book is composed of 8 chapters, 3 parts: the first part introduces the main concepts (chapter 1 and chapter 2), and it is mainly about the background knowledge. The second part is the empirical research (chapter 3 to chapter 6). This part is the main body of the whole book, and it talks mainly about linguistic phenomena. The third part is the conclusion (chapter 7 and 8). This part describes the structure of the system from a broader perspective.

Extra-vocalise is also found in the 30 Chinese academic book reviews. With the help of extra-vocalise, the book reviewer combine his/her voice with that of the book author, and thereby reduce the space for confliction.

(7) Hale和Keyser认为词汇与句法是可以相容的。

(Translation: Hale and Keyser believe that lexis and syntax are compatible.)

Sometimes, the book reviewer's voice and the book author's voice are mingled together, and it's difficult to discern the two. This is also a strategy book reviewers employ to make the review's opinion fuzzy, so as to reduce the potential risk of being challenged.

(8) 布斯希望全社会注重修辞教育的重要性.

(Translation: Buss hoped the whole society to pay attention to the significance of rhetorics education.)

Assimilation in example (8) makes it impossible to discern the reviewer's opinion from the book author—Buss' opinion.

C. Appraisal at the Generic Stage of Evaluation

The stage of Evaluation is the part where book reviewers feel free to express his/her subjective opinions. So the appraisal resources in this part outnumber the other two parts. With an understanding that they are expected by the readers to give an authoritative evaluation of the book and its author, the book reviewer employ more intra-vocalise to express his/her opinions. With intra-vocalise, contractive expressions outnumber that of the expansive expressions.

For example:

(9) 毫无疑问，西方修辞学史是一部深入探讨西方修辞的力作。

(Translation: There is no doubt that the *history of Western rhetorics* is a great work exploring deeply the rhetorics in the West.)

In most of the positive evaluations, contractive engagement expressions are employed by the book reviewers to express the reviewers' praises. While, for those negative comments, the book reviewers employ expansive engagement expressions so as to negotiate with different voices.

For example:

(10) 我们相信，叙事重构在其日后问世的著作中会得到更深刻的讨论。

(Translation: We believe that the narrative reconstruction will be discussed more deeply in the author's future books.)

(11) 我认为，对此部分的简略叙述也可能是作者有意为之。

(Translation: I think the author may deliberately give this part a brief description.)

In example (10), the expression "we believe" serves to expand the space for negotiation because the criticism is just "our" opinion. And in the statement following "we believe" is an expectation that the current problem will be solved in future research, which softens the criticism. In example (11). the expression "I think" is used for the same purpose-- to expand the following critical statement dialogically.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study aimed to employ appraisal theory to analyze Chinese academic book reviews. Its findings suggest that appraisal resources function effectively to help the book reviews to negotiate their inter-subjective positions with the book authors and the general readers. However, findings of the present study will be more complete if more studies are done about book reviews from other different academic fields. The research results would be more convincing if individual book reviewer is interviewed to talk about their understanding on writing book reviews, their relationship with the book authors, and their educational background regarding critical thinking.

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The Study of Written Errors of EFL Pre-university Learners

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Abstract—**In a second and foreign language setting, all language learners inevitably produce errors when they write or speak the second or foreign language. Therefore, systematic analysis of the errors is very valuable and can provide a useful insight into the processes of the second or foreign language acquisition. Error analysis as a branch of Applied Linguistics is one of the best tools for describing and explaining errors made by speakers of other languages. A test was administered to a group of one hundred Pre-University students enrolled in Bushehr Pre-Universities Schools. This study aims to classify "errors" made by the students at the sentence levels such as: Article, passive and Active and Tenses. The research shows errors committed in the use of Article, Passive and Active forms and Tenses. Finally, this study suggests remedial measures regarding type of errors committed by the Iranian EFL students.**

Index Terms—**error, error analysis, written errors, EFL learners**

I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study is to examine the written errors of Iranian –pre-university such as articles, tense, and active and passive voice. Khansir (2008, b) argued that error analysis, a branch of Applied Linguistics, emerged to reveal that learner errors were not only because of the learners' native language but also they reflected some universal learning strategies. This is a reaction to contrastive analysis theory, which considered native language interference as the major source of errors in second language learning what behavioristic theory suggested. Ellis (1994, p48) mentioned that "it was not until the 1970s that EA became a recognized part of applied linguistics, a development that owed much to the work of Corder." Corder (1967) introduced many major concepts of Error Analysis which are considered as following:

1. It is the learner who determines what the input is. The teacher can present a linguistic form, but this is not necessarily the input, but simply what is available to be learned.

2. There is distinction between systematic and non-systematic errors. Unsystematic errors occur in one's native language, it is called "mistakes" and they are not significant to the process of language learning, but "errors" which occur in a second language, they are systematic.

3. Errors are significant in three ways such as to the teacher: they show a student's progress, to the researcher: they show how a language is acquired, what strategies the learner uses, and to the learner: he can from these errors.

4. Learner has made an errors, the learner should learn to find the correct linguistic form by searching for it.

5. According contrastive analysis, errors are due to that the learner uses structure from his native language, but Corder claimed that possession of one's native language is facilitative. Errors in this case not inhibitory, but rather evidence of one's learning strategies.

Gass and Selinker (1994) argued that errors as "red flags" that provide evidence of learner's knowledge of the second language. Richard and Sampson (1974, p. 15) mentioned that "at the level of pragmatic classroom experience, error analysis will continue to provide one means by which the teacher assesses learning and teaching and determines priorities for future effort". Corder (1981, p. 24) argued that error analysis has two objects: one theoretical and another applied. The theoretical object serves to "elucidate what and how a learner learns when he studies a second language." And the applied object serves to enable the learner "to learn more efficiently by exploiting our knowledge of his dialect for pedagogical purpose." (cited in Khansir, 2008, b). Error analysis has always played a crucial role in language teaching. Language teachers and specialists are of the view that error analysis can help first, second and foreign language learners develop linguistic competence as part of communicative competence. "Errors are natural for second or foreign learners of English language. Errors hamper communication, which is the main function of language. Sometimes errors committed by second language learners are due to mother tongue interference. Another reason for learners' errors is due to what Richards (1971) mentioned: ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, false concepts hypothesized, developmental errors and over generalization" (cited in Khansir, 2008, P 2. a).

II. REVIEW OF THE PIONEERING STUDIES

Chan (2004) investigated writing errors made by 710 Hong Kong Chinese ESL learners at different proficiency levels with the focus on 5 error types, namely (a) lack of control of the copula (b) incorrect placement of adverbs (c) inability to use the there b*e* structure for expressing the existential or presentative function (d) failure to use the relative clause and (e) confusion in verb transitivity. The results showed confirmatory evidence for syntactic transfer from Chinese to English with regard to the five syntactic patterns selected for experimentation, and the extent of syntactic transfer was particularly large for complex target structures and among learners of a lower proficiency level. Ferris (2002) studied syntactical errors. The results of the study indicated that 22.5% of the errors were due to sentence structure, 2.9% due to lack of proper conjunction, and, 1.8% due incomplete sentences. Wang and Wen (2002) investigated a number of adjective errors related to China learners. According to her findings, 62% of errors were due to transfer in language, 28% due to transfer between languages, and 10% due to strategies in communication.

Ghadessy as one of the Iranian researcher examined errors of 370 freshmen students at Shiraz University in 1976. He divided the Iranian students into 12 sections; approximately 30 students per section. The classification of the students was based on the results of a diagnostic test administered prior to their participation in a five week summer intensive course in English at Shiraz University in 1967. In addition, achievement test was used by him, among other items; the achievement test included a written assignment of approximately 150-200 words on one of three topics printed on a separate sheet at the end of the examination books. In the research, the time was 30 minutes for assignment. Two samples were selected randomly from 11 sections and three samples from the twelfth. The errors were divided by him into two major types. The errors that occurred within sentences and those that related to the relationship between sentences and the combination of sentences into paragraphs.

The types of errors based on the research are classified as follows:
1. Morphology
2. Modal verbs
3. Tenses
4. Articles
5. Word order
6. Syntax
7. Construction
8. Preposition
9. Lexis

The total of the errors of the study were 216, 167 were systematic errors committed by the students and 49 other errors that occurred within the study.

The result of the study showed that 77.3 percent of the writings of Iranian university freshmen learning English contained systematic errors most of which caused by the lack of reducing sentences by either conjunction or embedding. He also concluded that because the majority of students written errors occur in systematic patterns, these patterns could serve as a basis for developing instructional materials for individual learners.

El-Sayed (1982) investigated the frequent syntactic errors in compositions written by Saudi students. The errors were categorized into verbs and verbals, articles, pronouns, nouns, adjectives, and prepositions. Verbs and verbals were found to be the major source of errors. His findings also supported the claim that mother tongue interference was the prime cause of student errors.

Khansir (2008, a) examined syntactical errors of second language learners were studying in the field of Second Year B.Com at Mysore University in India. The purpose of this research was to classify "errors" made by the learners at the sentence levels: Auxiliary verbs, passive and tenses. The study showed that the learners have committed errors in the use of auxiliary verbs, passive forms and tenses. The study indicated that the errors have been committed by the Indian learners was systematic in target language. According to these findings of the study, the errors pertaining to auxiliary verbs, passive voice, and tenses indicated that teaching English was not satisfactory in the colleges, and that learning strategies were the cause of errors.

III. NEED FOR THE STUDY

Today English has a special place in the school curriculum in foreign countries, because English is an international language. There is, however, a feeling that the standard of English is not satisfactory in the foreign countries. In general, in EFL setting, and particular, in Iran teachers and learners of English face several problems. One of the most important problems is that the teachers of English face a large number of errors committed by the learners at pre-university level. Teachers face with this problem every day in their classroom teaching and particularly in the written work of the learners. So far, English teachers have been trying to understand this problem in a scientific manner. The researches have shown significant developments in the areas of learners' errors in recent years that are why; the study investigates the written errors committed by EFL learner's pre-university level. It would be useful to undertake a systematic study of learners' problems in this area.

IV. QUESTION OF THE STUDY

Is there a significant difference between tenses, voice of sentences (active and passive) and articles errors committed by Iranian EFL learners at pre-university level?

V. HYPOTHESES OF THE STUDY

There is a significant difference between tenses, voice of sentences (active and passive) and articles errors committed by Iranian EFL learners at pre-university level.

VI. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To examine types of errors in target language (i.e., English Language).
2. To compare types of errors in tenses, articles, and active and passive.
3. To suggest remedial measures to overcome the committing of errors.

VII. METHODOLOGY

The research concentrates on the errors of writing of Iranian EFL learners at pre- university level. The methodology of this research consisted of the processes: a) Data collection and b) Data analysis.

The collection of data in this study is usually similar to the other studies was determined by its objectives. In this research, the collection of data is used in terms of the objectives: 1) to examine types of errors in target language (i.e. English language); 2) to compare types of errors in tenses, articles, and active and passive) and finally suggest remedial measure to overcome the committing of errors. The data is analyzed utilizing the computer programmed from SPSS in this study.

A. Participants

The subjects for this research were 100 students at Pre-University level in Bushehr. The subjects were randomly selected from Pre- University schools and the students were also both male and female. Fifty of the students were male and the rest were female. The students commenced their studies in September of 2012. The subjects were enrolled in Mathematic, Human Science, and Experimental Science. Most of the students passed their high school course in several schools of Bushehr City.

The students were comprised of 50 male and 50 female who were selected for computer analysis from three Pre-University schools after they took a General English Proficiency Test, and a Grammatical Test (tenses, articles, and active and passive). All of the selected students of the three Pre-University schools studying in Bushehr City were participated for the purpose of collecting data. The Pre-University schools were used to collect data as follows:
1. Doctor Ali Shariati High School1.
2. Omm Abiha High School
3. Hejab High school

B. Instruments

The instruments used in this research were as follows:
A. A General English Proficiency Test (Transparent) for determining the proficiency level in English of the participants.
B. A Background Questionnaire to elicit information on students' age, gender, and level of education.
C. A Grammatical Judgment Test (G.J.T.), which was developed by the investigators on the basis of syntactic competence (tenses, articles, and active and passive), covered in English textbooks designed for the pre- university level.

1. General English Proficiency Test

In this research, The General English Proficiency (Transparent) consisted of 50 multiple choice vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension items was selected to assess the participant's level of proficiency in English. In a administering the test, the first of all, the Researchers piloted the test for the target subject. In addition, 15 students with the same level and similar characteristics to participants of this research were selected in the pilot study. The General English Proficiency Test was found to be appropriate for the participants' performing level. Its reliability through the K-R 21 formula turned out to be .65 and .67 to the pre-university students.

2. Background Questionnaire

In this study, the researchers had to develop a background questionnaire to elicit information on students. The questionnaire developed by the researchers consisted of some questions which were related to their information about parents, language attitude, etc. in addition; Iranian participants' parents in the current study belonged to middle class. They were not only highly educated but also belonged to the middle income group.

3. Grammatical Judgment Test (G.J.T.)

Khansir (2010) argued that Grammatical test has always been used as one method for collecting data. Grammar tests are designed to measure learner's proficiency in an academic work. Grammatical test is a test which aims to measure knowledge or control of grammatical structures, as compared with tests of ability to use the language, such as performance test. The test was used to identify the type of errors in this research. It was chosen to examine the ability of

the students in selecting the correct grammatical rules of sentences. In administering the test, a pilot test was carried out by the researchers for the target subject. Meanwhile, 15 students were selected as pilot study with the same level and similar characteristics to participants of this study participated in the pilot study. To ensure whether the grammatical judgment test is appropriate for subjects of the research, the Researchers experimented with the K-R21 formula. Applying this formula to measure the reliability of grammatical judgment test for the Iranian EFL students appeared 65 and 67.

The Grammatical judgment test utilized in this research was as follows:

Articles, Tenses, and Passive voice (active and passive) which were used in the form of multiple – choice.

C. Procedures

In this research, the following procedures were done by the researchers.

1- Development of the questionnaire.

2- Administration of the proficiency test.

3- Development of the grammaticality judgment test and its administration.

1). Analysis of collected data.

In this research, the role of the grammaticality judgment test was used as the role of pedestal function. Before, the researchers developed and administered the grammaticality judgment test in this research, the English General Proficiency and Background questionnaire tests were developed and administered by the researchers.

1. Administration of the General English Proficiency Test

The test is administered to the Pre-University students. The Researchers selected 100 Pre-University students studying in the three Pre- University schools   to participate in the next stage.

2. The background questionnaire

In this study, the background questionnaire was designed in order to elicit information on the students. The questionnaire developed by the researchers consisted of some questions which were related to their information about parents, language attitude, etc.

3. The Grammatical Judgment Test

In this research, the Grammatical Judgment Test was chosen to examine the ability of the Iranian EFL students in selecting the correct grammatical rules of sentences. Going through the following grammatical books, the Grammatical Judgment Test was developed by the researchers related to this research, because one of the basic principles of selecting a test is to use the scientific books related to the test materials.

1. Modiri, A. H. (1993). English Grammar and Test

2. Farzam, A. (2009) English Grammar and Test

3. Swan, M. (2005) Practical English Usage.

4. Langan, J. (1999) Sentence Skills. A work book for writer.

Meanwhile, the researchers of this study in order to elicit information on their subjects, they visited the Pre-University Schools and discussed with the teachers and studied text books and syllabus.

VIII. ANALYSIS OF COLLECTED DATA

In this research, the analysis of data was concerned with the following tests:

- General English Proficiency Test

-Background Questionnaire

- Grammatical Judgment Test (G.J.T.)

The above tests were analyzed utilizing the computer programmed from SPSS. The statistical analysis proceeded in three steps as follows:

Analysis 1

In the first analysis, the General English Proficiency Test was examined as the first test of this study. After this analysis, the researchers selected students for the purpose of the collecting data.

Analysis 2

In this analysis, the Background Questionnaire was analyzed to elicit information on the students.

Analysis 3

In this analysis, the Grammatical Judgment Test was used to investigate the one hypothesis of the study and errors committed by the Pre-University students.

The analysis of work in this research was concerned with the following processes:

- Classification of errors

- Comparison of errors

- Suggestion of remedial measures

A. Classification of Errors

In the first process, an attempt was made to classify errors of Pre –University students in this research. For example, while analyzing errors of the students, whether it is an error of simple past tense is used instead of passive present perfect tense, or it is an error of wrong use of definite article "the" for indefinite article "a".

B. Comparison of Errors

A further attempt was made to study and compare types of errors of Pre- University Students.

C. Suggestion of Remedial Measure

In the last process of this study, an attempt was made to suggest remedial measures to overcome the committing of errors of Iranian EFL students. The aim was to help the Iranian learners to improve their language and use English flawlessly in the classroom.

IX. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study dealt with the actual analysis of the written errors of the Iranian EFL students in their target language (i.e. English). An attempt is made here to classify the observed errors and categorize them. A further attempt is made to compare types of the written errors of Iranian EFL students. The test was specially chosen to examine the ability of the Iranian EFL students in applying the correct grammatical rules in the construction of the sentence in the English language. The test was classified into three major categories: auxiliary verbs, passive voice, and tense.

Of 1755 the errors which were committed in the grammatical judgment test for this research classified into three major categories. Based on the result of this research, the largest number of errors committed by the Iranian EFL students was from the realm of the article form (669). The minimum number of errors recorded in the test was active and passive voice (506). The three major categories have been presented in table 1.

TABLE (1):
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF WRITTEN ERRORS OF IRANIAN PRE-UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Test item	Pre-university	
	Number of errors	Percent
Active and Passive voice	506	28.8
Article	669	38.2
Tense	580	33
Total	1755	100

In active and passive voice category, the largest number of errors observed was wrong use of ' Simple past tense which was used instead of passive simple past tense. In this sub-category, the number the of pre-university students' errors was 47 which came to 9.8% for errors in sentence voice. The minimum number of errors was recorded in the following sub-categories:

'Present continuous tense was used instead of passive simple present tense', passive present perfect tense is used instead of passive past perfect tense, 'active past continuous tense is used instead of passive simple past tense', simple present tense is used instead of passive simple past tense', ' Present perfect continuous is used instead of passive simple present tense'.(see table 2 in chapter 4). It is possible that the students were not familiar with the rules of transformation from active to passive voice and vice versa. They lacked knowledge on how to use ' passive form' in English language.

In tense category, the largest number of errors observed is that simple present tense is used instead of present continuous tense. In this sub-category, the number of the pre-university students' errors was 46 which came to 8% of errors for tense. The minimum number of errors recorded in the following sub-categories:

'Simple past tense was used instead of present participle tense', 'simple present tense was used instead of simple future tense', 'Simple past tense is used instead of passive simple past tense', 'Simple past tense is used instead of present continuous tense', 'simple present tense is used instead of simple past tense'. It was found that learners were not aware of the rule of tense properly. It is meant that their lack of knowledge of the proper use of tenses has led to errors in this category. For example, they didn't make a distinction between simple past and present participle tense, etc.

In article, the maximum error observed was the wrong use of the omission of the definite article 'the'. In this sub-category, the number of the pre-university student' errors was 155, which came to 22.9%. The minimum number of errors was omission the indefinite article 'an. In this sub-category, the pre-university students committed 73 which came to 10.8 %. The subjects seemed to have not mastered in the use of the English definite and indefinite articles. The learners were not familiar with the use of articles in English.

X. IMPLICATION OF THE STUDY

The outcome of this research, which in many ways is similar to the findings of previous studies, showed that the Iranian learners were not aware of rules of certain grammatical structured of English language. The result of the research indicated that in general, the Iranian learners have committed systematic errors in their English language. Therefore, in this study, it seems that there were several other sources which could be held responsible for the occurrence of the errors in the target language (English). The source of the errors could be held for responsible for the

cause of the Iranian EFL students at the pre-university such as interference of the mother tongue of the learner, complexity of the English language, learner incomplete knowledge or lack of certain structures in English language.

One of the best ways to help teachers of English in EFL settings can be students' errors as output of the results of their studies. The study of learners' errors shows the linguistic area where the learners have the most difficulty in their target language. The role of error analysis as a field of applied linguistics can be used in order to increase the knowledge of researchers, teachers, linguists, and syllabus designers to acquire second and foreign language and resolve the problems of the second and foreign language learners.

The results of the research indicated that the Iranian EFL students are not master of English writing in their schools. The lack of master of English in this linguistic area may be lack of practice and sufficient instruction in writing during their education. Researchers believe that Iranian English teachers should concentered on their students most common errors and use the best methods and techniques in order to increase their students' competent knowledge of English writing and prepare exercises and skills related to the problematic areas of their target language.

XI. CONCLUSION

This study investigated the written errors of EFL learners and its contribution to English language teaching at the pre-university level in Iran. For Iranian students, English Language is used as a foreign language. As results of analysis of learners' errors, 1755 written errors were found in the three categories. Based on the outcome of this study, the largest number of errors caused by the students was from the realm of the article form (669). The minimum number of errors recorded in the test was active and passive voice (506).

The results revealed that there is a significant difference in types of errors between article and active and passive voice. As, there is a significant difference in types of errors between article and tense, but there is no significant difference in types of errors between tense and voice of sentences in pre-university level.

The study shown that Iranian learners' errors was systematic, is mean that the students had lack of knowledge in their target language and teaching English and learning strategies could be responsible for the increase or decrease in the number of the written errors in the students' data in the Iranian Schools. The outcome of the three categories of the written errors in this study can be used as important factors in the preparation of effective teaching materials for Iranian students. In addition, the study of language learning problems can be considered as useful factors in order to provide information to teachers, and help the learners improve their English language and use English flawlessly.

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Visual Images Interpretive Strategies in Multimodal Texts[*]

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Abstract—**A wide range of semiotic resources has been used to construct meaning. Visual systems of meaning offer different resources and potentials for meaning making. Readers need to familiarize themselves with a variety of ways to make sense and read visual images. This paper, drawing on the theories of semiotics, art and visual communication grammar, presents a framework of interpretive strategies to approach, analyze and comprehend the visual images in contemporary multimodal texts, so as to expand the readers' interpretive repertoires and strengthen their capacity in constructing and interpreting multimodal texts.**

Index Terms—**visual images, multimodality text, interpretive strategies**

I. INTRODUCTION

With the rapid advance of science and technology, the ways of human communication have changed greatly. We live in an increasingly visual culture, images, color and other non-verbal resources are no longer used mainly to entertain and illustrate, rather, they are becoming significant in communicating and meaning-making. Today people are increasingly exposed to texts that contain elaborate visual images, unusual narrative structures, complex design elements and unique formats (Goldstone, 2004; Kress, 2003; Serafini, 2011). We communicate through a variety of modes in which language is only one, if not essential part. The use of various semiotic resources in public communication has shown that meaning is realized not only through language but also through the integrated use of a wide range of semiotic resources including static and dynamic ones. In addition, the pervasiveness of visual images in computer interface, children's picturebooks, graphic novels, textbooks, magazines and advertisements require readers to simultaneously employ written text, visual images, and design elements to make meaning. In fact, little contemporary books and articles are not accompanied by visual images, Paul Duncum (2004) states, "…there is no avoiding the multimodal nature of dominant and emerging cultural sites" (P259). Kress (2000) makes the argument that the combined use of different modes to make meaning has gone to the point that it is now possible that when making sense of a text, even of its linguistic parts alone, we have to have a clear idea that some other features might be contributing to the meaning of the text. But the reality is that little attention has been paid to the non-linguistic resources. Therefore in making sense of the multimodal texts, moving beyond the traditional cognitive strategies and enhancing the readers' interpretive abilities is an important part of reading comprehension instruction. Images and texts are being combined in unique ways, and readers in today's world need new skills and strategies for constructing meaning in transaction with these multimodal texts as they are encountered during the social practices of interpretation and representation (Serafini, 2009).

II. MULTIMODALITY AND MULTIMODALITY TEXTS

Multimodality is a term widely discussed by linguists and semioticians.It means "the combination of different semiotic modes — for example, language and music — in a communicative artifact or event."(Van Leeuwen, 2005, P28) It also refers to the diverse ways in which a number of distinct semiotic resource systems are both codeployed and co-contextualized in the making of a text-specific meaning. (Baldry & Thibault, 2006) Therefore, it describes the grammar of visual communication that is used by image designers. It is an analysis of the rules and principles that allows viewers to understand the meaning potential of relative placement of elements, framing, salience, proximity, color saturations, styles of typeface, etc. (Machin, 2007) So we can see that every semiotic mode is a meaning momentum or potential, and multimodality mainly focuses on the study of the interrelationships between various communicative modes, no matter whether they are visual or auditory, words or image. It is a complex combination of meaning making activities that have undergone rapid changes in the contemporary social, cultural, economic and technological context. Moreover, the concept of multimodality is a useful yardstick to measure and evaluate the diversity ways of meaning making.

Multimodal texts, which convey information by means of various modes such as visual images, written language, design elements and other semiotic resources, are more complex than written texts. According to Kress, different logics

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govern the mode of written language and that of visual image: written text is governed by the logic of time or temporal sequence, whereas, visual image is governed by the logic of spatiality, organized arrangements, and simultaneity (Kress, 2003). That is, meaning is derived from position in the temporal sequence of written text, whereas meaning is made from the spatial relations or grammar of visual images (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996). To understand the written language, temporal sequence or order in which words appear in a sentence is very important, for example, the meaning of "John killed Smith" is quite different from that of "Smith killed John". In visual images, the position, size, and composition of the contents of the image play a significant role in the meaning making.

Multimodal discourse analysis is to analyze how several or all of the different semiotic modes intertwine together to create a unified text or communicative event. The premise of multimodal discourse analysis is that in many domains of contemporary writing, textual structure is realized, not by linguistic means, but visually, through layout, color, and typography both at the level of the "clause" and at the level of "discourse". Actually multimodal discourse analysis has become a new trend in the studies of discourse analysis, for it focuses upon the complete communicative aspects of discourse that emerge within interaction.There are many ways to do multimodal discourses analysis, such as content analysis, conversation analysis, social semiotic analysis and so on (Van Leeuwen & Jewitt, 2001). And different perspectives can be taken to analyze them, for example, layout, modality, typography, color, genre, discourse, style and so on are the angles we can choose to do multimodal discourse analysis.

III. VISUAL COMMUNICATION GRAMMAR

Halliday holds that language is a semiotic mode and any semiotic mode has to represent three communicative broad metafunctions, namely the ideational metafunction, the interpersonal metafunction and the textual metafunction, which has a decisive influence on Kress and Van Leeuwen's social semiotic framework of visual communication grammar. In Kress and Van Leeuwen's opinion, the three metafunctions of linguistics can be extended to visual communication. In *Reading Images,* they see image as a resource for representation and thus will display culturally produced regularities. The meanings expressed by people are the first and foremost social meanings, so Halliday's three metafunctions for language can also be used as a starting point for their account of images because they assume the three metafunctions model works well as a source for thinking about all modes of representation (Kress & Van Leeuwen 2006).

Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996, 2006) assume that image, color, music, typography and other visual modes are similar to language and they can simultaneously fulfill and realize the three broad communicative metafunctions as language does. In their view, image and other visual modes can represent objects and their relations in a world outside the representational system, so there are many ideational choices available for visual sign-making in visual communication. They also think that image and other visual modes have the capacity to form texts, complexes of signs which internally cohere with each other and externally with the context in and for which they were produced. Besides, image and other visual modes are able to represent a particular social relation between the producer, the viewer and the object represented. And all semiotic systems are social semiotic systems which allow us to negotiate social and power relationships. They see images of whatever kinds as means for the articulation of ideological position (Kress & Van Leeuwen 2006). That's why in their *Reading Images,* they draw examples from many domains, such as text books, websites, advertisements, magazine articles and so on to express their meaning making in their social practices. The key notion in any semiotics is the "sign", or "sign making", so Kress and Van Leeuwen discuss forms (signifier) such as vector, modality, gaze, composition, perspective, line and color, as well as the way in which these forms are used to realize meanings (signified) in the making of signs.

Based on Halliday's theory, Kress and Van Leeuwen use a slightly different terminology in discussing the meaning of image in visual communication: representational instead of ideational; interactive instead of interpersonal; and compositional instead of textual. As for the representational meaning, they have distinguished two kinds of image in the light of the different characteristics of image: one is narrative images which involve four processes: action process, reactional process, speech and mental process, and conversation process, another is conceptual images which include three kinds: classificational process, analytical process and symbolic process. Kress and Van Leeuwen have suggested three ways to examine the interactive meaning of images from three aspects: contact (demand or offer), social distance (intimate, social, or impersonal), and attitude (involvement, detachment, viewer power, equality, representation power etc.). The compositional meaning of images is realized through three interrelated systems: information value (given or new, ideal or real, important or less), salience (achieved through size, color, tone, focus, perspective,overlap, repetition, etc.), and framing. From Kress and Van Leeuwen's visual grammar, we can see that images are made up of elements that can be decomposed when we analyzed the meaning of them. Just as language, images have meanings only when they are integrated together. That is, the meaning of visual images comes from the arrangement of different visual elements. The three metafunctions put forth by Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) are not direct relationships between semiotic resources and meaning. The concepts such as power, interaction, detachment and involvement and so on are not meanings hidden in the images, rather, they are meaning potentials, that is, they are the possible meanings which will be activated by the producers and viewers of images (Jewitt and Oyama,2001).

IV. VISUAL LITERACY

Nowadays human beings make meaning in a variety of ways, so the traditional notion of 'literacy" should be extended beyond the confines of just being able to read and write. A contemporary definition of "literacy" is " the ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and communicate messages in a variety of forms" (Hobbs, 1997). Then what is visual literacy? Is it interchangeable with another term media literacy?

Shepherd holds the ideas that consumers themselves interact with media messages in the process of making meaning, he is quoted as stating: "Media Literacy is an informed, critical understanding of the mass media. It involves an examination of the techniques, technologies and institutions that are involved in media production, the ability to critically analyze media messages and a recognition of the role that audiences play in making meaning from those messages" (www.media-awareness.ca. 2002.p6). So we can see that media literacy mainly focuses on three major aspects: mass media, how and for what purpose messages are constructed and consumed by the masses.

For textual literacy, reading and writing ability is essential, similarly, the capacity to manipulate and construct meaning with images is significant to visual literacy. Anthony Pennings (2002) gives a more specific definition of visual literacy: "Visual literacy is an emerging area of study which deals with what can be seen and how we interpret what is seen. It is approached from a range of disciplines that: 1) study the physical processes involved in visual perception. 2) use technology to represent visual imagery, and 3) develop intellectual strategies used to interpret and understand what is seen" Based on the definition of general literacy developed by Hobbs (1997), Chauvin (2003) states that "visual literacy is the ability to access, analyze, evaluate, and communicate information in any variety of form that engages the cognitive processing of a visual image". Here visual images may involve body language, motion, dance, two and three dimensional works of art, photographs and clipart, films and video, museum exhibits and dioramas, advertisements, illustrated written or verbal discourse, architecture, hypermedia and visual reality experiences, and so on.

There are even more definitions. From these discussions we can see that both media literacy and visual literacy concern message or meaning construction. Media literacy put emphasis on the mass media which may be visual in nature such as television, magazines, and may be outside the scope of visual experience such as radio and recordings; while visual literacy mainly focuses on the symbolic aspects upon which the meanings or messages are based.

Just as reading and writing are essential to conventional literacy, the ability to construct meaning with images is a core component of visual literacy. The advance of technology has made it possible that the ordinary people are becoming increasingly professional visual designers, for instance, using software photoshop to alter an image digitally, and thus given everyone the ability to join the artists and craftsmen in using visual images to express ideas and thoughts that have always been inside of us in visual forms.

One point should be noted that when defining intelligence, we have come to value linguistic competence very much, and are not aware that visual competence actually precedes linguistic competence and we may say that language evolved through its connection to visual ability, visual literacy may help us to achieve the goal of linguistic literacy. "From nearly our first experience of the world, we organize our needs and pleasures, preferences and fears, with great dependence on what we see (Donis, 1973:1)

V. VISUAL IMAGES INTERPRETIVE STRATEGIES

Through the integration of existing and updated knowledge and the appropriate use of strategies, an active image reader may promote, monitor, coordinate, and maintain the comprehensive comprehension of the image. In analyzing the meanings in Renaissance art, Art historian and critic Panofsky (1955) devised a method often referred to as iconography and iconology. He created an list of various components of a piece of art works, and then identified the conventional meanings and the underlying philosophical meanings and interpretations constructed within the given sociocultural context. He held that there are three levels of meaning: The first level, preiconographic, is the denotative level, mainly focusing on the interpretation of the elementary or natural meaning, which involves the identification of visual materials such as the objects known from daily experience. The second level, iconographic, is the connotative level, mainly focusing on the interpretation of secondary or traditional meanings, and during the interpretive process, the viewers need to move beyond the natural or surface meaning of the image to consider their knowledge and experiences. The third level, iconological, mainly focuses on the interpretation of ideological meanings of an image constructed in particular social, cultural political, and historical contexts. Base on Panofsky's three strata method, a framework of visual images interpretive strategies is introduced to make sense of multimodal texts.

A. Meta-interpretive Strategies

The first and foremost interpretive strategy is the readers' meta-interpretive strategies, that is, the readers must have the awareness of multimodal meaning constructing. They must bear in mind that visual images are no longer ornamental and subsidiary, and are increasingly employed to make sense of the world, often overshadow the once dominant mode of written language. In multimodal texts, the visual semiotic resources are different from the ones drawn upon to create printed texts, and therefore bring with them different meaning making potentials. Different modes which evoke different responses from the reader, writer, listener, and viewer convey meaning differently, but they are complementary and joint contributors to an overall meaning that is more than the meanings conveyed by the separate modes. This meta-interpretive strategy may help the readers to take a more critical reading position, challenging and interrogating the structures and components that authors, illustrators, and designers use to construct meanings (Zammit,

2007).

B. Perceptual Strategy

Then comes the perceptual strategy, that is, what has the readers noticed: the visual and design elements (e.g. pattern, line, shape, color, typography, texture) presented in the multimodal texts. The readers may create an inventory of visual representation, and devise a vocabulary for enumerating and depicting these various elements, which is an important aspect of visual meaning interpretation. Lewis (1990) explained, "When we name things, we call them into being. We permit them to enter our consciousness but only in the garb in which we have dressed them". (P139) Perceiving and noticing the visual elements of a multimodal text is an initial and primary aspect of the meaning comprehension process.

For example, the reader may ask himself/ herself some questions such as:

What can you see from this visual image, or what are the constructing elements of this visual image? What are the format and the dominant colors of the images? Where is the text positioned? Within or beside the image? Or is it separated by borders or white space? What fonts are used? Are there any unusual and abnormal elements (i.e., elements that stand out or seem out of place)? How about the framing of the images? Are there thick borders or faded edges?

The comprehension of visual images always begins with the perception of the visuals that artists, illustrators, and graphic designers use to render a story and communicate to readers (Arnheim, 1974; van Leeuwen, 2005; serafini, 2011). If readers don't notice these particular elements, they may not be able to extract meaning from them during their interpretive processes.

C. Analytical Strategy

After noticing what is in the visual images and the design elements of a multimodal text, what these objects and elements mean is an important and key aspect of the following comprehension process. The readers may interrogate the representations through profound considering what these representations allow them to see, and simultaneously what they prevent them from seeing. The visual grammar of Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) provides readers with various perspectives for attending to and interpreting visual images. For example, how various objects are organized and located in the visual image and how they interact and coordinate with other elements; relative to the objects and participants in the image, is the viewer positioned very close or far away? And so on. The readers may ask the following questions:

What first catches your eye in the image, that is, what is foregrounded, and what is backgrounded? How about the size and scale of the image? Why are certain elements larger than the others? Does the larger element add to the meaning of the image? Are there any dominant color and what does it mean to the readers? How about the white space used in the image? How is the image framed, and how does this position you as a viewer, face to face, above or below, what does that mean? Are there any recurring patterns? Through the integration of lines, lighting, colors, contrast and gestures, what does the designer try to lead you to look at? What are the relationship between images and written texts?

In the analytical process, making sense of the interrelationships among various visual elements and understanding the meanings associated with them in a certain culture is essential to the interpretation of multimodal texts. Readers of multimodal texts need to understand how the various elements in visual images interplay and coordinate to make meaning if they are going to move beyond the literal perception of images and multimodal texts.

D. Sociocultural Strategy

Scott (1994) argues that, "pictures are not merely analogues to visual perception but symbolic artifacts constructed from the conventions of a particular culture." So in order to interpret the meaning of images thoroughly, the readers need to take the related social meaning system into consideration, that is, they must look not only at the relationships within the images but beyond the image itself to the current social, cultural, scientific, ecological and political background. Focusing on the social, cultural, historical, and political contexts of the production and transmission of visual images in multimodal texts is an indispensable aspect of the interpretation process. How the images affect us as viewers hinges on the larger social, political and cultural contexts in which they are viewed. "To explore the meaning of images is to recognize that they are produced within dynamics of social power and ideology....images are an important means through which ideologies are produced and onto which ideologies are projected". (Sturken and Cartwright,2001, P21).For example, visual symbols, such as a rose or a cross signifying love or Christian values respectively, are constructed in sociocultural contexts and used by artists to convey meanings beyond the literal level.

VI. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The problem of the twenty-first century is the problem of the image, according to cultural theorist W.J.T. Mitchell (1995). Successfully making sense of visual images in multimodal texts may pose a challenge to today's readers, which requires them to get familiar with art, media, and semiotic theories. And the readers are supposed to consider alternative interpretive strategies that involve the descriptions of the world presented, the visual and design elements used, the semiotic resources with meaning momentum or potential in sociocultural contexts, and the ideological influences that may form and alter one' perceptions and interpretations. Moving beyond the traditional comprehension strategies will help expand the perspectives and strategies readers may draw on to be fully literate when shifting from a

word-dominated typographic era to a post-typographic era dominated by the visual images and multimodal texts.

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Evaluating an Integrated EFL Teaching Methodology in Saudi Universities: A Longitudinal Study

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the effectiveness and suitability of the integrated holistic method for teaching EFL skills embedded in an Oxford® series of courses selected for study at the lower-to-upper intermediate levels of learning EFL, namely *Open Forum 3, Well Read 3 – Effective Academic Writing2*. Participants of the study were selected from the population of students in a Southwestern Saudi university. The sample included 52 participants in intermediate levels. Researchers employed a pre-test, posttest control group design in a quasi-experimental method to evaluate the instructional effectiveness of the integrated holistic teaching method. Findings indicate that the treatment in this study, the Integrated Skills Treatment, had a significant effect on student performance in all skills presented instructionally according to an integrated, holistic approach. Further findings showed that the experimental group participants achieved improvements in gain scores compared with their peers in the control group on the tested language skills, namely listening and speaking, reading, and writing. Qualitative data from a follow-up questionnaire study asserted the effectiveness and appropriateness of an integrative pedagogy to teaching EFL skills. The paper, in the end, provides a set of relevant implications and recommendations for further pedagogical practice and further research implications.

Index Terms—integrated language teaching, skill-based learning, holistic teaching, EFL skills, performance, longitudinal research

I. INTRODUCTION

Evaluation research has come to the fore positively as "a main source of organizational learning, lessons learned, collaboration and utilization" (Arkin, 2010, p. 3339) which draws a contour between the contemporary concept of evaluation and the traditional, negative perspective concept of the term recognised in the literature of language evaluation programmes (Morabito 2002; Patton 2001; Preskill 1994; Sullivan and Sullivan 1998; Torres and Preskill 2001). The import of evaluation studies has been recognised as judging the "worth, merits and shortcomings of various educational programmes" (Luo & Dappen, 2004, p. 109).As such, it functions to improve and assure the educational quality of the English language programme in any given language and translation college. The objectives of evaluation research has been identified by Worthen et al, (1997) to include: 1) determining standards for judging quality and decide whether those standards should be relative or absolute 2) collecting relevant information and 3) applying the standards to determine value, quality, utility, effectiveness, or significance (p. 5). Respectively, theoretical and field study research findings have indicated that evaluation enhances organizational learning (Atkinson, et al., 2005; Henry and Mark, 2003; Preskill, et al., 2003; Robson 1993; Sridharan, 2003; Worthen et al, 1997).

By the same token, language educators have currently witnessed growing developments in the accrual of an integrated language approach to learning and teaching (Short, 2006). Language skills are not only important for developing the communicative skills in the English language, but they also foster an integrated teaching of reading, writing, listening, speaking which still remains at the core of literacy development as well (Laine, 1997). Underlying this is the assumption that production skills (speaking/writing) and reception skills (listening/reading) go together, and they develop consecutively, simply because communicative interaction involves more than one language skill; in this vein, these language skills reinforce each other. Therefore, language instructors, pedagogically speaking, should teach students how to use the language, not just the forms. An Oxford® series in language skills has been used as an innovative curricular provision to present the four skills of the English language at the English Department of the College of Languages and Translation, KKU; the series presents listening and speaking, reading comprehension, and writing in four levels, while in each course at each level, the Oxford® book in one skill seeks to present a curricular, integrated approach to all skills; i.e., in any Listening and Speaking book, the emphasis is on these two skills, yet, the course provides tasks and exercises covering reading and writing as well. The course books utilise a CLT approach blending both task-based and content-based tasks designed to promote a learner-centred approach. For example, in

Academic Writing, writing skills can be achieved by such tasks as free writing, pre-teaching of vocabulary specific to a particular social context, selected use of vocabulary in cloze test exercises, process writing through learning to brain storm, mind-map, writing outlines and graphic organisers in pre-writing tasks, and reading comprehension to increase learners' awareness about a specific social event or function.

The purpose of this longitudinal study is to explore the effectiveness of the Integrated Language Skills Instruction approach in EFL college students. This study has been conducted for ...

1. Investigating the effectiveness of the language skills integration approach at college level;

2. Verifying findings from prior research indicating the effectiveness of the integrated approach, thus adding both to the theory and practice of integrated language teaching as proposed by Rebecca Oxford;

3. Utilising the implementational design of instruction and curriculum adaptation in this study for teaching language skills courses which constitute most of the basic four levels consortium;

4. Using this research findings in designing and implementing instructional and curricular plans not only for teaching English at college level, but also at pre-university levels.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on ESL/EFL language skill development is vibrant with calls advocating the integrated approach to the study of language drawn from a skill-based language teaching approach (Arkin, 2010; Lynch, 1983; Moffett, 1983; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Tierney and Pearson, 1994; Rosenblatt, 1994; Allred, 1994; Chamot, et al., 1999; Oxford & Leaver, 1996; Flower and Hayes, 1994; Oxford, 2001; Tsung-Yuan & Oxford, 2002).

However, there is little empirical testimony to evidence these claimed benefits of an integrated approach to language instruction. By definition, integrated language teaching here is meant to be a skill-based approach to teaching language skills all in one. Other definitions, not applicable to study, is that integrated language teaching refers to an approach in which content and language integrated learning (CLIL) bring together language teaching with the teaching of other subjects (Kleinsasser, 2013, p. 93). The integrated language skills approach is thought to be an effective strategy for whole language learning, promoting learning to be used meaningfully in real life contexts for communicative purposes (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Oxford, 2001). In other words, this approach seeks to teach language as a means of communication to serve the purpose it was originally created for, which can be motivating and realistic as well (Tsung-Yuan & Oxford, 2002; Pennycook, 1989; Brown, 2001). The underlying tenet is that language is the medium of thought, feeling, and communication which enables one to develop self-awareness, to interact with others, and to learn (Tsung-Yuan & Oxford, 2002).

There are claims, however, that the integrated skills approach can be an efficient inducement to higher levels of motivation towards language learning in EFL students (Pennycook, 1989; Brown, 2001; Celce-Murcia, 2001; Oxford, 2001; Richard-Amato, 2003).

The traditional separation of language skills instruction with emphasis on particular skills and grammatical drills has brought into the mainstream underprepared students who are being given access to higher education through open admissions programmes since the 1970s all around the world (King, 1996). Though King's research is related to US college students, we can take his findings into account because his subjects were not only from the United States but from all over the world.

The segregation of the skills is not consistent with the nature of language development in the first language context. In the first language context all language skills are interrelated. The interrelatedness of the language skills can be deduced from observation of a child's development of oral and written language which follows the sequence of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In this vein, Strang (1972) noted this sequence:

'Listening precedes speaking and reading. Children acquire their native tongue through listening to and imitating the speech of their parents. Speaking is basic to both reading and writing' (p. 291).

The recognition of this sequential growth identifies the language skills as being interwoven and interdependent. It also suggests that a problem in one language skill will usually carry over to another skill, while proficiency in one skill facilitates development of another skill (Strang, 1972).

However, there is always a hot debate whether L1 and L2 are learned in the same way or not. But the use of the integration of skills in L2 teaching as it happens in L1 "acquisition", using Krashen's term, is seldom criticized. As the same kind of human brain processes both L1 and L2, one can deduce the necessity of the interrelatedness of the language skills in an L2 classroom from a child's L1 development in his/her native environment (Alatis, 1981).

Early research findings (e.g. Strickland, 1964; Loban, 1963; Ruddell, 1966; Thomas, 1974; Cayer and Sacks, 1979) suggest that a student's ability to use the listening and speaking skills is closely related to the learner's ability to comprehend written language, and further deploy these skills to reading comprehension. Researchers in this area have concluded that an essential foundation for competence in reading and writing reflects a similar competence in oral language; Laine (1997) in an empirical research has remarked that "Oral language activities may help to develop students' reading, writing, and thinking strategies.

Recent empirical research (e.g. Al-Ghamari, 2004; Bose, 2003; Faydi, 2003; Hefferman, 2006) also indicated the significance of integrated skill presentation for improved language learning outcomes, especially the integration of writing skills with other language skills such as reading, listening, speaking and pronunciation.

More specifically, in teaching writing, research suggests that segregated skill teaching, the lack of authentic communication that typically exists in EFL contexts, and difficulties with sequencing teaching-learning activities combine to hinder the development of writing skills (Hao & Sivell, 2002). Relevantly, the theoretical work of Rosenblatt (1994), Moffett (1983), Flower and Hayes (1994), and Vyqotsky (1986) and the pedagogical work of Atwell (1987) and Elbow (1986), and Bartholomae and Petrosky (1986) assert that all language skills in addition to thinking skills are all involved while learners activate their schemata (boxes of information stored in their memories) during the process of meaning-making when they read or write their own and others' texts (*See* Vygotsky, 1986). These authors showed that all the skills of language such as reading and writing cannot be considered as separate entities but should be integrated to ease the communicative process.

Segregated skill teaching emanates from the philosophy that sees successful second language learning as a process departing from content learning (Oxford, 2001); however, this philosophy is very much emphasised in the traditional ESL/EFL methodology and curriculum provisioning (Mohan, 1986; Oxford, 2001; Tsung-Yuan & Oxford, 2002). Oxford (2001) explains that this philosophy is easier in practice, yet ineffective to warrant later whole language development for communicative purposes.

She further rebuts segregation claims suggesting that such a methodology is deficient and inadequate for "later success in academic communication, career-related language use, or everyday interaction in the language" (Oxford, 2001, p.2).

Like Oxford (2001), Hinkel (2006), in the EFL context, and Berninger (2000) and Shanahan (2006), in language learning in general, concluded that the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing should not be treated as separate and dissimilar cognitive domains because each of these skills complements the others and helps them to grow.

Given that the integration approach involves either using a task-based instruction approach or a content-based instruction approach, or a hybrid amalgam of both (Oxford, 2001), writing can be developed integratedly with other skills for whole language development and for purposes of communicative language teaching. Research fosters the use of writing and reading journals or logs 'a method not only of integrating reading and writing but also for fostering reading and writing development' (Sehlaoui, 2001). In the Oxford® series, it is strongly recommended for students to use writing journals and reading journals as well as external resources (e.g. newspapers, books, the Internet, etc.) to supplement the writing / reading lessons. So is the case in the new Oxford series of Well Read, Open Form, and Keep Writing – a new series of integrated Listening and Speaking, writing and reading courses, in which the four language skills are integrated in the lessons to integrally supplement listening and speaking skills development.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Participants

The population of the study consists of male students learning English at the College of Languages and Translation, KKU, averagely aged 18-20 years in the academic year 2011-2012. All participants in both the control and the experimental group are currently enrolled in the Oxford® course-sets in Listening and Speaking, Reading Comprehension, and Writing (*Open Forum 3*, *Well Read 3 – Effective Academic Writing2*).

Participants have been assigned to an instructor and a course section in a random manner through the regular university registration process. Since different instructors are expected to participate in this study, it is necessary to test for 'instructor variables' (such as teaching style and personality), thus determining if an individual instructor produced a direct or interactive effect on the dependent measures.

Design

This study involves an analysis of the performance of two groups of students. The experimental group (n = 27 students), who are currently being taught the language skills in an integrated approach (Course code 212 ENG-3 - Section 2327 in the second semester of the academic year 2011/2012). The control group (n = 25, Course code 212 ENG-3 - Section 2328 in the second semester of the academic year 2011/2012) are to complete the same skills courses with no particular emphasis on skill integration.

Hypotheses

This study will be designed to test the following null hypotheses at the 0.05 level of significance:

1) There are no statistically significant differences between pre-test measures of the language skills of experimental students and control students.

2) There are no statistically significant differences between levels of students' performance in language skills due to the effects of individual instructors.

3) There are no statistically significant differences between post-test measures of reading comprehension and vocabulary development of experimental students and control students.

4) There are no statistically significant differences between measures of listening and speaking of experimental students and control students.

5) There are no statistically significant differences between the language skills final examination scores for experimental students and control students.

Research Groups

Experimental and control groups, assuring that all extraneous variables are kept constant, have been achieved through randomization. To assure that the characteristics of the sample members are almost similar, participants will be randomly assigned to experimental and control groups.

Instrumentation

The researcher and other four instructors who are expected to participate in conducting this study will utilise assessments of student performance in the areas of writing (descriptions, paragraphs, descriptive, narrative, and analytical essay writing), reading comprehension, and vocabulary building. To measure overall student performance in the entire language skills, final skills exams scores will be used. These tests have been constructed and validated by the members of the department, all having been standardised and piloted in the first semester.

Statistical Treatment

To verify that the control and experimental groups are representative of the same sample population (hypothesis one), a two-tailed t test will be computed based on their skills test scores obtained prior to this present experiment from their immediately previous writing, reading and comprehension, and listening and speaking courses. In testing for all other hypotheses, it is important to consider the effects that a given teaching style will potentially have on student performance.

SPSS vers 16.00 was used to analyse data gleaned from this investigation. ANOVA and t-tests are the main statistical analysis methods that are likely to be used in this study.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Descriptive analysis

For data analysis, SPSS (Ver. 14) and Excel (Ver. 2007) were employed in the statistical study. Table 1 below demonstrates the descriptive statistics of the pretest and posttest comparisons of the performance of both experimental and control groups. To construct two homogeneous groups for study, the student's participants' scores in listening & speaking, writing and reading comprehension.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF RESEARCH GROUPS IN ALL SKILLS

Group		Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Experimental group Pretest	Mean	22.15	21.33	22.11	23.11
	N	27	27	27	27
	Std. Deviation	3.110	3.026	3.203	2.900
	Minimum	18	17	15	17
	Maximum	29	28	28	29
Control group Pretest	Mean	23.04	22.12	21.32	23.80
	N	25	25	25	25
	Std. Deviation	3.089	3.333	3.172	2.598
	Minimum	19	17	15	17
	Maximum	30	28	25	29
Experimental group Posttest	Mean	74.11	87.07	69.07	84.96
	N	27	27	27	27
	Std. Deviation	4.255	1.999	3.782	1.829
	Minimum	66	83	62	82
	Maximum	81	90	75	89
Control group Posttest	Mean	69.00	78.84	64.16	71.00
	N	25	25	25	25
	Std. Deviation	4.291	2.173	4.497	3.786
	Minimum	60	75	57	64
	Maximum	78	84	75	79

Data were further gleaned from pretesting and post-testing, and then analysed using t-tests.

Hypothesis I: Group Equivalence

To test the first null hypothesis in order to make sure that they began the experiment at comparatively similar levels of skills, a t-test was calculated to confirm group equivalence before the relevant treatments were delivered to the respective groups; the obtained t-values and their significance levels are shown in (Table 2) below.

TABLE 2
GROUP EQUIVALENCE AS MEASURED BY ALL SKILLS PRETESTING

Skills	Group	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Sig.
Listening	Experimental group	27	22.15	3.110	-1.037	.305
	Control group	25	23.04	3.089		
Speaking	Experimental group	27	21.33	3.026	-.892	.377
	Control group	25	22.12	3.333		
Reading	Experimental group	27	22.11	3.203	.894	.376
	Control group	25	21.32	3.172		
Writing	Experimental group	27	23.11	2.900	-.900	.373
	Control group	25	23.80	2.598		

The t-tests have been employed to compare the means of two groups. Considering the results of the table 3., the value As shown in Table 2 above, the independent samples t-test technique was applied to the mean.

Experimental group and Control group scores for test structure and written knowledge of the learners at beginning of the research in order to examine the differences in Listening.

T-test results for both the experimental group and control group showed that there are no significant differences between the students in both groups [t(50) = -1.037 p > .05] in Listening , [t(50) = -.892 p > .05] in Speaking , [t(50) = .894 p > .05] in Reading, [t(50) = -.900 p < .05] in Writing. This asserts that the experimental and control groups were equal on pretesting, thereby ascertaining to group equivalence before any treatments were given to the students in these groups (See Figure 1 below).

Figure 2b: Writing pretesting scores for experimental and control groups

In addition, Table 2 above demonstrates that there were no statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups on pre-testing. Thus, the first hypothesis was verified, and group equivalence was confirmed as it is shown in Figure 3 below.
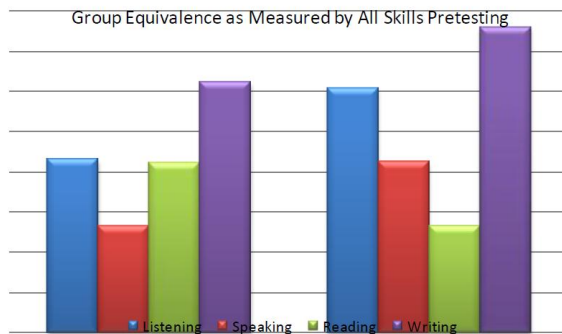

Figure 1: Group equivalence before the experiment

The other hypotheses examined are related to the study variables preset to measure students' proficiency in all skills of listening, speaking, reading comprehension, and writing that may have resulted from integrated skills instruction. Post-treatment measures were employed after all students, in both the experimental and the control groups, had completed the Oxford® courses with an integrated skills pedagogy and the Oxford® courses with no work purposefully done towards skill integration respectively.

Hypothesis II: Pre/Post-treatment Comparisons

The data presented in (Table 3) show an improvement on pre-test/post-test comparisons for all skills; as the t-values indicate, there is a significant difference between experimental and control students (p = 0.01) to the good of the experimental class in all skills following exposure to integrated skills instruction. The second hypothesis is therefore confirmed.

TABLE 3
PRETESTING/POSTTESTING COMPARISONS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP PERFORMANCES ON ALL SKILLS

Skills	Group	N	Mean	SD	t-value	Sig.
Listening	Experimental group	27	74.11	4.255	4.310	.000
	Control group	25	69.00	4.291		
Speaking	Experimental group	27	87.07	1.999	14.233	.000
	Control group	25	78.84	2.173		
Reading	Experimental group	27	69.07	3.782	4.276	.000
	Control group	25	64.16	4.497		
Writing	Experimental group	27	84.96	1.829	17.135	.000
	Control group	25	71.00	3.786		

The researchers used t-tests to compare the means of two groups. Considering the results of the table 2., the value As shown in Table3, the independent samples t-test technique was applied to the mean. Experimental group and Control

group scores for test structure and written knowledge of the learners at beginning of the research in order to examine the differences in Listening.

According to the result of the t-test made between the Experimental group and Control group to whom traditional teaching method was applied, there is a statistically significant difference of [t(50) = 4.310 p < .05] in Listening , [t(50) = 14.233 p < .05] in Speaking , [t(50) = 4.276 p < .05] in Reading, [t(50) = 17.135 p < .05] in Writing . This confirms that there are statistically significant differences between the mean scores of students in all skills in the experimental and control groups on protesting alike which ensures group equivalence.

Pretesting/Post testing Comparisons of Control Group Performances on All Skills

Based on the results in the above table, the hypothesis suggesting that there are significant differences between both research groups on all skills in favour of the treatment group has been verified as well; this finding is commensurate with prior research findings indicating that integrated skills teaching is effective in improving language skills improvement (O'Day, 2002; Flora, 1995; King, 1996; Lynch, 1983; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Rosenblatt, 1994; Allred, 1994; Oxford & Leaver, 1996; Flower and Hayes, 1994; Oxford, 2001).

TABLE 4
ANALYSIS OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Experimental Group		Mean	N	SD	t-value	Sig.
Listening	Pretest	74.11	27	4.255	42.149	.000
	Posttest	22.1481	27	3.10958		
Speaking	Pretest	87.07	27	1.999	95.712	.000
	Posttest	21.3333	27	3.02553		
Reading	Pretest	69.07	27	3.782	53.400	.000
	Posttest	22.1111	27	3.20256		
Writing	Pretest	84.96	27	1.829	123.736	.000
	Posttest	23.1111	27	2.90004		

In addition, t-test results of pre-test and post-test scores of the experimental group in language skills revealed statistically significant differences [t(26) = 42.149p < .05] in Listening, [t(26) = 95.712 p < .05] in Speaking, [t(26) = 53.400 p < .05] in Reading, [t(26) = 123.736 p < .05] in Writing between pretesting and post-testing of the experimental students to the good of post-testing.

TABLE 5
ANALYSIS OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES OF THE CONTROL GROUP

control Group		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t-value	Sig.
Listening	Pretest	69.0000	25	4.29146	41.986	.000
	Posttest	23.0400	25	3.08869		
Speaking	Pretest	78.8400	25	2.17332	66.765	.000
	Posttest	22.1200	25	3.33317		
Reading	Pretest	64.1600	25	4.49704	37.589	.000
	Posttest	21.3200	25	3.17175		
Writing	Pretest	71.0000	25	3.78594	63.644	.000
	Posttest	23.8000	25	2.59808		

Furthermore, t-test results of pre-test and post-test scores of the control group in language skills showed meaningful differences between the assessments: [t(24) = 41.986 p < .05] in Listening, [t(24) = 66.765 p < .05] in Speaking, [t(24) = 37.589 p < .05] in Reading, [t(24) = 63.644 p < .05] in Writing performances of the students.

Hypothesis III: Gains in Skill Development

For differences in performance over time between the two groups, the researcher employed gain scores and the Paired Samples Statistics.

TABLE 6
ANALYSIS OF FOLLOW-UP TEST AND POSTTEST SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Experimental Group		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t-value	Sig.
Listening	Follow-up test	48.9630	27	5.72768	18.275	.000
	Posttest	74.11	27	4.255		
Speaking	Follow-up test	61.8519	27	3.33632	37.088	.000
	Posttest	87.07	27	1.999		
Reading	Follow-up test	46.7778	27	3.17845	21.722	.000
	Posttest	69.07	27	3.782		
Writing	Follow-up test	59.0000	25	2.12132	13.558	.000
	Posttest	71.0000	25	3.78594		

For differences in performance over time between the two groups, the researcher employed gain scores and paired samples statistics.

TABLE 7
ANALYSIS OF FOLLOW-UP TEST AND POSTTEST SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Experimental Group		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t-value	Sig.
Listening	Follow-up test	48.9630	27	5.72768	18.275	.000
	Posttest	74.11	27	4.255		
Speaking	Follow-up test	61.8519	27	3.33632	37.088	.000
	Follow-up test	87.07	27	1.999		
Reading	Posttest	46.7778	27	3.17845	21.722	.000
	Follow-up test	69.07	27	3.782		
Writing	Follow-up test	59.0000	25	2.12132	13.558	.000
	Posttest	71.0000	25	3.78594		

According to the t-test result made between follow- up testing and post-testing scores of the experimental group in language skills, it was seen that a meaningful difference existed [t(26) = 18.275 p < .05] in Listening, [t(26) = 37.088 p < .05] in Speaking, [t(26) = 21.722 p < .05] in Reading, [t(26) = 13.558 p < .05] in Writing.

TABLE 8
ANALYSIS OF FOLLOW-UP TEST AND POSTTEST SCORES OF THE CONTROL GROUP

Experimental Group		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t-value	Sig.
Listening	Follow-up test	69.0000	25	4.29146	17.087	.000
	Posttest	46.4800	25	3.50143		
Speaking	Follow-up test	78.8400	25	2.17332	25.131	.000
	Follow-up test	57.6800	25	3.69369		
Reading	Posttest	64.1600	25	4.49704	17.329	.000
	Follow-up test	44.7600	25	3.03150		
Writing	Follow-up test	71.0000	25	3.78594	19.250	.000
	Posttest	52.9600	25	2.47454		

According to the t-test result of follow-up testing and post-testing scores of the control group, it was seen that a meaningful difference existed [t(24) = 17.087 p < .05] in Listening, [t(24) = 25.131 p < .05] in Speaking, [t(24) = 17.329 p < .05] in Reading, and [t(24) = 19.250 p < .05] in the writing performances of the students.

TABLE 9
ANALYSIS OF FOLLOW-UP AND POSTTEST SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL & CONTROL GROUPS

Skills		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	t-value	Sig.
Listening	Ex	48.9630	27	5.72768	1.868	.068
	Ctrl	46.4800	25	3.50143		
Speaking	Ex	61.8519	27	3.33632	4.279	.000
	Ctrl	57.6800	25	3.69369		
Reading	Ex	46.7778	27	3.17845	2.338	.023
	Ctrl	44.7600	25	3.03150		
Writing	Ex	59.5185	27	2.81985	8.884	.000
	Ctrl	52.9600	25	2.47454		

Data in Table 9 above shows a significant increase (p < .01) in the experimental group's gain scores as compared with their peers in the control group to the good of experimental students. This disconfirms the third hypothesis which indicates that there are no statistically significant differences between post-test measures of reading comprehension and vocabulary development of experimental students and control students.

Results from the Qualitative Data Analysis

A. Survey Results

According to the results of the quantitative data which shows a significant increase (p < .01) in the experimental group's gain scores in comparison with those of the control group's, it is clear that the integrated language skills teaching yielded better results. Although both the groups showed improvement suggesting that the contents of the course are appropriate, yet the overall differences across all skills as shown in tables (8) and (9) indicate that a significant difference can be achieved by simply shifting the emphasis from teaching language skills in isolation to teaching them in an integrative fashion. Moreover, the most significant improvement occurred to students' writing skill, chiefly because the researcher's focus was mainly on teaching writing skill and other skills like reading, speaking and listening were utilised to integrate writing skill. Secondly, the two other teachers involved in the study also integrated writing skill in to their respective skills of listening, speaking and reading. This accounts for the marked difference in the improvement of writing.

The questionnaires have been used to reveal the trends and perceptions of both the teachers and students. The emerging themes relate to the quality of the Writing Skill course book, both content and 'teachability'-wise. The teachers involved in the study together with other teachers who taught the new Oxford series at this level (26 in number) filled the questionnaire (See Table 10 and Figure 2 below).

TABLE 10
FACULTY MEMBERS' FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES OF PARTICIPANTS

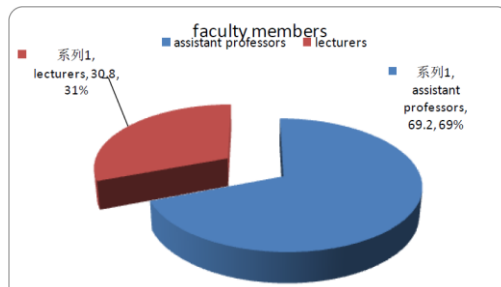|		Frequency	Percent
Faculty members	Assistant Professors	18	69.2
	Lecturers	8	30.8
	Total	26	100.0

Figure 2: Distribution of survey informants

TABLE 11
MEANS AND SD OF TEACHERS' RESPONSES ON THE TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Size and Volume	4.58	0.504
Attractive Outlook	4.65	0.745
Quality of editing	4.5	0.707
Appearance of the Book:	4.58	0.65
Availability / Clarity of the overall aims and objectives of the entire book	5	0
Availability / Clarity of the aims and objectives of the individual chapters	5	0
Organization and sequencing of chapters	4.81	0.402
Organization and sequencing of activities and exercises	3.77	0.815
Learner centered	4.46	0.647
Teacher centered	4.65	0.745
Text centered	5	0
Overall Approach of the book	4.70	0.46
Availability of Methodology	5	0
Availability of Classroom Strategies and Techniques	3.58	0.758
Availability of Language items for course objectives	4.12	0.952
Level of interest in given passages/topics, etc.	4.19	0.981
Variety in Activities and exercises	2.85	1.008
Integrated activities	4.85	0.368
Suitability of Exercises and activities	4.46	0.647
Availability of graphs, charts, tables, etc.	4.46	0.647
Availability of Audio-Visual Aids	4.46	0.647
Quality of Audio-Visual Aids, (If any)	4.58	0.504
Utility of these audio-visual aids	1.88	0.653
Effectiveness of these audio-visual aids	5	0
the book on the whole	1.92	0.688
the passages / texts in the book	1.46	0.647
activities and exercises in the book	1.04	0.196
Language learning Strategies in the book	4.62	0.637
	2.26	0.54
Scope for supplementary materials	4.65	0.689
Scope for Material adaptation (simplification, etc)	4.73	0.533
Scope for Learners' participation	4.73	0.533
Scope for Learners' Talk time	4.65	0.629
Expected Teachers' Talk time	4.73	0.452
the language skills / language functions	4.73	0.533
the language learning strategies	2.73	0.919
the language items	4.19	0.981
the chapters	4.5	0.648
Overall 'Teachability' of	4.04	0.77
the language skills / language functions	2.73	0.919
the language learning strategies	4.5769	0.50383
the language items	4.5	0.5831
the chapters	1.7308	0.66679
Overall 'Learnability' of:	3.38	0.67

As it appears from Table 11, teachers involved were satisfied fully with the methodology, approach, organization, sequencing of chapters, effectiveness in terms of teaching the contents and cultural relevance of the book.

B. Interview Analysis: Highlights

Interviewed teachers have given their their reasons for choosing the instructional techniques that supported holistic, integrated language teaching. The interviewees have retrospectively spelt out their beliefs and assumptions that underlie integrated language instruction. According to interviewees, beliefs and tenets that that support integrated literacy instruction utilizes portions of listening, speaking, reading and writing discourse. Integrated language pedagogy is, and can be done through utilizing a variety of formal and informal methods in both structured and unstructured modes; thus, it is developmental, holistic, and is grounded in repetitions and patterns. Below are some excerpts of the responses of the interviewed teachers verbatim:

Integrated Literacy Instruction utilizes integrative portions of listening, speaking, reading and writing pieces of discourse:

Teacher 1: In language development we promote listening, speaking, reading and writing and all are equally important.

Teacher 2: We don't teach receptive skills first, then speaking and writing after that. We involve the students in listening, speaking, reading and writing, we just move from the simple to the complex.

Literacy instruction is structured and unstructured

Teacher 1: We believe in structured and unstructured curriculum. Depending on the readiness or maturity of the group.

Teacher 2: We follow our planning diaries and lesson plans, but sometimes we are a bit more relaxed.

Literacy instruction is developmental

Teacher 1: We need to give enough time to prepare the ground for the process to become a skill.

Teacher 2: Students are thinking in their mother tongue, so I consider this when I decide whether to repeat the lesson or go on.

Literacy instruction is holistic

Teacher 1: We believe in the holistic approach. You will see that as we go along we have grammar and structure exercises, but also time for dialogue that will be useful in their lives and natural conversations.

Teacher 2: We use a holistic approach for the overall development of a child. Creative activities and cultural activities.

We have a holistic approach. The Oxford® *series promotes speaking and listening together with reading, more significantly. The Academic Writing book address the language skills, but has many activities for writing. Free writing, well, a bit of free writing.*

Literacy instruction is integrated

Teacher 1: Our philosophy includes integration of reading with writing, listening with speaking.

Teacher 2: There are varied exercises focusing on drawing links between the different threads of language skills in a sequence that is mostly likely inducing to or guaranteeing integration.

Literacy instruction uses repetition

Teacher 1: Listening and Speaking Oxford® *courses, such as Open Forum have planned and repeated listening to stories, music, sounds. And vocabulary and phrases. In the writing book, there are repetitive exercises aiming at linking language skills and drilling kill patterns.*

Teacher 2: Planned and repeated vocabulary is built up in order to enable them to speak in sentences. This improves fluency in speech, using words to form sentences and patterns of sentences.

Literacy instruction uses patterns

Teacher 1: In writing classes, sentence patterns and paragraph patterns are out there. Before students are asked to speak or present their writings, the teacher demonstrates the sentence pattern several times.

Teacher 2: We use patterns and repetition then students learn with ease and confidence.

It is worth noting that while teachers in the interview identified their teaching as 'holistic', it appeared this had a different meaning from what is often referred to as 'holistic'. The constructivist perspective about holistic teaching indicates that students' engagement in a process of learning depends on their background, interest, and abilities (Stainback & Stainbeck, 1992). This perspective does not seem to be the point of reference for what they were calling "holistic." Occasionally, "holistic" is used to describe instruction for special education that recognizes multi-modals of learning or focuses on multi-sensory techniques (Daniels, 1999; Oxford, 2001).

C. Diary Analysis: Highlights

The journals that instructors kept indicated in order to help integrate the language skills and teach language holistically, teachers themselves should model the paradigm for their students, sharing their practices and products publicly in the classroom so that students can experience the thinking and actions of a particular writer, the teacher being a model in this context. One teacher wrote in his diary:

"Drawing on my own experiences as a writer means putting myself on the line, sharing what it is like to go through some of the same struggles and successes the students experience."

Another teacher wrote:

". . . I learned that I only have to write a little bit better than my students for them to learn from my demonstrations ... I teach them that writing is important, but it is equally important for them that they become competent presenters of their writings – this requires, in reality, developing their speaking and reading skills diametrically.."

Given the importance that these teachers place on using their own literacy practices as teaching models, and a holistic development of the language skills, one might infer that it is important for new teachers in the department, who have not been familiar with the Oxford® series, to receive the same sort of modeling while they present the individual courses of Oxford®, thus missing a lot in achieving integration of skills in their teaching. In real practice in the classroom, there appears to be scant evidence that this occurs.

V. DISCUSSION

The gains of the Integrated Language Skills group in both writing and in the interrelated skills of listening comprehension, speaking and reading comprehension may be attributed to the emphasis placed on presenting the writing skills in integration with other skills and sub skills. The experimental writing course was instructionally designed to provide ample time and integration effort for instructional activities in the various areas of language skills while approaching these skills in an integrated manner in. This finding is compatible with other observations and research findings of some authors and critics (e.g., Oxford, 2001; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; King, 1996; Landberg, 1993; Laine, 1997; Allred, 1994; Flora, 1997; O'Day, 2002; Hefferman, 2006). The results of this study demonstrate these views. The Integrated Language Skills students, who were found to be deficient in communications skills before the initiation of the study, were able to develop their skills in the most complex area of language – writing – while working on other skills areas. As has been earlier noted, reading and listening before writing all helped to brush up on the skills and linguistic as well as real world knowledge of the students which helped in the overall development of their writing skills.

In other words, writing skill, which is more demanding than other language skills, developed more in the experimental treatment group than the control one because integrated skills teaching helped and supported overall language development for communicative purposes – e.g. the integrated instruction in vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension, listening and speaking all contributed to induced language development by helping learners to use vocabulary well in context, use ideas from reading and listening texts, etc. The use of authentic communication, sequenced teaching-learning activities tasks integrating all skills as being all equally important, use of content-based material, especially in reading before writing, classroom and peer discussions, the use of writing and reading journals, and the use of student-tape recording as well as supplementary cassette and video segments accompanying the course all contributed to the improvement of all skills in the experimental group participants. In this vein this innovation clearly supports Breen and Candlin's views on the issue of inter-relatedness of skills development and curriculum purposes. "Just as no single communication ability can develop independently of other abilities, so the development of one skill may well depend on the appropriate development of other skills ... just as a refinement of the skill of reading, for example, will contribute to the development of speaking and vice-versa." (Breen & Candlin, p 15). This confirms previous research findings and extrapolations in relevant literature on the topic of integrated skills teaching in foreign/second language teaching (Sehlaoui, 2001; Hao & Sivell, 2002; Heffernan, 2006; Al-Ghamari, 2004; Oxford, 2001; Faydi, 2003; Bose, 2003).

The philosophy that underpins integrated skills teaching is also reflected in the ideas in Graves (2001, p 184) discussion of a 'four-skills based approach to syllabus design' to build the proficiency level of the learners. This according to him can be best achieved by teachers who 'find ways to integrate them'. The present study was a step in this direction and demonstrated that the students proficiency level in the experimental group improved significantly by the innovative use of skills' integration.

Finally, as pointed out in the aim of the study, this was meant to be a "formative, evaluative research" which "is designed to provide information that may be used for the basis for future planning and action". (Rea-Dickens & Germaine, 2001, p 254). Therefore, the findings that integrated skills teaching improved students' overall communication proficiency in all the skills, especially writing, makes this research a valuable reference document. It may influence some policy decision in favour of a shift towards teaching language skills in an integrated way. It should logically lead to a detailed reassessment of the term-work course study programmes of each skill. More integrative skills activities may be included in order to utilise the Oxford® series full potential.

Evaluation of work on the Present Study

In terms of the aims and question of this study, it is believed that the evaluation of the proposed innovation affirmed that integrative skills teaching through the Oxford® series has been successful in significantly improving the skills proficiency of the experimental group students who undertook the course between March and June 2009 in their first term of the academic year.

In terms of professional development, the researcher plans to implement a genre based or text-based approach to teaching writing skills and evaluate its effectiveness.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the present study and the survey findings done by the involved teachers, the following recommendations and implications are set forth for improving integrated skill teaching of the English language skills, especially as taught in the Oxford® series at KKU:

1. Language skill teachers should be trained to use "integration of skills" even if they are assigned to teach only one skill.

2. For the effective teaching using the "integration of skills" language teachers should be trained to adopt the materials of Oxford® series to make them comprehensible to the underprepared students of KKU.

3. The language teachers should be trained to manage the classroom time efficiently. For using the "integration of skills" a teacher needs more time than teaching a single skill.

4. The department of English should extend each class-time from 1 hour to 2 hours. It can be done easily by decreasing the number of classes.

5. Language instructors should employ language learning strategies and emphasize that a given strategy can often enhance performance in multiple skills, and reflect the integration of the skills in any language evaluation test.

VII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Regarding implications for research, the present study indicates the following as in need for further investigations:

1. Learn more about the various ways to integrate language skills in the classroom (e.g., content-based, task-based, or a combination).

2. Examine potential research on the effects of integration on particular skill development such as speaking and listening or reading and writing; relate such research findings to error analysis of particular skill errors in the EFL students, and examine the interrelated nature of the literacy skills.

3. Explore the incorporation of literature teaching in an integrated skill instructional methodology for developing language skills.

4. Extend culture teaching to integrated skill instruction in the EFL classroom.

5. Examine the effects of integrated skill instruction on the abstinence or controlled use of L_1 in an EFL classroom at the college level.

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Research on Chinese College English Teachers' Classroom Code-switching: Beliefs and Attitudes

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Abstract—This article documents the beliefs and attitudes of Chinese college English teachers towards classroom code-switching. The findings suggest that teachers' code-switching is commonplace in class, although most of them still hold negative attitude toward it. Besides, students' ability is regarded as the most significant factor affecting teachers' code-switching, and the first language (L1) is mainly used to teach grammar and abstract words. The conclusion is that, in Chinese English as a foreign language (EFL) context, classroom code-switching should be conducted on the basis of maximal use of the target language, and the L1 can only be judiciously employed to serve difficult and abstruse subject matters.

Index Terms—classroom code-switching, Chinese, English, maximal use

I. Introduction

During the past decades, the tentative use of the first language (L1) in second or foreign language classroom is widely documented in the literature (Atkinson, 1987; Duff & Polio, 1990, 1994; Harbord, 1992; Swain & Lapkin, 2000), and the question receiving the most heated debate usually focuses on whether the L1 is a resource or an impediment to the acquisition of the target language. The answer to this question is a mixed one, just as Cook (2001, p.403) commented that language teaching methodology should be responsive to diverse goals, therefore, "the question of using the L1 may not have a single answer suitable to all teaching goals". This being so, researchers such as Turnbull (2001) and Turnbull & Arnett (2002) proposed to first examine such questions as when, why and how much the L1 and the target language should be employed in the pedagogy, so as to make judicious and principled use of the L1, while maximizing the target language use.

However, most of the aforementioned research investigated second or foreign language teaching in English speaking countries. Limited research about the choice of instructional medium was conducted in English as a foreign language context (Macaro, 2001). Besides, what does maximal target language use mean in differing educational settings? The present research, which is a pilot one, intends to analyze the beliefs and attitudes of Chinese college English teachers towards classroom code-switching. These beliefs and attitudes are likely to exert a strong influence on their lesson planning (Woods, 2003), and how teachers respond to the use of the L1 or target language will crucially affect the performance of their students (Rubdy, 2007).

The literature abounds in studies on teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards classroom code-switching (Macaro, 1997; Liu et al., 2004; Rubdy, 2007), and two extremes of opinions are identified. The lay public and some English teachers hold the opinion that foreign language teaching should be conducted only in English. To them, English-only in foreign language classroom is too self-evident to be worth any specific expositions. This group of teachers manages to exclude the L1 from their classes for fear that the use of the L1 will impede progresses in the acquisition of English. They usually feel greatly discouraged or even guilty whenever they stray away from the English-only path. In contrast, another portion of teachers usually overuses the L1 in foreign language teaching. To them, the traditional grammar-translation method is still effective enough to impart foreign language knowledge to learners with differing language proficiency. In China, with the introduction of communicative language teaching and task-based teaching method, together with the emphasis on improving the comprehensive ability of students and the theoretical qualifications of foreign language teachers, what beliefs are embraced by college English teachers towards classroom code-switching? Without definite guidance from authorities, what stances are adopted by them?

II. Literature Review

In the classroom of foreign language teaching, code-switching refers to teachers' choice of languages between the foreign language being taught and the language of the school or society (Simon, 2000, p.312). In such situation, the teachers are usually non-native speakers of the target language, sharing the same mother tongue with their students. Macaro (2005) called these non-native teachers bilingual teachers. In China, most of the English teachers are bilingual, with Mandarin their L1, and English the foreign language.

From the perspective of social interaction, with the globalization of work locations, people are required to possess verbal mastery and discursive power in differing languages or language varieties (Mesthrie, 2000). Thus, the ability to switch code from one language to another will be valued as a communicative resource (Gumperz, 1982), a type of

literacy which will be crucially desired in the future societies. However, in the context of classroom formal education, code-switching tends to be treated as a "forbidden" practice. The history of this classroom monolingual attitude can be traced back to the Americanization movement in the early 20th century when nativism and anti-foreign political sentiment resurged in the United States. It is also related with the colonial and neocolonial eras, when British employed English to realize its dominant role in the world. Now the English-only teaching method is criticized as a form of linguistic imperialism aiming to protect existing power relations (Phillipson, 1992). It can also cause the loss or downgrading of some native languages and the related cultures (Van der Walt, 1997).

A.   Theoretical Perspectives of Target Language-only Method

The input hypothesis provides the strongest rationale for target language-only practice in foreign language class. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983), language input plays a significant role in the course of language learning. Therefore, foreign language classrooms should be a source of input, a place where learners can be exposed to sufficient comprehensible input. Turnbull (2001) also emphasizes the importance of maximum language input in class, especially when the classrooms are the only places where the target language can be encountered. However, the importance of language input is exaggerated, which is manifested in the tenets issued in a conference held in 1961. For example, "the more English is taught, the better the results; if other languages are used too much, standards of English will drop" (Auerbach, 1993, p.12). After the dissemination of these tenets, the exclusion of the L1 from foreign language classes is thought to be natural and reasonable.

Language compartmentalization theory lends its support to target language-only practice (Cook, 2001). According to this theory, the target language and the L1 are "coordinate bilingualism" instead of a single "compound bilingualism". Therefore, the target language learning can be developed without any involvement of the L1. This theory has now been overthrown with the development of psycholinguistics and cognitive linguistics. The two languages in human mind are proved to be interwoven in different levels (ibid.).

Motivation is the affective factor underpinning classroom language monolingualism. MacDonald (1993) contends that teachers' consistent use of the target language can arouse students' awareness of its immediate usefulness. Therefore, students are more likely to set instrumental goals to learn and use the target language in and out of class. Likewise, insufficient use of the target language by teachers will de-motivate learners to be dependent on the native language.

However, none of these theories are conclusively and pedagogically sound in justifying the rationality of classroom monlingualism. In actuality, no matter how hard we close the door for the L1, it still creeps into foreign language classrooms. Rather than facing it with guilt in class, teachers can, in effect, make sensible and systematic use of it (Cook, 2001). Macaro (2005) also indicates explicitly that code-switching should become one of the objectives in curriculum planning. As to the worries about insufficient language input and de-motivation, research indicates that mere comprehensible input is far from enough for language input to become intake. Pushed language output (Swain, 1993) and negotiation of meaning (Long, 1996) are also critical in the process of language learning. Besides, Code-switching is a natural phenomenon in settings where learners share two languages (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). Access to the L1 enables the students to accomplish tasks more successfully (Swain & Lapkin, 2000), especially to those students who are not cognitively matured. So, judicious use of the L1 won't de-motivate but motivate students to acquire language. Denying access to the L1 will deprive students of a precious cognitive tool (ibid.).

In the literature, the tentative functions of the L1 in foreign language or L2 classes are myriad. It can facilitate teacher-student communication, establish teacher-student rapport and most important of all, assist language learning (Harbord, 1992). Code-switching is frequently noticed when teachers are checking comprehension, highlighting important point and attracting attention, etc. (Liu et al., 2004). The motives behind teachers' classroom language choices concern the teaching methods adopted, pressure from rules or policies, teachers' ability, etc. So, the focus in the present research is not to contend whether the L1 can be employed or not, but to specify Chinese college English teachers' beliefs and attitudes towards the possible functions, reasons and ratios of code-switching in the context of foreign language teaching. The question of maximal target language use will also be explored by means of teachers' reflections and self-evaluations.

B.   Official Stances towards Classroom Code-switching

In terms of the official attitudes to classroom code-switching, the existing education planning policies demonstrate three positions in general (Ferguson, 2003, p.46): strict separation of languages; concurrent but systematized and controlled use of the two languages; acceptance of code-switching and awareness-raising through teacher education. Countries or regions such as Singapore, Hong Kong, England and Wales strictly ban the presence of the L1s in the foreign language classrooms. In Singapore, Singlish is even regarded as "a threat to the nation's competitive advantage in the global marketplace" (Rubdy, 2007, p.308, wrongly in her opinion). Hong Kong government stipulates that teaching or learning should only be conducted in English or Chinese medium. Mixed-code should be reduced as far as possible (Education Commission Report No. 4 1990, cited in Lin, 2000, p.183). As to the concurrent, yet controlled use of the L1 and the target language, the best known example is the 'New Concurrent Approach' in the United States for bilingual Spanish-English classrooms. However, this standpoint is criticized as mechanic and infeasible (Ferguson, 2003) due to the fact that code-switching usually occurs in dynamic and ongoing classroom discourse. Therefore, it's difficult to control it or put it into a prefabricated format. The third attitude is regarded as the most persuasive one due to its

acceptance of reality and incorporation with teacher education. However, the greatest problem comes from its implementation, that is, to convince educational authorities of the legitimacy and utility of classroom code-switching so as to make adjustments to teacher education curricula (ibid.).

In Chinese tertiary foreign language teaching context, the official stance towards classroom code-switching is undetermined or hazy. According to Ferguson (2003), foreign language classes can be classified into language subject and content subject class. The former aims to improve students' mastery of the target language knowledge, say, grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, or to cultivate students' target language communicative abilities. The principal aim of the latter is to ensure students' understanding and mastery of the subject matter. Therefore, any methods contribute to that subject deserve sympathetic consideration. In Chinese EFL context, most of the foreign language classes are language subject oriented, which makes the argument for using the L1 seem less secured. National curricula of various versions clearly prescribe the requirements and measures taken to realize the goal. However, regarding the choice of classroom instructional medium, more exactly, the relations between Chinese and English, explicit and detailed suggestions can hardly be found. Teaching Curriculum for English Majors at Elementary Level (1996) requires that foreign language classes should be organized in English from the outset for the purpose of strengthening the sense of English, or creating an optimal foreign language learning atmosphere. Although it points out that the use of English doesn't reject the possible functions of the L1, no further explanations were made on it. In Teaching Curriculum for English Majors (2000), only one line was devoted to the question of instructional code, that is, generally speaking, English should be the instructional medium. The newly-issued College English Curriculum Requirements (2007) provides no suggestions on the use of English or Chinese either. However, this new version highly values the importance of listening and speaking for the sake of improving the communicative abilities of college students. It also proposes to make assessment not only on students but teachers, say, teaching attitudes, teaching methods, teaching organization, etc. In such case, classroom code-switching as a kind of pragmatic or communicative strategy for teachers and students shouldn't continue to be neglected in the future.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

This study deals with Chinese college English teachers' beliefs and attitudes concerning classroom code-switching in terms of three aspects: first, what is the proportions of Chinese and English in foreign language teaching? Second, what are the functions and reasons of classroom code-switching? Finally, what does maximal target language use mean in Chinese tertiary EFL settings?

B. Participants

The investigation is conducted among the members of a teacher training program in Singapore. The participants involved are 32 Chinese English teachers (n=32) at tertiary level. They come from 28 universities and colleges throughout China, including comprehensive key universities, key international studies universities, normal universities, science and technology universities and ordinary teacher education colleges, etc. In the sample, twenty-six teachers are female, and six male. Thirteen of them teach English majors, fifteen of them teach non-majors, and the rest teach both English majors and non-majors. Their years of teaching vary from three to fourteen years. Therefore, generally speaking, the participants involved are qualified to represent the mainstream Chinese foreign language teachers at tertiary level. For ethical reasons, more detailed information about them is not provided. In addition, the participants are not provided with any forms of lectures on classroom codes-switching. However, it doesn't exclude the possibility that they may read materials about this topic by themselves.

C. Methods

A semi-structured questionnaire, which is designed on the basis of Liu et al.'s (2004) research, is conducted. It contains four multiple choice questions and three open-ended questions. Two of the multiple choice questions are about teachers' actual and ideal target language use in class respectively. Another two are about the reasons and functions of classroom code alternation. The three open-ended questions mainly concern teachers' reflections and comments on their use of Chinese or English in class.

Research on teachers' beliefs and attitudes tends to borrow interview (Sakui & Gaies, 2003). Therefore, in order to guarantee that more in-depth background information can be uncovered, the present research interviews seven teachers, who claim to use different proportions of the L1 and target language. The interview is conducted in a person to person mode, and the time span for each participant extends from 5 to 15 minutes. Besides, two more questions are added in the interview. One is about teachers' understanding of classroom and social code-switching; the other concerns the goals of foreign language teaching. Both of them are closely related with the nature and functions of code-switching in foreign language classrooms.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Proportions of the Target Language Use

In order to determine whether the teachers differ significantly in terms of target language use, SPSS 16.0 is adopted. First, one-way Chi-Square test is applied to the actual and ideal target language use respectively (TABLE 2). Then two-way Chi-Square test is used to compare the differences between the actual and ideal target language use (TABLE 3). TABLE 1 presents the original data from the questionnaire.

TABLE 1.
THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS TO EACH PROPORTION OF TARGET LANGUAGE USE

	0%-50%	51%-60%	61%-70%	71%-80%	81%-90%	91%-99%	100%
Actual	1	1	5	6	8	10	1
Ideal	0	0	0	2	8	18	4

TABLE 2
ONE-WAY CHI-SQUARE FOR THE ACTUAL AND IDEAL TARGET LANGUAGE USE

	Actual proportion	Ideal proportion
Chi-Square	17.875	19.000
df	6	3
Asymp. Sig.	.007	.000

TABLE 3
TWO-WAY CHI-SQUARE FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN ACTUAL AND IDEAL TARGET LANGUAGE USE

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig.(2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	32.919	18	.017
Likelihood Ratio	22.337	18	.217
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.956	1	.086
N of Valid Cases	32		

The results show that in terms of actual target language use, the teachers differ significantly from each other ($X^2=17.875>X^2(6, 0.01)=16.8$), ranging from less than 50% to 100%, with the mean about 83%. 19 teachers, which account for about 60% of the total participants, claim to use more than 80% English in class, although only one teacher reports 100% target language employment. To the rest of the teachers, 11 of them use English ranging from 60% to 80%, and the other two teachers use less than 60% English in class. The divergence among teachers is also significant with regard to the ideal proportions of target language use ($X^2=19.000>X^2(3, 0.01)=11.3$). About 94% teachers (30 teachers) think it should be above 80%. Among them, four teachers value 100% target language use. Only two teachers conceive the proportion to be between 70% and 80%.

There seems to be some differences between the actual and ideal target language use, however, after the Chi-Square test, the attained result, $X^2=32.919<X^2(18, 0.01)=34.8$, demonstrates that the difference is not significant. The teachers' actual target language is essentially consistent with the ideal proportions perceived by them. Most of the participants regard 91%-99% target language use as the most appropriate percentage, and their self-estimated actual teaching practices do conform to their beliefs. This phenomenon further testifies the claim that "the beliefs that teachers hold are likely to influence their decision making" (Kagan, 1992; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999, cited in Macaro, 2001, p.533).

B.   Reasons and Functions of Classroom Code-switching

In the present research, the students of almost half of the participants don't specialize in English, and the majority of students considered by the participants are still in their first or second year in college. Therefore, 94% teachers treat their students' underdeveloped language ability as the most significant factor casting influence on the choice of language in class. This is consistent with Macaro's (2001, p.535) finding that "learner ability was a major factor in how much L1 was used". In the subsequent interview, the two teachers who claim to use less than 60% English in class complain that their students are mainly non-English majors, whose English proficiencies are so low that they can not even follow or understand simple teaching formulas, let alone unfamiliar subjects explained in English. Therefore, these students don't care (at least the teachers suppose so) whether English or Chinese is used to organize classes. "Too much English in class may even be complained by the students to the management", one teacher said. The other teachers also express the confusions caused by students' foreign language ability and the amount of English suitable to provide sufficient language input without causing too much cognitive load.

More than 65% participants (21 teachers) place teachers' foreign language proficiency in the second place, which reflects a stereotypical belief upheld by some Chinese foreign language teachers that English can only be effectively taught in English, and teachers' resorting to the mother tongue implies low language proficiency. Lesson content, mainly translation class, counts as the third factor creating the necessity for classroom code-switching. The rest of the factors are: belief about teaching (44% teachers), teaching activities conducted (41% teachers), rules or policies (38%), students' attitude (38%), etc. About school policies, the only teacher, who reports 100% use of English, admits that Chinese also appears in her class, but she tries to dispel it due to the explicit regulations stipulated by her university authorities.

Two teachers mention peer influence, which is not identified by other research. I think social or cultural considerations can explain its appearance in Chinese foreign language context. For instance, according to the teacher who reports less than 50% target language use, they are frequently organized to sit in on classes given by more experienced teachers; after class, her colleagues usually exchange information about foreign language teaching. If the

same teaching method or amount of target language is also employed by other teachers, she will feel quite secured.

About 69% teachers report that the L1 is mainly employed to teach grammar and abstract words. This is a much favored function of the L1 in foreign language class (Liu et al., 2004), and the purpose is to make the class be more time-cost efficient and easier to be understood. As to other functions of the L1, 38% teachers use Chinese to highlight important points, 28% of them to check comprehension, 25% of them to establish teacher-student rapport, and 16% of them to organize tasks and classes, etc. TABLE 4 tabulates the factors affecting code-switching and the functions of the L1.

TABLE 4.
REASONS AND FUNCTIONS OF CLASSROOM CODE-SWITCHING

Reasons	Number of teachers	Percentage in the total participants	Functions of the L1	Number of teachers	Percentage in the total participants	
Belief about teaching	14	44%	Check comprehension	9	28%	Language learning
Teachers' foreign language proficiency	21	66%	Highlight important points	12	38%	
Students' ability	30	94%	Teach grammar and abstract words	22	69%	
Teaching methods used	7	22%	Organize tasks and class	5	16%	Class management
Teaching activities conducted	13	41%	Establish teacher-student rapport	8	25%	
Department or school policy	12	38%	Maintain discipline in class	4	13%	
Lesson content	18	56%	Save time and energy	10	31%	
Class size	5	16%				
Students' behavior and attitude	12	38%				
Peer influence	2	6%				

C. Other Comments and Reflections on Code-switching

In the interview two teachers, who claim to use more than 90% English in class, report that they only use Chinese to highlight important points or save time and energy. Time permitting, grammar and abstract words should all be taught in English. According to these two teachers, students need time to become familiar with the technical terms, and teachers can scaffold them by teaching and explaining those English terms separately in class. However, another teacher contends that it is not bad to resort to Chinese to explain grammatical knowledge and abstruse concepts for the purpose of reducing students' cognitive load. When further asked about understandings to maximal target use, they all equate it with 100% target language use, although they acknowledge that it is hard to adopt this target language-only method.

According to the questionnaire, all participants deem that their use of English or Chinese demonstrates positive correlations with students' language choice. The more English used by teachers, the more frequently their students will use English to communicate. This phenomenon is explained by some participants as "the power of teacher modeling". However, it doesn't follow that a causal relation exists between teachers' target language use and learners' foreign language proficiency. It just demonstrates that maximizing the target language use is a favorable practice in foreign language classrooms (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002).

In terms of their feelings about speaking Chinese in class, more than half of them (59%) report that they don't feel upset because their choices will benefit students' understanding, will facilitate the realization of teaching goals, etc. However, some teachers do confess that they feel a tinge of embarrassment when speaking Chinese. The reasons lie in the following aspects: their students expect them to speak English; their language competence will be doubted; they break the school regulation, or their students become dependent on Chinese, etc.

Most of the participants accentuate the importance of target language-only practice on the grounds that it will provide ample language input, and create authentic foreign language learning atmosphere. Two teachers explicitly propose that there be no need to switch code intentionally in class, and English-only method is flawless if teachers are capable enough to use English all the time. Another two teachers display strong socio-cultural awareness towards target language-only method, such as, worries about students' identity, or the marginalization of students with low language proficiency. The cognitive load engendered by target language-only method is also in the consideration of some teachers, although they only constitute a small part of the participants. As to worries about students' identity, in the interview, the teacher who mentions it indicates that this is a topic receiving increasing interest, especially in the developed countries. When further asked about the difference between classroom and social code-switching, this teacher thinks that they are basically the same, which is in sharp contrast with the majority of teachers' view that these two types of code-switching are different, with the former to assist language learning, while the latter to successfully finish social transactions. Therefore, teachers should be more prudent to classroom code-switching, and social code-switching can be casual and haphazard. All the participants are willing to acknowledge that these two forms of code-switching are pragmatic strategies with differing goals. However, they don't express the intention to cultivate them in class.

Cook (2001, p.403) classifies teaching goals into internal and external goals. The former involves the educational

aims of the classroom itself, such as analyzing, inferring, etc., and the latter relates to actual target language use outside the classroom, say, commercial negation, field interpretation, etc. In the interview, six out of seven teachers (86%) directly emphasize the importance of external goals of foreign language learning. According to them, using English appropriately in future communication, and using it as an instrument to aid knowledge acquiring in other fields is the ultimate goal of language learning. However, the interview reveals that the teachers are more inclined to associate classroom code-switching with internal goals of language learning. One teacher plays a joke that examination should also become a goal, which reflects the awkward exam-guided or exam-orientated teaching situation in China.

V. DISCUSSION

Code-switching is commonplace in Chinese foreign language teaching context due to the fact that among the 32 participants, only one teacher claims to stick to English all the time in class. When code-switching is resorted to, it can not only be applied to language learning but class management (TABLE 4). In the light of this situation, I can't agree with Turnbull (2001, p.537) more that there is no need to "license teachers to use the L1; many do so in any case". If the L1 can be allowed to appear in all the occasions mentioned above, how can we guarantee the language input demanded by our students? In Chinese foreign language context, classrooms are still the major places where students can be exposed to English. Therefore, in order to guarantee sufficient language input, maximal use of the target language should continue to be encouraged. However, it is impractical to equate it with total exclusion of the L1.

In the present research, almost all teachers acknowledge that Chinese does find its place in their teaching practice, and they can also justify their alternation of teaching codes, but most of them are still reluctant to treat the L1 as a useful pedagogical resource. This attitude towards the L1 may originate from their understanding of the authenticity of foreign language learning atmosphere. In the questionnaire and interview, many teachers mention the destructive effect of classroom code-switching in establishing a genuine target language learning atmosphere. According to them, an ideal, authentic foreign language learning atmosphere can only be realized through the target language-only method.

So far it is still hard to define maximal target language use in terms of its quantitative and qualitative respects due to the various factors influencing the choice of teaching codes. However, in Chinese tertiary English education, considering the distinction between language- and content-subject classes, together with the language subject-centered feature of Chinese foreign language teaching, we can tentatively come up with some suggestions. For instance, in language learning, Chinese can be temporarily employed when grammatical knowledge or abstruse concepts are explained to students, because the priority in this situation is to make the students understand the subject matter. However, other tasks such as comprehension checking, emphasizing and class management should all be done in English, because they constitute activities frequently involved in authentic social communication. Familiarity with them can also prepare students well for future communication beyond class. Besides, before the use of the L1, other forms of foreign languages, including paralanguages such as repetition, ellipsis (L2 strategy), facial expression and gesture, etc. can also be borrowed to express the intended meaning. Of course, this is just a goal set to guide the choice of teaching codes. In this course, Chinese foreign language teachers should assume greater responsibilities in decision making, and teacher education and policy guidance will become more and more pressing.

In the present research, the average classroom target language use is 83%, which is consistent with most participants' belief that more than 80% English will be most helpful to their students. Compared with the target language use in other research, such as 67.9% in Duff and Polio's (1990) study, the ratio of foreign language use in the present study is comparatively high. However, we can't ignore the reality that 7 teachers, who account for 22% of the research sample, still employ relatively limited amount of the target language in class. Besides, the education involved in the present research is tertiary education. According to Atkinson (1987), the most profitable ratio for the L1 and target language use in class should be about 5% to 95% respectively. Macaro (2005) also suggests that beyond 10%-15% L1 use in foreign language class, the nature of code-switching will be spoiled. Therefore, there are still rooms for Chinese college English teachers to improve in terms of the target language use in class, especially for those who teach English majors.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

In Chinese tertiary EFL teaching context, teachers usually switch code in class with the consideration of their students' language proficiency, which is not fully fledged, and the L1 is mainly employed to teach grammar and abstract concepts. Although classroom code-switching still tends to be regarded as an undesirable practice, it becomes acceptable to many teachers on the grounds that sensible use of the L1 may benefit foreign language instruction. Besides, there are only 12% teachers who think that target language-only method can be ideally realized in Chinese EFL settings, which demonstrates that most Chinese college English teachers have a strong awareness of their statuses as non-native speaker (NNS) English teachers. It is indicated that research in this group of teachers is becoming a recent phenomenon, which can be launched from the perspective of teachers' self-perceptions and students' attitudes (Braine, 2005). It is significant that some teachers, although a small number of them, notice the socio-cultural factors behind foreign language teaching, such as the issue of student identity, which are thought-provoking topics facing NNS teachers and learners.

Through understanding Chinese college English teachers' perceptions towards the functions, reasons and proportions of classroom code-switching, the present research intends to, on the one hand, arouse attentions from the educational

authorities as to the unavoidable phenomenon of classroom code-switching in Chinese EFL settings, on the other, to lay a solid basis for future research. As is mentioned in the beginning, the present research is only a pilot study and further research will be conducted about students' attitude toward code-switching, or teachers' actual code-switching practices in class. In that case, questions such as the discrepancy between teachers' behavior and belief, relations between students' and teachers' belief, etc. can be adequately analyzed.

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Program Evaluation on General English Course: A Case Study at Tabriz University

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Abstract—In the present study aims at evaluating general English program at Tabriz University, Iran. To this end, three questionnaires were designed in Likert scales which included needs analysis, materials evaluation from students' point of view and teacher analysis in which students provide their ideas about the agreement between their perceived needs, provided materials, and the methodology practiced in their classes. The data gathered for the purpose of data analysis. The data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively in order to answer the research questions. Since the needs analysis was a complex task with various possibilities of the needs and contexts, questions tap different constructs. So In quantitative analysis, the descriptive statistics were used to calculate the frequency with which different choices of the questions in the questionnaires occur. To make more comprehensive picture, the data were analyzed qualitatively too. In qualitative analysis, students' answers to the questionnaires, their performance in the class and what the teachers observed in the class and students' personal and informal talks with the teachers and stakeholders were compared to find patterns of convergence and divergence in the data.

Index Terms—program evaluation, materials developments, needs analysis, teacher evaluation, and textbook analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

As one might expect, over the last 35 years a number of those involved in language planning have put forward their ideas about what might constitute a model of language policy and planning whereas others have contributed to understanding the discipline be concentrating on language planning goals. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997 cited in Hinkel 2005) have argued the ideas need to be framed within an ecological context, whereas Hornberger (1994 cited in Hinkel 2005) was the first to explicitly bring the model and goals strands together in a single framework. When thinking about the things that contribute to a model, both policy and planning components need to be considered as well as whether such policy and planning is or will be overt or cover in terms of the way it is decided and put out into action. In addition, when language policy and planning is undertaken, there is a significant underlying historical and social component that helped to frame ongoing.

II. BACKGROUND AND PURPOSES

Evaluation focuses primarily on the institutional issues (institution is defined broadly as everything from the class, to the school and the society in which they are located) and, in particular, is motivated to a large extent by accountability requirements (for example, society's taxpayers demanding evidence that state school funding is being used efficiently and wisely). Purposes for evaluation are of two general types of motivation; administrative and instructional. Administrative purposes include making decisions about how to select or place individuals within language programs and how to organize or develop those programs. Instructional purposes include decisions about what individuals have achieved, as well as what they still need to learn, and how well components of the language programs are working.

A distinction that is sometimes made along these lines is the difference between summative and formative evaluation. In general, summative can be seen to correspond to administrative purposes. It is concerned with decisions about whether an individual student is ready for a particular level of program (or ready for entry of exemption) or not, whether the program is successful or not. Formative refers to decisions about assessing the process and ongoing needs of individuals in a language program or the ongoing nature of the program (which components are working, which need to be changed). Of course, summative and formative overlap, as do administrative and instructional. When we gather evidence to decide whether a program is successful or not (summative, administrative), we are usually interested in the possibility of making changes to improve it (formative, instructional). There are times, however, when one decision type or the other is the focus and the primary motivation for our evaluation efforts. Formative evaluation occurs while the program is being implemented and developed. The goal is to recommend changes for improving it, and, towards this end, it focuses on the program processes.

Typically the outcome of a formative evaluation is numerous small-scale recommendations for change. Summative evaluation occurs at the end of a program's natural term or cycle. The goal is to make an ultimate judgment about the program's worth, whether it has succeeded in meeting its objective or not. Typically the outcome of a summative evaluation id a formal report to be used in large scale decisions such as whether to continue funding the program or not.

Most people involved in language program administration and evaluation would say that few, if any, programs are ever entirely completed in terms of development, making summative evaluation difficult in its extreme form. In fact, most evaluations represent a combination of formative and summative. If we are interested in judging the ultimate worth of a program, we are usually open to explanations of why it is or is not working, and recommendations for improvement. Lynch (2003) also discusses this formative versus summative distinction as confirming versus innovative; that is sometimes our motivation is to decide whether or not our current practice (program) is doing what it should; at other times our motivation is to bring about innovation or change in those practices.

When a strict summative evaluation is called for, Brown (1989 cited in Lynch, 2003) points out it is best to avoid doing it in crisis mode. One way around this problem is to make formative evaluation an ongoing part of program process, so that the necessary information and procedures for gathering it are available without disruption (or at least with minimal disruption) to the normal running of the program. This leads to another way of looking at evaluation purposes; responding to external mandates and demands versus internal motivations for evaluation. Often, the purpose of an externally motivated evaluation is to arrive at a summative or combined summative and formative judgment of the program by looking at the material indicators, for example, the program's resources (books, professional credentials of staff, classroom space) as the primary indicators of its worth. Besides looking at the material indictors or other program products, another purpose for evaluation is to examine how the materials are used and the products are achieved. The major focus in this project is to understand program process.

Materials development is both a field of study and a practical undertaking (Cunningworth, 1995). As a field it studies the principles and procedures of the design, implementation and evaluation of language teaching materials as an undertaking it involves the production, evaluation and adaptation of language teaching materials, by teachers for their own classroom and by materials writers. These two aspects of material development are interactive in that the theoretical studies inform and are informed by the development and the use of classroom materials (Tomlinson, 2003). Materials can include anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory and etc. they can be instructional, experiential, elicitative or exploratory. It means that they can inform learners about language for themselves. Learners' needs and wants should derive the materials. These needs and wants are not irreconcilable and can be satisfied by localized projects which consult learners, teachers, and administrators before, during and after the materials.

Pre-use evaluation involves making predictions about the potential value of materials for their users. Often pre –use evaluation is impressionistic and consists of a teacher flicking through a book to gain a quick impression of its potential value. Making an evaluation criterion referenced can reduce subjectivity and can certainly help to make an evaluation more principled, rigorous, systematic and reliable. This is especially true if more than two evaluators conduct the evaluation independently and then the average their conclusion.

Whilst- use evaluation involves measuring the value of materials whilst using them or whist observing them being used. It can be more objective and reliable than pre-use evaluation as it makes use of measurement rather than prediction. However it is limited to measuring what is observable and cannot claim to measure what is happening in the learners' brains. It can measure short term memory through observing learner performance on exercises but it cannot measure durable and effective learning because of the delayed effect of instruction.

Post –use evaluation is probably the most valuable but the least administered type of evaluation as it can measure the actual effects of the materials on the users. It can measure the short-term effect as regards motivation, impact, achievability, instant and application. In other words, it can measure the actual outcomes of the use of the materials and thus provide the data on which reliable decisions about the use, adaptation or replacement of the materials can be made. The main problem is that it takes time and expertise to measure post-use effects reliably.

Current language programs primarily signify the very specific needs for which the learners are motivated to learn English. Therefore, the identification of these needs is the most critical step to develop materials or for preparing the learners for the related activities they need to perform in future. In fact, needs analysis help material developers and syllabus designers to select appropriate ways to bridge the gap between the learners' present command of English with that of they need to use in future and the means and the learning conditions influence their movement through this procedure. Needs analysis is described by Jordan (1997) as the process of determining the needs for which a learner or group of learners requires a language and arranging the needs according to priorities.

Although language planning and materials development have been around for many centuries undergoing various changes over centuries, they are oversimplified on a number of grounds. There has been a desire to over flood the market with all fit materials development and curriculum development in turn with little or no awareness of the kind of impact they may have on teaching and learning a language and objective achievements. Underlying any attempts in successful language planning and program, curriculum development, materials development is a focus on evaluation (Mukundun & Nimehchisalem, 2011). The present study aims to evaluate the general English language program at Tabriz University to investigate the efficiency of the components of the program in goal achievement.

Research Question
Considering the points mentioned above the following research questions are set:
1. Does Tabriz University general English language program meet students' present and future needs efficiently?

2. Are Tabriz University's general English language program materials efficiently in line with the students' present and future needs considering students point of view and that of the teachers?

3. Is Tabriz University's general English language program methodology with the focus on the teacher as the important agent efficiently in line with the students' present and future needs?

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants in the present study are 536 non-native male and female students from different majors who receive the same General English language course at Tabriz University. They are all between 18 to 30 years old whose L1 is Persian. The participants are approximately at the same level of English language proficiency with no or very little English language learning experience.

B. Instrumentation

Questionnaire. After deciding on the questions and classification of the questions according to the frameworks mentioned in the literature by different scholars namely Hutchinson and Water (1987), Robinson (1991), Jordan (1997), and Flowerdew and Peacock (2001), the questions were designed in the form of three questionnaires.

The first questionnaire was designed as need analysis questionnaire which had 5 parts. Part one is descriptor and related to learners' general characteristics. Part 2 is related to learners' target language needs which are validated according the theoretical framework in literature. Part 3 is designed on the bases of learners' present needs which are cross validated by different scholars' views. Part 4 is designed on the base of learners ' preferences and strategy use. Part 5 is designed on the base of learners learning needs on the base of the set of questions proposed by Hutchinson and Water (1987) to identify learners learning needs. The questions were appraised and evaluated by the professor. Then the questions were translated to Farsi and reviewed by a colleague to resolve any source of miscomprehension. Final draft was prepared and administered to participants. Samples were selected by convenient sampling procedure and the questionnaire is conducted at one setting. The questionnaire is in fixed format restricted response.

The second questionnaire was designed to evaluate the textbook students were studying during the semesters. This questionnaire was designed to evaluate the textbooks from the participants' point of view.

The third questionnaire was designed to evaluate the methodology used by teachers to teach the course. Participants were supposed to evaluate if the methodology adapted by the teachers were on line with their needs.

C. Design

Participants were informed about the purpose of the project and they are made sure about the confidentiality of the answers. Questionnaires were handed to the participants in single session and the teachers were asked to help students in the case of miss understanding. The data were gathered for the purpose of data analysis.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The data were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively in order to answer the research questions. Since the needs analysis is a complex task with various possibilities of the needs and contexts, questions tap different constructs. So In qualitative analysis, the descriptive statistics was used to calculate the frequency with which different choices of the questions in the questionnaires occur. To make more comprehensive picture the data are analyzed qualitatively too. In qualitative analysis, students' answers to the questionnaires and their performance in the class and what the teachers observed in the class and students' personal and informal talks with the teachers and stakeholders are compared to find patterns of convergence and divergence in the data.

V. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. Needs Analysis

1. Research Question I

First, the needs analysis questionnaire was evaluated to answer the first research question which is if Tabriz University' general English language program meets students' present and future needs efficiently. The best item to start with in this questionnaire is motivation which was designed in questions 5, 20, 25. In question 5 which is about the necessity of learning a foreign language as a requirement in order to graduate, 81% of the participants selected the first and second choice which say it is necessary to learn a foreign language as a requirement in order to graduate. Question 20 is related to the required amount of time that participants think should be allocate to English learning in their academic schedule. 90% of the participants selected the first and second choices which say more than 2 or 4 hours are needed to spend on English language in their general English language education program. The next question which was designed to tap student's degree of motivation in English language leaning is question 25which asks about the reasons for learning English language. Only 14% of the participants selected the first choice which says the reason why participants learn English is that it is obligatory. 82% of the participants selected other choices which say the reasons

for learning English are related to the increase in the social status, better job and better financial conditions and promotions in their career.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	323	60.3	60.6	60.6
	choice 2	116	21.6	21.8	82.4
	choice 3	79	14.7	14.8	97.2
	choice 4	15	2.8	2.8	100.0
	Total	533	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	3	.6		
Total		536	100.0		

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 20

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	249	46.5	47.5	47.5
	choice 2	173	32.3	33.0	80.5
	choice 3	52	9.7	9.9	90.5
	choice 4	50	9.3	9.5	100.0
	Total	524	97.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	2.2		
Total		536	100.0		

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 25

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	80	14.9	15.2	15.2
	choice 2	315	58.8	59.7	74.8
	choice 3	36	6.7	6.8	81.6
	choice 4	97	18.1	18.4	100.0
	Total	528	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	8	1.5		
Total		536	100.0		

Now, whether this high motivation is paid attention to in educational system of Tabriz University should be evaluated. To answer this question, the researcher used several options. After motivation, the objectives that participants plan to achieve by learning English are important since the researcher tried to investigate if these objectives could be met by current educational system. This construct was taped in questions 6, 7, 12.

In question 6 which is about the participants' objective in learning English, 45% of the participants selected the first choice which says the objective participants pursue is communication with other English speakers whereas other choices which are personal interest, meeting job and education requirements have lower frequencies.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 6

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	235	43.8	45.0	45.0
	choice 2	65	12.1	12.5	57.5
	choice 3	83	15.5	15.9	73.4
	choice 4	139	25.9	26.6	100.0
	Total	522	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	14	2.6		
Total		536	100.0		

Question 7 is also related to the objectives. In this question, 55% of the participants selected the first choice which says the main objective is speaking in English whereas the rest of the choices which are writing, reading and listening have lower frequencies of 7%, 21% and 15% respectively.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	292	54.5	55.4	55.4
	choice2	40	7.5	7.6	63.0
	choice3	114	21.3	21.6	84.6
	choice 4	81	15.1	15.4	100.0
	Total	527	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	1.7		
Total		536	100.0		

Question 12 is also designed to check participants' objectives. In this question, 54% of the participants selected the second choice which is improving speaking skills as their main objective. Other choices which are related to improving writing, reading and translation have lower frequency

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 12

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	34	6.3	6.5	6.5
	choice 2	284	53.0	54.2	60.7
	choice 3	47	8.8	9.0	69.7
	choice 4	115	21.5	21.9	91.6
	choice 5	44	8.2	8.4	100.0
	Total	524	97.8	100.0	
Missing	System	12	2.2		
Total		536	100.0		

The researcher reached to this conclusion that the main objective of the students for learning English is communicating orally with the world around. The researcher aims at evaluating if the teachers and materials help participants to reach their objective or not in later section.

The next option in this needs analysis was the participants' current proficiency level. This option is designed in questions 11, 13, 14, 15, and 16. In question is about their strength in four language skills. In question 11, 41% of the participants selected reading as the skill at which there were competent and the other skills like listening and speaking have 28% and 15% frequency.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 11

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	83	15.5	15.7	15.7
	choice 2	72	13.4	13.6	29.4
	choice 3	219	40.9	41.5	70.8
	choice 4	150	28.0	28.4	99.2
	5.00	3	.6	.6	99.8
	33.00	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	528	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	8	1.5		
Total		536	100.0		

Question 13 is related to the participants' current level of listening skills. 47% of the participants declared that they are weak at listening skills.

TABLE 13.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 13

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	51	9.5	9.6	9.6
	choice 2	111	20.7	20.9	30.5
	choice 3	118	22.0	22.2	52.6
	choice 4	250	46.6	47.0	99.6
	5.00	1	.2	.2	99.8
	400.00	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	532	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	4	.7		
Total		536	100.0		

It can be noticed that whereas participants have considered speaking and oral communication as their main objectives, they are very weak at these skills. In relation to their objective, having this weak level of proficiency in speaking and listening may cause problems in reaching their objectives.

Question 14 is related to the participants' current writing skills. Only 9% of the participants evaluated themselves as weak whereas 39% and 34% of the participants evaluated their writing skills as intermediate or advance respectively. Considering these percentages in relation with participants' objective which is oral communication, it seems the current English learning program is not efficient.

TABLE 14.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 14

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice1	73	13.6	14.1	14.1
	choice 2	210	39.2	40.7	54.8
	choice 4	182	34.0	35.3	90.1
	choice 4	51	9.5	9.9	100.0
	Total	516	96.3	100.0	
Missing	System	20	3.7		
Total		536	100.0		

Question 15 is about participants' current speaking ability. 37% of the participants evaluated their speaking ability as average and 33% as weak whereas very good and good rates have the frequency of 6% and 19%. Considering the participants objective which is oral communication, this frequency is of less significance and this shows that English education system and at broader scope English education programming and policy are not in match with participants needs and current proficiency level.

TABLE 15.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 15

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	32	6.0	6.3	6.3
	choice 2	101	18.8	19.8	26.1
	choice 3	200	37.3	39.2	65.3
	choice 4	177	33.0	34.7	100.0
	Total	510	95.1	100.0	
Missing	System	26	4.9		
Total		536	100.0		

In relation to the above mentioned points, question 26 is related to the participants' English learning experiences. 61% of the participants selected choice 3 which says they have little English learning experience. Therefore, the current educational system should take responsibilities in providing a better educational medium on the basis of participants' needs.

TABLE 16.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 26

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	34	6.3	6.4	6.4
	choice 2	134	25.0	25.3	31.8
	choice 3	327	61.0	61.8	93.6
	choice 4	34	6.3	6.4	100.0
	Total	529	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	7	1.3		
Total		536	100.0		

The next option is related to the methods of evaluating students' progress which is designed in question 21 and 23. In question 21which is about the kind of learning strategies desired by the participants, 50% and 24% of the participants selected group work and pair work as their desire strategies whereas only 23% selected individual leaning. Creating opportunities for cooperative learning is desirable. To see if this desired learning strategy is paid attention to by the teaching methodology or materials, the second and their questioner data should be analyzed.

TABLE 17.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 21

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	124	23.1	23.4	23.4
	choice 2	133	24.8	25.1	48.5
	choice 3	270	50.4	50.9	99.4
	choice 4	3	.6	.6	100.0
	Total	530	98.9	100.0	
Missing	System	6	1.1		
Total		536	100.0		

In Question 23 which is about the method favored by participants to know about their progress, 56% of the participants declared the use of English in daily activities as the best way to know if they have progress or not whereas the other choice that highlighted the role of teachers in this evaluation have lower frequency. For example, written examination has 19% and oral examination prepared by the teacher has 14% of frequency. The point that less active role given to the teacher by participants in evaluating learning may show participants have a great tendency for taking more responsibility in their own learning which will be crossed check with the results of the other questionnaires.

TABLE 18.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 23

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	103	19.2	19.5	19.5
	choice 2	78	14.6	14.8	34.3
	choice 3	49	9.1	9.3	43.6
	choice 4	296	55.2	56.2	99.8
	5.00	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	527	98.3	100.0	
Missing	System	9	1.7		
Total		536	100.0		

The other option in needs analysis questionnaire is providing opportunities for the participants to use what they learned in the class in out of class contexts. Since participants declared they have very limited English learning experience (question 26) and since they have a great motivation for English language learning (question 5, 7, 22), creating opportunities for participants to use the learned language is of great significance. This point is designed by question 28. In this question, 72% of the participants claimed that the only learning opportunity they have out of the classroom is limited their doing their homework and reading their lessons, whereas only 3% and 12% of the participants have discussion opportunities on the learned material out of the class context. This shows that the focus of the English educational system is on writing and reading whereas most of the participants considered oral communication as their main objective. It is definitely it is the time for a change so that a match between participants needs and what is prescribed in advance, between what is actually happening and what is appropriate.

TABLE 19.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 28

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	choice 1	20	3.7	4.0	4.0
	choice 2	68	12.7	13.4	17.4
	choice 3	365	68.1	72.1	89.5
	choice 4	53	9.9	10.5	100.0
	Total	506	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	30	5.6		
Total		536	100.0		

2. Discussion I

Evaluation is basically a matching process; matching needs to available Solutions. The current program evaluation showed that there is a great discrepancy between what is needed and what already is available, between what is actually happening and what is appropriate.

As an answer to the first research question which is if Tabriz University' general English language program meets students' present and future needs efficiently, various options have been evaluated in the form of designed questions in the questionnaire.

The first option is about motivation. Having checked the designed question for this construct, the researcher made this conclusion that participants are very motivated students since the considered learning English as a necessary prerequisite of being graduated. They also requested more time to be allocated to their English course. Only few percentage of students considered learning English as an obligatory activity. They are instrumentally motivated to its great extent. Unfortunately, their motivation is not responded appropriately in their current general English course since there was no match between what was happening and what was appropriate.

This is quite obvious in studying the next option which was about participants' objective for learning English. Great percentage of participants considered oral communication as the main reason for learning English and speaking as their most required skill, this is totally in contrast with what they receive as their English education program. Great percentages of participants claim that they are good at reading whereas their speaking and listening are weak. This shows that the current English program focused on writing and reading and now it is a time for a shift to speaking and listening skills which are not only are required by the participants to reach their objective which is oral communication but also they are very week at. Considering the participants objective which is oral communication, this shows that English education system and at broader scope English education programming and policy are not in match with participants needs and current proficiency level.

The other option in needs analysis questionnaire is providing opportunities for the participants to use what they learned in the class in out of class contexts. Since participants declared they have very limited English learning experience (question 26) and since they have a great motivation for English language learning (question 5, 7, 22), creating opportunities for participants to use the learned language is of great significance

B. Textbook Evaluation

1. Research Question II

To answer the second research question which is if Tabriz University's general English language program materials are efficiently in line with the students' present and future needs considering students point of view and that of the teachers, the second questionnaire which is textbook evaluation questionnaire was used.

The first construct in this questionnaire is about participants' motivation. This construct had high frequency in needs analysis questionnaire meaning that participants are highly motivated learners. The challenging point is if this motivation is responded in textbook participants study. This point is designed in questions 2, 4, 9. In question 2, 4 and 9 only 16%, 19% and 13% of the participants respectively consider the textbooks as motivational. This shows that high motivation on the side of participants is not responded by the textbooks.

TABLE 20.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	201	32.1	32.2	32.2
	to some extent	318	50.8	51.0	83.2
	yes	105	16.8	16.8	100.0
	Total	624	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.3		
Total		626	100.0		

TABLE 21.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	211	33.7	33.9	33.9
	to some extent	288	46.0	46.3	80.2
	yes	122	19.5	19.6	99.8
	11.00	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	622	99.4	100.0	
Missing	System	4	.6		
Total		626	100.0		

TABLE 22.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	268	42.8	43.2	43.2
	to some extent	267	42.7	43.0	86.2
	yes	85	13.6	13.7	99.8
	22.00	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	621	99.2	100.0	
Missing	System	5	.8		
Total		626	100.0		

The next option in this questionnaire is related to the point if participants'' needs are met in the textbooks or not. This point is designed by the questions 5 and 7. In question 5 and 7 only 24% and 17% of the participants found textbooks in line with their needs. This low frequency shows that program developers should not prescribe any program in advance. The participant's needs should be taken into account.

TABLE 23.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	174	27.8	27.9	27.9
	to some extent	299	47.8	47.9	75.8
	yes	151	24.1	24.2	100.0
	Total	624	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.3		
Total		626	100.0		

TABLE 24.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	no	191	30.5	30.8	30.8
	to some extent	321	51.3	51.8	82.6
	yes	108	17.3	17.4	100.0
	Total	620	99.0	100.0	
Missing	System	6	1.0		
Total		626	100.0		

The next option in this questionnaire is related to the activities and the way participants can get informed about their progress. This point is designed in question 10. This question asks if they can learn the martial by their own. Only 14% of the participants claim that the materials could be learned individually. Since in the needs analysis questionnaire it is understood that participants value pair work and group work, and since in the textbook questionnaire only 14% of

students found textbooks in line with their preferred learning styles and the rest favored pair work and group work, materials developers need to provide a room for cooperative learning in textbooks.

2. Discussion II

Having analyzed the data on textbook questionnaire, the researcher found that participants' motivation was not responded by the textbooks as the participants consider their textbooks dissatisfactory. The other point about this analysis is related to whether participants' needs were met by the textbooks or not. Analysis of the data shows that textbooks are not in line with the participants' needs. The other point in this analysis is related to the activities and tasks on the books. Most of the activities and tasks are designed in such a way that they can be done individually whereas the preferred learning style by the students are pair work and group work. So materials should provide a room for cooperative learning.

A textbook doesn't exist for its own sake. The textbook fulfills a need, a purpose, it performs a function, conveys meaning. It is important for the developers of the materials to be aware of the needs, purpose, function and meaning so that appropriate and adequate resources may be employed to address and convey them. Textbook is structured along various levels to create meaning though the selection of resources from various options available to perform specific functions in specific contexts. ELT textbook is a communicative act; it has functions to be performed and meaning to be communicated by ELT textbook. The role of, materials in a language curriculum system is defined with respect to content (syllabus) and with respect to a learner and teacher roles. Instructional materials specify subject matter content; define the day to day objectives that collectively constitute the goals for the syllabus. The role of material reflects or must reflect decisions concerning its primarily goal and form, the relation the material holds to other sources of input and the abilities of the teachers. Thus, a textbook must take into account not just the leaning outcomes and the aims and objective defined by the syllabus, it must also informed by teacher needs and abilities and the context of teaching in the classroom. This context will shape its form or genre. The materials can be provided by making a workshop. Teachers were selected to provide a team of varying age, experiences and expertise. Some innovative approaches are demonstrated to extend the teachers repertoire of activity types and to stimulate thought and discussion about the principles of language learning. A flexible framework must be worked out to use in producing the materials and making some decisions together about the use of illustration, music and cassettes. Materials can be written and controlled in a small teams while small group of facilitators supported them and cross-checked with the syllabus. The last step is trailing, revisiting and editing.

C. Teacher Analysis

1. Research Question III

The third phase of this study is devoted to the evaluation of the methodology used to teach to the participants. The aim is to see if the method used is in line with participants' needs. The challenging point is to see if teachers responded to participants' needs in the form of teaching methodology and activities. This point is designed in questions 3, 4, 5, 6, 8. In question 3, the participants were asked about how they evaluate their teachers' ability in conveying the intended meaning using relevant examples. 62% of the participants claim the teachers have high ability in conveying the intended meaning. The question is if having competent teachers is enough for success of any educational system.

Question 4 is related to the creation of group work and pair work opportunities. 51% of the participants claim that there was absence of group work. Since participants favored cooperative learning in the form of group work and pair work in the needs analysis, teachers should design these kinds of activities and include them in their lesson plan.

TABLE 25.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	173	26.9	26.9	26.9
	no	331	51.4	51.5	78.4
	to some extent	139	21.6	21.6	100.0
	Total	643	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		644	100.0		

Question 8 is related to whether there is a match between participants' needs and the tasks and activities asked by the teacher. 44% of the participants claim that there is no match between what they need and the teachers provide them with in the form of activities and tasks and only 29 % of the participants were satisfied by the classroom activities.

TABLE 26.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	191	29.7	29.7	29.7
	no	289	44.9	44.9	74.7
	to some extent	162	25.2	25.2	99.8
	22.00	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	643	99.8	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.2		
Total		644	100.0		

Question 9 is related to the opportunities of the out of classroom context to use what was learned in the classes. Only 19 % of the participants claim that they are provided with the opportunities to use the learned language in out of classroom context.

TABLE 27.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON QUESTION 9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	yes	127	19.7	19.8	19.8
	no	329	51.1	51.2	71.0
	to some extent	186	28.9	29.0	100.0
	Total	642	99.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	.3		
Total		644	100.0		

2. Discussion III

As it was the case with needs analysis and textbook evaluation, teacher analysis showed that there is a discrepancy between what the participants wanted and what the teacher provided in their classes through their lesson plans. Whereas participants desired group and pair work as their classroom activities, there was limited amount of cooperative learning since no opportunity was provided neither thorough teacher support nor through textbooks.

In the recent literature, the concept of the ideal teacher has some notoriety especially in relation to the native/ non native dichotomy. It is becoming a generally accepted view that outstanding teachers cannot be squeezed into any pigeonhole: all outstanding teachers are ideal in their own ways, and as such are different from each other. The concept of the ideal teacher resists clear cut definitions, because there are too many variables to consider. In order to get a better grasp of the ideal teacher we should suppose that other variables are kept constant momentarily, then language proficiency would be an important criterion. The trouble is that all things are never equal in the classroom, so the phrase the more proficient the more efficient is only partially valid. Certain factors which are as important as language proficiency, particularly relevant teaching qualifications and extent of one's teaching experience. There has been the danger of an automatic extrapolation from competent speaker to competent teacher based on linguistic grounds alone, without taking into consideration the criteria of cultural, social, and pedagogical appropriacy. Indeed, an issue waiting to be addressed is the complex relationship between the different aspects of teachers' classroom practice. Both native and non native teachers serve equally useful purposes in their own ways. Given a favorable mix, various forms of collaboration are possible, and learners can only gain from such cross-fertilization.

The teacher's role has grown tremendously. In the days when most research was experimental, investigations were typically conducted by outsiders to ensure objectivity in data collection and interpretation. Teachers were seen either as subjects in a particular study or as the implementers of the treatment in the experiment. Now, however, there is a much more inclusive view of teachers as partners in the research enterprise, working in collaboration with the researchers. The following roles of a teacher are provided by Harmer (2001).

When announcements need to be made, when order has to be restored, when explanations are given, or when the teacher is leading a question and answer session, the teacher acts as a controller. One of the most important roles that teachers have to perform is that of organizing students to do various activities. This often involves giving the students information, telling them how they are going to do the activity, putting them into pairs or groups, and finally closing things down when it is time to stop. In this case, the teachers act as an organizer.

One thing that students expect from their teachers is an indication of whether or not they are getting their English right. This is where the teachers act an assessor, offering feedback and correction and grading students in various ways. Students need to know how and for what they are being assessed. Sometimes when students are involved in a role-play activity, for example, they lose the thread of what is going on, or they are lost for words. They may not be quite sure how to proceed. In this case the teacher can act as a prompter.

There are many good reasons for teachers to take part in a discussion. They can enliven things from the inside instead of always having to prompt or organize from outside the group. When it goes well the students can enjoy having the teacher with them, and for the teacher, participating is often more instantly enjoyable as a resource. The danger of teachers as participants, of course, is that they may easily dominate the proceedings. Suppose that the students are involved in a piece of group writing, in such situation having the teacher take part, or try to control them, or even turn up to prompt them might be entirely unwelcome. However, the students may need their teachers as a resource.

Teacher can also act as tutors working with the individuals or small groups. Pointing them in directions they have not yet thought of taking especially in longer projects.

Teachers can also observe students to see what they do so that they can give them useful group and individual feedback. Teachers do not only observe students to give feedback. They also watch in order to judge the success of the different materials and activities that they take into lessons so that they can, if necessary, make changes in the future. So teacher analysis involves analyzing all the effective roles that an efficient teacher may play within the constraints of the institution.

VI. CONCLUDING REMARK

As the result of the study dictates, there is no match between participants' needs, textbooks provided for the participants and the kind of teaching they receive from their teachers. Therefore, general English course does not appear to have been developed based on contemporary ELT principles. The considerable budget that was dedicated to its development has interesting implications for language program developers and evaluators.

APPENDIX I. NEEDS ANALYSIS

*Answer the following questions.
Part1: General learner needs survey
Name_____
Age _____
Intended Occupation_____
Intended field of study_____
Purposes for English learning_____
People with whom you will interact_____
Other languages that you know_____
....

Part 2: (Target language analysis)
5. In your opinion, is it necessary to know a foreign language in order to graduate in your field?
a) Very much   b) not very much   c) a little   d) absolutely not
6. What is your main purpose in studying English?
a) communication   b) job
c) personal interest   d) your studies
7. Which skill do you think you need more in your future career? (Mark from the most important: 1, to the weakest: 4)
Speaking
Writing
Reading
Listening
8. How will you use language in future?
a) Telephone or face to face communication   b) written (reading and witting in English)
5. What type of text or discourse do you think you will use?
a) Academic text   b) every day conversation   c) lectures   d) technical manuals
9. Where will you use language?
a) Office   b) lecture theater   c) meetings   d) library
Part 3: (Present situation analysis)
10 In which skill do you think you are stronger at? (Mark from strongest: 1, to the weakest: 4)
1) Speaking
2) Writing
3) Reading
4) Listening
11. What kind of English course do you think you need more now? (Mark from the important 1, to the weakest 4.)
a) To improve writing skills   c) to improve reading skills
b) To improve speaking skills   d) to improve translation skills
10. How do you assess your proficiency in the following language skills?
12) Listening
a) very good   b) good   c) fair   d) weak
13*) Writing*
a) very good   b) good   c) fair   d) weak
14) Speaking
a) very good   b) good   c) fair   d) weak
15) Reading

a) very good   b) good   c) fair   d) weak
16. Which type of speaking activity do you need more?
a) General conversation   B) group discussion   C) giving lectures
17. Which type of reading activity do you think will help you more to improve your reading skill?
a) reading journals   B) reading textbooks   C) reading texts with general subjects (news papers)
18. Which type of writing activity do you need more?
a) taking notes   B) writing reports   C) writing articles   b)writing projects
19. How many hours of instruction do you think are appropriate for your course?
a) 2 hours   b) 4 hours   c) 6 hours   d) more than 6 hours
Part 4: (strategy analysis)
20. How do you like learning?
a) individually   b) pair work   c) group work
21. What style of learning do you like more?
a) Memorizing   b) project based   c) listening and making notes
d) Writing and making notes
22. How do you like to find out how much your English is improving?
a) Written tasks set by the teachers
b) Oral language samples taken and assessed by the teacher
c) Checking your own progress by making tapes, listening and comparing
d) Seeing if you can use language you have learned in real life
23. How much are you interested in using subject specific texts than using general everyday used texts in order to improve your reading?
a) very much   b) much   c) not much
……………………………………………………………………………………..
Part 5: (Analyzing learning needs)
24. Why are you taking the course?
a) compulsory   b) statues   c) money   d) promotion
25. How much experience do you have in learning English?
a) very much   b) much   c) a little   d) absolutely no experience
26. How much do you think that it is necessary for you to study general English before Specific English?
a) It is necessary   b) it is not necessary
27. How many opportunities do you have for out of class activities and practices?
a) Many   b) a few   c) absolutely no opportunity
28. What types of teaching and learning styles do you benefit more?
a) lecture type   b) discussion type   c) self study   d) project based

APPENDIX II. TEXTBOOK EVALUATION

This questionnaire is devised to evaluate the TEFL Program in Tabriz University. Your careful answers will be meaningful to the curriculum developers and TEFL program administrators. The information will be kept confidential and will be used just for evaluation purposes. Thank you for your cooperation.

Please check the box that best describes your view about the textbooks you are reading for the General English Course
3 -1: from the highest degree of approval to the lowest
3 = Completely   2 = Partly   1 = Not at all

1. Textbook evaluation	3	2	1
1. Are the topics appropriate, interesting, challenging, varied, culturally acceptable, and unlikely to date to the learners for whom the textbook is intended (urban rural environment; child or adult learners; male and/or female)			
2. Is the ordering of materials done by topics, themes, and difficulty in a logical fashion?			
3. Is the material accurate and up-to-date?			
4. Are the activities appropriate for students?			
5. Are the explanations understandable and usable for students?			
6. Is the book sensitive to what students need in order to learn well?			
7. Do textbooks encourage you to use language creatively?			
8. Do textbooks provide you with suggestions and strategies for successful learning?			
9. Can the materials be studied individually?			
10. Do textbooks provide you with the opportunities to evaluate your learning like progress check, and self checks?			

Please write about the points that are not considered in this questionnaire or the points that are considered but you want to elaborate on them. (Thanks for contribution in this study)
     ………
………

………
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………
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APPENDIX III. TEACHER EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is devised to evaluate the TEFL Program in Tabriz University. Your careful answers will be meaningful to the curriculum developers and TEFL program administrators. The information will be kept confidential and will be used just for evaluation purposes. Thank you for your cooperation.

Please check the box that best describes your view about the teacher you have for the General English Course

	Yes	no	To some extent
1. Do you think that your teacher needs to know the technical concepts of your major?			
2. Do you think that your teacher is able to convey his intended meaning?			
2. Does your teacher use suitable examples to convey his meaning?			
4. Does you teacher provide some opportunities for group and pair work?			
5. Does your teacher let you know about your progress during the semester?			
6. Does your teacher ask for suggestion for better learning context?			
7. Does your teacher use recent sources to teach you?			
8. is there any match between your needs and textbooks' tasks?			
9. Does your teacher provide some opportunities for the use of what you learner in out of classroom context?			

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Negative Transfer of Chinese Sentence Patterns on Students' English Writing

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Abstract—**The necessity of improving the English writing ability of the Chinese students has been realized gradually and writing is always difficult for Chinese students as well as for teachers of English. Among the many difficulties, errors from the influence of Chinese sentence patterns are the obscure one which students cannot overcome easily. This paper, which aims at exploring the differences between Chinese and English sentence patterns, along with the causes of negative transfer of Chinese sentence patterns on students' English writing, is desired to be of some help to both language teachers and language learners.**

Index Terms—**negative transfer, Chinese sentence patterns, English writing**

I. CHINESE SENTENCE PATTERNS VS. ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS

According to linguistic typologies, the basic word order of both Chinese and English is SVO, the two languages, however, are considerably different in terms of rigidity. English word order is quite rigid (Odlin, 1989). In an English sentence, a subject-predicate structure is stringently obeyed and a predicative verb is the center of a sentence. So each English sentence is a cubic architecture with the trunk of subject-predicate structure and the kernel of predicative verb. And English sentences are linked by various cohesive devices in order to show the logic relationship of these sentences. On the contrary, Chinese word order is more flexible, which is connected by the semantic meaning of the sentence. Besides the basic SVO structure, two or more verbs can appear in one Chinese sentence and a complete sentence can be made up of two or more sentences. The sentence is composed in thought flow; there are hardly cohesive ties to connect the sentences; the relation between subject and predicate is loose in form. Three types of distinctive sentence patterns will be discussed respectively.

A. Topic-comment Sentences vs. Subject-predicate Sentences

The first Chinese typical sentence is a topic-prominent one compared with English subject-predicate sentence. By "topic structure", we mean any grammatical configuration consisting of two parts: the topic, which invariably occurs first, and the comment, a clause which follows the topic and says something about it (徐烈炯, 2009). It is widely accepted that English sentence is a language unit including subject and predicate. A topic in Chinese appears at the beginning of a sentence, but it can be or cannot be the subject in an English sentence. For example, the English equivalent for "夏天很难保存食物" is "It's difficult to preserve food in summer". "夏天" in Chinese is the topic, while an temporal adverbial in English. Hockett (1958) suggested that topic and comment generally characterized the immediate constituents of predicative constructions. "The speaker announces a topic and then says something about it". In discussing Chinese, Hockett points out that many Chinese comments themselves consist of both a topic and a comment. There can be two or more topics in a sentence. In this way, a Chinese sentence can be built up of predications within predications. Hockett's example of this is: 我今天城里有事。I today town-in have thing. "I have business in town today."(1958) Thus the relationship between topic and comment is much looser, syntactically, than the relationship between subject and predicate.

B. Multi-predicate Sentences vs. Multi-preposition & Noun Sentences

Secondly, there exist multi-predicate sentences in Chinese. 林同济(1980) stated, "Emphasis on verbs is the basic trend for making Chinese sentence. Multiples of verbs are used in order of time to create an effect of verb prominence even in the cost of ellipse of connectors." He called it chronicle style. For example, 老关急忙跳下车去，摸摸腰间的勃朗宁，又向四下里瞥了一眼，就过去开了车门，站在门旁边.The series of verbs "…跳下…摸摸…瞥了…过去开了…站…" indicate the actions taking place in order of time. On the other hand, plenty of abstract nouns and prepositions are used frequently in English. Let's look at this typical sentence. "Coming!" Away she skimmed over the lawn, up the path, up the steps, across the veranda, and into the porch. The Chinese translation equivalence is "来啦!", 她转身蹦着跳着地跑了，越过草地，跑上小径，跨上台阶，穿过凉台，进了门廊。In English sentences, there are a series of prepositions such as "over", "up", "across", and "into", indicating a series of actions.

C. Paratactic Sentences vs. Hypotactic Sentences

The third sentence pattern is a paratactic pattern in Chinese compared with a hypotactic one in English. Quirk et al

(1972) introduced seven sentence types according to the grammatical functions of the constituents involved in an English sentence. According to their structure, sentences are simple, compound, complex and compound-complex. Having the structure of subject and predicate as the core，English sentences can be extended by conjoining or embedding with overt connectors. There is no limit of the number of embedding clauses. Please look at these sentences.

This is the cat.

This is the cat that killed the rat.

This is the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt.

This is the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house.

This is the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.

It is a multi-level hypotactic sentence with explicit connectors including five levels which are five clauses. Contrary to it，Chinese sentence is a mono-level sentence. If we translate this sentence into Chinese, we have to change the word order: 屋子是杰克盖的。老鼠吃了堆放在屋里的麦芽。这是那只吃了老鼠的猫。This is a group of sentences instead of a simple sentence. It's a paratactic sentence without connectors, which is typical to Chinese sentences. Predicates alter with the change of subjects. The order of the clauses is different, either. Chinese prefers a clause sequence of subordinate-main in complex sentences.

因为风太大，所以比赛改期了。

Because the wind was too strong, the competition was postponed.

The sentence structure is subordinate-main, as indeed is acknowledged by the Chinese term for these complex sentences, which is 偏正复句. The "because" adverbial clause offers some information that explains the proposition in the main clause. Generally speaking, the semantic meaning of the sentence determines that the sequence of information in Chinese is fixed. In particular, in Chinese conditional, concessive and cause and effect sentences, the main clause usually comes after the subordinate clause. This comparatively fixed sequence of information indicates that connectors are scarcely necessary. In Chinese, when two sentences are juxtaposed, even if there are no connectors, we still know that the first sentence includes meanings such as "although", "if", "because", etc., because the subordinate component must come at the beginning (王力, 1984). In English, however, the "if" clauses, the "because" clauses, the "though" clauses and the "when" clauses can either go before or after the main clause. This indicates that connectors are necessary, for English does not follow natural order. For example, without some necessary connectors, an English reader does not know which sentence in "He twisted his ankle. He fell down." is the cause and which is the effect.

II. Analysis of Erroneous Sentences in the Writing of Chinese Students

There are various manifestations of the errors in three kinds of transfer sentences including (1)passive voice without "be", (2)redundancy of the topic, (3)subjectless sentences, (4)omission of linking verbs and auxiliary verbs, (5)inconsistency of the actor and action, (6)there-be structure as the topic, (7)two or more predicate verbs, (8)comma splices, (9)fragment sentences. Among them, (1)-(6) belong to topic-comment sentences, (7) is multi-predicate sentences and (8)-(9) belong to paratactic sentences (黄俊娟, 2004). Now let's see some examples selected from the writing samples of Chinese students.

A. Topic-comment Sentences

(1) Advertisements through many ways sent to people.

In this sentence, a passive voice should be used according to the subject "advertisements". As the passive voice is usually omitted in Chinese, it's grammatically correct to let the passive voice replaced by active voice in Chinese sentences. This student wrote the sentence "Advertisements through many ways sent to people." by Chinese "广告通过各种途径传递给人们". The predicate verb "sent" is translated from Chinese phrase "传递" which shows an active voice, while a passive voice is needed here.

(2) The person who has a credit card doesn't mean he is in fashion.

The student wrote this sentence "The person who has a credit card doesn't mean he is in fashion." from Chinese translation "一个人有信用卡并不意味着他很时尚", without considering its logic grammatical relationship. In an English sentence, one subject-predicate structure is strictly obeyed and a predicate verb is the center of a sentence. The subject in English should be a noun, a noun phrase or a subject clause. As "一个人有信用卡" is a subject-predicate structure, it should be converted into a subject clause which serves as the subject in this sentence.

(3) When we go shopping, often use the credit card to buy something we can't afford.

This is a subjectless sentence. In a Chinese sentence, subject is often omitted, and this is forbidden in the English sentence. For the Chinese people, this sentence "当我们逛街的时候，经常用信用卡买一些负担不起的东西" is acceptable. On the contrary，the English speakers view this sentence "When we go shopping, often use the credit card to buy something we can't afford." as an wrong sentence unless we add a subject to the main clause. Clearly, the student transferred a Chinese sentence into his English writing.

(4) It has become a fashion, and we can happy to have a credit card.

In English an adjective cannot be used as a predicate. An adjective should be used with a linking verb to form a

complete predicate construction.

(5) There are more and more students have their own credit cards.

In Chinese, "there-be" structure states a topic followed by a comment. Based on it, this student made his wrong sentence.

(6) Credit cards have many advantages and disadvantages.

This sentence indicates inconsistency of actor and action. The action "have" cannot be completed by the actor "credit card". English grammar requires that the action "have" should be finished by a person.

The above sentences can be changed into the following sentences:

(1) Advertisements are sent to people through many ways.

(2) That the person who has a credit card doesn't mean he is in fashion.

(3) When we go shopping, we often use the credit card to buy something we can't afford.

(4) It has become a fashion, and we can be happy to have a credit card.

(5) There are more and more students having their own credit cards.

(6) There are many advantages and disadvantages of having credit cards.

B.   Multi-predicate Sentences

(1) Different people have different views, have different choices.

(2) Have a credit card means we can use money now, but pay back to the bank later.

(3) In addition, I think use credit card to pay for goods is a fashionable style.

(4) We can buy clothes, pay for tuition, go travel with it.

Each of these sentences consists of two or more predicate verbs. In a typical English sentence, however, only one predicate verb can exist. As in Chinese, it is fairly common to use two or more verbs as predicates, so it is not difficult to find that these sentences are transferred from Chinese. In the last sentence "We can buy clothes, pay for tuition, go travel with it.", the series of verbs "buy", "pay", "go", "travel" cannot all be used as predicates, so we either choose one as the predicate and change the forms of the other three verbs or use cohesive tie to connect these verbs. In the same way, a more idiomatic English expression of the first sentence should be "Views and choices vary from people to people". In this sentence, "有不同的观点，有不同的选择" are both verbal phrases and used as predicates, and no cohesive tie exists to connect them. So influenced by this Chinese structure, the student translated it directly into English "Different people have different views, have different choices." Obviously, the students transfer Chinese multi-verb sentences into English. These sentences are erroneous multi-predicate sentences, because verbs are predicates in English. The influence of Chinese multi-verb sentences contributes to the cause of negative transfer of multi-predicate sentences.

The above sentences can be changed into the following sentences:

(1) Views and choices vary from people to people.

(2) Having a credit card means we can use money now, but pay back to the bank later.

(3) In addition, I think using a credit card to pay for goods is a fashionable style.

(4) We can buy clothes, pay for tuition, and go traveling with it.

C.   Paratactic Sentences

(1) Firstly, it's useful and convenient to buy things, it's necessary for you.

(2) Many students have credit card, some people think it is wrong.

(3) I have a credit card, it makes me happy.

(4) We go to work, credit will be more important at that time, we should cherish it.

(5) On the one hand, using credit cards brings us convenience, we needn't take much cash any longer.

(6) For example, we are in the college far away from home, our parents can give us money at home when we have credit cards.

As we all know, each English sentence is a cubic architecture with subject-predicate structure as the trunk and predicative verb as the kernel. There must be only one subject-predicate structure in a sentence. However, in these sentences, two or more subject-predicate structures appear and no connectors exist between these clauses to make up a compound or complex sentence (Yu, 2009). It's quite clear that the first sentence "Firstly, it's useful and convenient to buy things, it's necessary for you." is composed of two sentences. The cause-and-effect relationship of these two sentences has to be revealed by a connector here. Also, the other sentences need cohesive ties to show the logic relationship of the sentences. These sentences share the identical feature that they are made in natural and temporal sequence with no connectors to link them, which frequently happens in Chinese and reflects the influence of Chinese paratactic sentence patterns on English writing.

The above sentences can be changed into the following sentences:

(1) Firstly, it's useful and convenient to buy things, so it's necessary for you.

(2) Many students have credit card, but some people think it is wrong to have one.

(3) I have a credit card, which makes me happy.

(4) When we go to work, credit will be more important at that time, so we should cherish it now.

(5) On the one hand, using credit cards brings us convenience, because we don't have to take much cash any longer.

(6) For example, if we are in the college far away from home, our parents can give us money at home when we have credit cards.

III.   NEGATIVE TRANSFER OF CHINESE SENTENCE PATTERNS

After the deeply and detailed analysis, evidence shows that negative transfer of Chinese sentence patterns leads up to syntactic errors in students' writing. Next the negative transfer of Chinese sentence patterns on the English writing of the students will be further examined.

A.   Negative Transfer of Chinese Global Thought on English Writing

Chinese global thought can be embodied by topic-prominent sentences. The sentence "When we go shopping, often use the credit card to buy something can't afford." comes from the Chinese sentence "当我们逛街的时候，经常用信用卡买一些买不起的东西"。 "我们", which is used as the topic in the clause, can be omitted, because it has been mentioned in the subordinate clause, so that this sentence "经常用信用卡买一些买不起的东西" is logically correct in Chinese, with which the Chinese readers do not feel confused. So a subjectless sentence is frequently seen in Chinese where the subject is omitted (王力, 1984). It proves the case of Chinese global thought. Global thought means collecting various parts into a whole in thought or combining its different nature, respects, relations and so on. The global people, to whom the Chinese people belong, start with the whole picture, and they regard things as a whole and understand them by association. If the subject "we" has been mentioned in the previous part, even if it is omitted in this sentence, readers also know who often use the credit card to buy something they can't afford. The frequent appearance of subjectless sentences shows that students tend to write based on Chinese global thought. Influenced by this kind of thinking mode, when the student was composing, he probably could not notice that it was a incorrect sentence. However, the subject "we" in an English sentence must not be omitted, otherwise it will not be a complete sentence, for the Western grammatical rules demand every sentence need a subject. English-speaking people prefer analytic thought, which tends to depart a whole picture into several parts or separate its nature, respects, relations and so on. Analytic people start with the separate parts and then put them together to make a whole. A complete sentence is composed of a complete subject-predicate structure, complete with several parts governed by its grammatical rules. If the subject "we" is omitted, it is not a complete whole any more. If no linking verb connects a subject and an adjective, it is not a complete predicate structure any more. Thus English thinking patterns are quite different from Chinese global thinking patterns so that there are many errors appearing in the students' writing. With the global thought, those students composed these incorrect topic-comment sentences which cannot be accepted by English natives of analytic thinking patterns. Therefore the primary cause of topic-comment sentence rests with negative transfer of Chinese global thought.

B.   Negative Transfer of Chinese Imaginational Thought on English Writing

Chinese imaginational thought can be learned from multi-verb sentences, since verbs leave an impression of some concrete images. In this sentence "他必须吃, 必须喝, 必须穿", concrete impression of the daily activities are presented by the series of verbs "吃", "喝", "穿". The fact that Chinese get used to applying two or more verbs shows that they like to create concrete imagination. The Chinese multi-verb sentence emphasizes on creating images of concrete and vivid action by applying a series of verbs, which proves that Chinese-speaking people tend to explain abstract concepts by means of concrete imagination. Because of lack of abstraction in its pure sense, they pay close attention to the experience directly obtained through the senses based on perception, sensation, and idea. So Chinese description is likely to be more concrete, and thus abstract content is conveyed by concrete imagination. In contrast, English-speaking people prefer abstract thought, because prepositions and nouns reflect more abstract impression. The correct English sentence "Dressing, eating and drinking as well are equally important to him" indicates the importance of these daily necessities by means of abstract nouns such as "dressing", "eating"，and "drinking". A great many of abstract nouns and prepositions in the English multi-preposition & noun sentences proves that expressing concrete things by means of abstract concepts is the way the English-speaking people prefer to depict concrete things. They think highly of the ability to use the abstract thought. They carry out their cognitive activities such as judgment and interference by means of using abstract concepts. By analyzing perceptual knowledge of the matter, they perceive the rational knowledge and understand its nature by abstraction, which causes the fact that their linguistic expression is more abstract. From the English translation "Views and choices vary from people to people." of the Chinese sentence "不同的人有不同的看法和选择", we can have a sense of abstraction due to the preposition phrase "from people to people". Unfortunately, affected by Chinese imaginational thought, the student chose to express the concrete description through the sentence "Different people have different views, have different choices." To sum up, Chinese students are so deeply influenced by concrete thought that they unconsciously transfer multi-verb sentences into their writing. There is no doubt that negative transfer of Chinese multi-verb sentences results from the negative transfer of concrete thought.

C.   Negative Transfer of Chinese Dialectical Thought on English Writing

Chinese dialectical thought leads up to the negative transfer of paratactic sentence pattern. Take the wrong sentence for example, "On the one hand, using credit cards brings us convenience, we needn't take much cash any longer."

Which is translated from the Chinese sentence "另一方面，使用信用卡非常方便，我们不用再带现金了". The cohesive ties are often omitted by the Chinese-speaking people in the sentence like "另一方面，使用信用卡非常方便，我们不用再带现金了". Chinese readers won't misunderstand this sentence. We know clearly about the internal logic order of the clauses. In Chinese paratactic sentences, linguistic arrangement is looser and more implicit, and complex ideas are expressed in chronological and internal logic order. Linguistic parataxis leads students to pay more attention to its semantic meaning instead of its cohesive ties, so Chinese-speaking people prefer dialectical thought. Most errors in these sentences committed by the students are that they are finished with a comma instead of a stop. It indicates that the students make English sentences in a Chinese thought flow. They care more about the semantic meaning than about the subject-predicate structure in accordance with number, person, voice and tense. And the logic connection between sentences is covert more than overt. Therefore the students tend to write in temporal sequence, while English-speaking people prefer formal logic. If these sentences are translated into English, cohesive ties are necessary. As an inflectional language, English is full of various forms and complete syntax. It has strict formal logic, so all kinds of formal cohesive ties are given extra emphasis by English hypotactic sentences to achieve the complete linguistic forms which is strictly governed by its logic form. However, affected greatly by Chinese dialectical thought, Chinese students tend to write many English sentences which are actually comma splices and fragments. The highest frequency of paratactic sentences in those students' compositions proves the claim. We can draw the conclusion safely that negative transfer of paratactic sentences comes from the Chinese dialectical thought.

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Syllabic Structure of Sistani Dialect (Rule-based Approach)

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Abstract—Sistan is one of the eastern cities of Iran. It has local people with local dialect. The dialect has specific characteristics in phonology, phonetics, morphology and etc. The unique characteristic of Sistani dialect is its initially consonant cluster that makes this dialect different from the standard Persian, so vowels are placed in a different ordering. It is affected by two phonological processes and in a specific situation. Generative phonology will help us understand the underlying level of language in Sistani dialect and can discover the reason of the existent consonant clusters. This study is an attempt to discover the phonological processes which might occur in the beginning of words and make initially consonant clusters. The first one found is the centralization process, and the second one, the syncope process. These processes act as consecutives. Consequently, short vowels are converted to /ə/, then /ə/ is converted to /ø/ and two consonant remain in line with each other and make different syllabic structures. The results revealed that in addition to CV(C)(C), C(C)V(C)(C) syllabic structure also exists in Sistani dialect. It is worth mentioning that C(C)V(C)(C) syllabic structure is just found in surface structure of Sistani dialect. Its deep structure is different: CV(C)(C), as it is in Persian dialect.

Index Terms—centralization, Sistani dialect, syllabic structure, syncope, vowel reduction

I. INTRODUCTION

Sistani is spoken in the Sistan region of Afghanistan, in southern Turkmenistan, and in southeast of Iran. The Iranian Sistani dialect is spoken by 90% of a total of about 350,000 inhabitants in the Sistan region of province of Sistan and Baluchistan. It is also spoken in other parts of Iran such as Sarakhs in Khorasan, Zahedan, the Golestan province and Pakistani Baluchistan (Dusti, 2001).

The study is concerned with generative phonology that is a subfield of general theory of language known as generative grammar. Different studies were performed in this field. Generative grammar was proposed from mid of 1950's and was formed from two different currents. These two different currents include Chomsky's and Halle's (1968) ideas. Chomsky gradually consolidated the base of the generative grammar in 1957 and he published his book named as "Syntactic Structures". Chomsky depicted the relationship between phonology and syntax in different essays (Clark and Yallop, 1995, kenstowicz, 1994, Kord Zafaranlu kambuzia, 2006). Halle (1992) assumed that in generative grammar, the morphemes of a language are stored by the speaker in a special listlike device called a lexicon or dictionary, which contains all of truly unpredictable, idiosyncratic information about the behavior-syntactic, semantic, phonological of each morpheme known to the speaker. So, study of phonology is a branch of study of generative grammar. Here, it is necessary to define phonology in the method's point of view. Phonology is the study of the system underlying the selection and use of sounds in the languages of the world. Although a number of distinct approaches to the study of phonology have been developed during the present century, we will approach the study of sound systems from standpoint of one particular theory- generative phonology (kenstowics and kisseberth, 1979). Kenstowicz (1994) believes that generative phonology is based on a comprehensive theory that Chomsky and Halle (1968) in "Sound Pattern English" (SPE) have illustrated it. Its typical point is having mathematical aspect of its operations. Phonological theory is about description of phonology and its classification in order to be able to explain a symbolic system of phonetic structures with mechanical forms.SPE has been defined as a linear pattern. It means that some phonological segments place on a tier and affect on each other. Both standard phonology and structural phonology obtain a linear pattern of language phonological structure. Phonotactics, in structural phonology and rules, in standard phonology are used for describing phonological processes. Therefore, SPE studies sounds and their rules which are affected on adjacent sounds. The rules occur on deep structure of sound and convert it to surface structure (Goldsmith, 1990, Durand, 1990 and Ladefoged, 2006). There is a paradigm regarding generative phonology which was describing underlying representation (UR, deep structure) and phonetic representation (PR, surface structure) and considering the place of the transformational rules between these two representations (Rocca and Johnson 1999).

underlying representation(UR)

Rules ⟶

phonetic representation(PR)
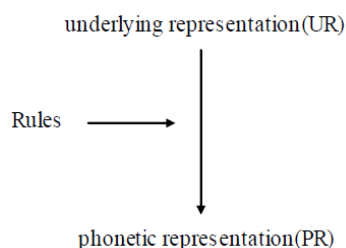
Following above description for discovering underlying representation of the surface structure, three stages which are Corpus internal evidences, five criteria of discovering underlying representation, and Corpus external evidences must be survey to find underlying representations. (kenstowicz and kisseberth, 1979).

All utterances (and the morphemes composing them) have an underlying representation and a phonetic representation. These representations are linked by one or more rules that express the predictable features of pronunciation found in the phonetics representation of each morpheme. Given this general conception of phonology, the analysis of any language involves determining the UR for morphemes of a language and a statement of the rules linking this representation with the PR(kenstowicz and kisseberth, 1979). After determining deep structure, generative phonology rewrites operated transformational rules and explains it linearly (Kord Zafaranlu Kambuzia, 2006 and Durand, 1990). After linear explaining of structures, the rules are written as:

A → B / X— Y

It means A convert to B if be in X—Y environment. All of rules can rewrite in this way (Clements and keyser, 1983).

Some phonological studies were done on the dialects of Persian. One of them is "Vowel Reduction in Kermani Dialect" by Parmoon(2006). Parmoon, In his article which has based on generative phonology approach, the process of vowel reduction has been analyzed and of course this process is different from that one occurring in the Sistani dialect, but shows frequency of vowel reduction process. In fact, Parmoon(2006) has studied centralization in Kermani dialect and determined deep structure of words with respect to the generative phonology approach. It is necessary to add that in Kermani dialect, omission of the middle vowel doesn't always occur after centralization, but centralization can be often noticed. Okati (2008), also in "A phonological description of the Sistani dialect" deals with this subject, though she presents Sistani dialect as having initially consonant cluster in surface structures and believes that the Sistani has CCV(C) (C) syllabic structure in its deep structure. Okati, Ahangar and Jahani(2009), in "The Status of [h] and [?] in Sistani Dialect of Miyankangi" show that neither [ʔ] nor [h] have phonemic status in Sistani dialect of Miyankangi at present. This study will illustrate the syllabic structure of Sistani dialect.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

A group of 48 uneducated male and female subjects participated, in this, 24 men and 24 women. They are selected randomly from rural areas of Zabol city. They are about 50 to 60 years old. Table 1 below clearly indicates the subjects participating in the study.

TABLE 1
SUBJECTS FEATURE PARTICIPANTS

Number of sentences	Subjects	Sex	Age	Literacy	Zone
300	24	Male	50-60	Uneducated	Rural
300	24	Female	50-60	Uneducated	Rural

B. Instrumentation

The focus of this study is mainly on two processes of vowel reduction (centralization and Syncope) which results in the creation of initially consonant cluster in Sistani dialect. The approach upon which this study is based is generative phonology. Recent studies of phonology on generative approaches have been practiced more than before and one can't find more literature related to this dialect, Sistani.

Collection of data was done by means of two instruments. First, bibliotic method in which all books related to the subject have been studied directly and essential information and notes have been taken. Some of these books are: *Generative phonology* (Kenstowicz and kisseberth, 1979), *phonology in generative grammar* (Kenstowicz, 1994), A *course in phonetics* (Lade forged, 2006), *A course in phonology* (Rocca & Johnson, 1999), and *The study of Language* (Yule, 1985), the Sound Pattern of English(Chomsky and Halle,1968), autosegmental and Metrical Phonology (Goldsmith,1990) and etc.

Second method is field study. In this method people were interviewed by a voice recorder. A questionnaire which developed by Parmoon (2012), was used which included 300 important sentences and base words of every dialect. Sentences were asked by an interviewer and every speaker repeated them 2 times and their voice was recorded. Both men and women were interviewed. After finishing the interview, sentences were transcribed using IPA. See appendix A.

C. Procedures

Initial consonant clusters are so prevailing in Sistani dialect that makes it significant. In this study, it was tried to discover the reasons of such clusters on the basis of generative phonology approach. To this end, the first procedure was to provide local speakers selected from rural areas and they are between 50 to 60 years old because rural and old speakers are affected by other languages less than urban speakers. Then, a questionnaire was given to these people to be completed. Every sentence should be repeated twice by every speaker and their sound was recorded and transcribed by IPA. IPA is an International Phonetic Alphabet. Then, it was tried to prove data on the basis of the Rule-based phonology and to study frequencies in the surface structure in order to determine their deep structure. Rules that were utilized in deep structures were discovered; and at last results were mentioned.

To show for which words or expression abbreviation are used, the following table is given.

TABLE 2
UTILIZED SIGNS AND SYMBOLS

1	Empty	ø	6	Phone sign(PR)	[ ]
2	Syllable border	$	7	Omissible	( )
3	Word border	#	8	Other phonological rules	…
4	Morpheme border	+	9	Consonant	C
5	Phoneme sign(UR)	/ /	10	Vowel	V

III. RESULTS

Based on the data analyses, the following results are found. According to the approach we utilized, one of two alternative forms in the surface structure must be deep structure. Generative phonology uses some methods to determine deep structure. As mentioned before, generative phonology introduces three stages which help to identify underlying level of language.

1. Corpus Internal Evidence

In linguistic corpus, two forms in parallel can be seen which phonetically aren't in correspondence. So, one can conclude that there are two forms in frequency. One of them is the underlying representation and another one is the surface structure (phonetic representation). In Sistani dialect, one of the forms is a group of /æ,e,o/ and the other one is /ə/. This alternation is demonstrated as:

$$
(PR)\begin{pmatrix} -cons \\ +vowel \\ -long \\ -back \\ -short \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} -cons \\ +vowel \\ -long \end{pmatrix}
$$
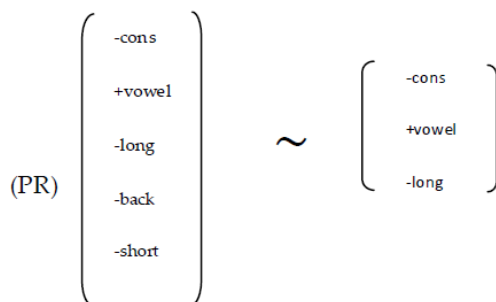
2. Five criteria for discovering underlying representation

In this research three criteria of discovering underlying representation were studied.

1) Frequency of occurrence

/æ,e,o/ vowels can be seen in different places in Sistani dialect and without regarding any special conditions, and they are placed in any part of a word. In comparison /ə / is restricted to some special conditions. So, frequency of occurrence of /æ,e,o/ is more than /ə /; subsequently, a form with more frequency of occurrence is the deep structure. For example in the word "psær", [æ] occur in the second syllable but ə just occur in the initial syllable.

2) Phonetic plausibility

From two alternative forms, one is the underlying representation which its changing rule to another is more logical. This justifies the fact that vowel reduction process is a logical and explainable process. So, vowels / æ,e,o / are rooted in the deep structure. For example   æ,e,o→ ə /# — is plausible.

3) Phonological naturalness

As it is indicated in the following diagram, one can conclude that vowel reduction is not only a precedent process in this dialect but also in other languages. So /æ,e,o/ are rooted in the deep structures. For example æ,e,o → ə /# — is more natural than ə →æ,e,o /# —.

Based on the above-mentioned findings, underlying representation can be illustrated as the following:

$$(UR): \begin{bmatrix} -cons \\ +vowel \\ -long \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(PR): \begin{bmatrix} -cons \\ +vowel \\ -long \\ -back \\ -short \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} -cons \\ +vowel \\ -long \end{bmatrix}$$
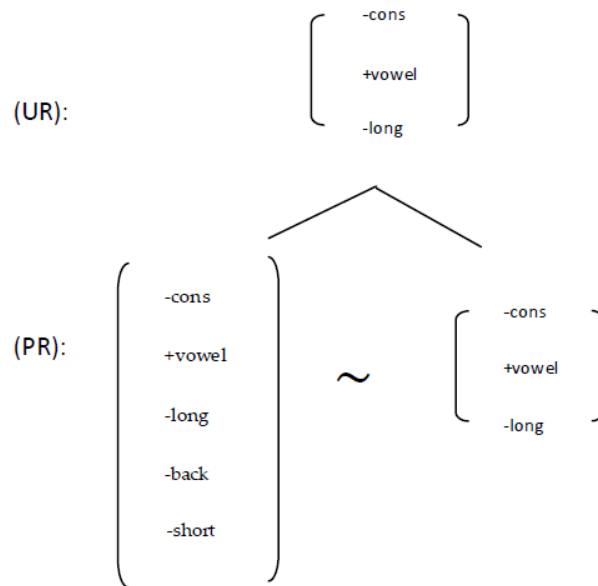
3. Corpus external evidences

An external evidence was related to the students learning a foreign language. In their English classes, students having Sistani dialect could pronounce initially consonant clusters easier than the students of other dialects that don't have initially consonant cluster in their dialects. For example, the word "school" was hard to pronounce for student speaking the standard Persian.Persian.They pronounced it as "eskul". But sistani dialect students can pronounce "skul" as native English speakers. Based on the above findings, it can be concluded that Sistani dialect has two alternative forms. One of them has /æ,e,o/ and the other one is /ə/. For example, /pəsær/ and /pesær/ are pronounced in Sistani dialect. So, both of them are Sistani alternations.

As it was shown above, the underlying representation is /æ,e,o/. Generative phonology, after finding the underlying representation, will represent the existent rules of the Sistani dialect processes. As following data, Two Sistani phonology rules are written and the relation between them will be shown.

1). Centralization process

According to the internal evidence, five criteria of discovering underlying representation and external evidence examined above, /æ,e,o/ are underlying representation(UR) and [ə] is phonetic representation(PR). Now, the rule of above mentioned alternations in the frame of generative phonology can be depicted as so:

Rule1:   [æ,e,o]   →   [ə]   /   # C —   {CV, CVC}

2). Syncope process (ə-deletion)

Sistani speakers simplify their speech similar to other dialects. So, they tend to delete /ə/ too. Therefore, Another rule which occurs after the centralization is syncope (ə-deletion), as we see:

Rule2:   [ə]   →   [ø]   /   # C —   {CV, CVC}

3). Linear derivation

Representation of the word [pʰsǽɾ̥]. It means "boy" in English and "pesær" in Persian:

UR:	/# pesær #/	ə
	# pesǽ ɾ̥ #	. . .
	# pəsǽ ɾ̥ #	Centralization
	# p(ə)sǽ ɾ̥ #	syncope
PR:	[# pʰsǽ ɾ̥ #]	ə

It is necessary to know that Rule1 and 2 will be performed in the specific phonetics conditions. The conditions are:

(1). Syllables must not have stress. It means that the vowels which were deleted must be unstressed.

(2). Vowels must be a short vowel. It means the centralized vowels must be short vowels /æ,e,o/.

(3). The rule of syncope must occur after ə. It means that first, short vowels must first centralize then centralized vowels must be deleted.

At the end, generative phonology shows a relation between two or more obtained rules. Talking about centralization and syncope (ə-deletion), it should be mentioned that centralization is performed first and then synope (ə-deletion) will be performed. The above mentioned rules have interaction with each other, and this is a feeding interaction. That is,

centralization prepares the situation for the central vowel deletion. Hence, centralization is a prerequisite for the central vowel deletion. So, the interaction can be shown as:

Rule1: Centralization ☐ Rule2: Syncope

TABLE 3
EVIDENCE OF SISTANI DIALECT

Row	Sistani	English		Row	Sistani	English
1	ˈpseː́	boy		10	n(ə)+pʰǽɾ+i	Don't jump
2	pʰjɑːdǽ	Ped		11	n(ə)+kʷʰóʃtʰ+æ	They haven't killed
3	tʰmǽ	greed		12	n(ə)+tʃʰǽʃʰ+id+ɒ	I haven't clipped
4	tʰɾ̥ǽkʰ	Chink		13	n(ə)+ʒǽpʰõn+i	Don't hit
5	kʰmǽɾ	Loin		14	b(ə̃)+nɑ́l	whimper
6	drʷós	Correct		15	b(ə)+tʃʰǐn̄+d̥	He clipped
7	drɑ́ʒ	long		16	b(ə)+χɑː́	Eat
8	ɣnǽkʰ	Cool		17	b(ə)+ʃʰǽ	It became
9	ʁdʰǽ̃m	Footstep		18	b(ə)+ɾæː́	He went

In table 3 above, words in sistani dialect with their corresponding counterparts in English are represented respectively. These words (verbs and nouns) are begun with consonant clusters in Sistani dialect that after performing two rules, they stayed in the initial part of the words. Consider to three vowels /æ,e,o/that can be centralized and deleted. An example was [psær], as above mentioned. In this word /æ/ has been converted to ø. The other word is [χnæk] with its underlying representation /χonæk/ that shows the vowel /o/ which was deleted and converted to ø in phonetic representation. The next word is [ʁdʰæm] with its underlying representation /ʁædʰæm/ that shows the vowel /æ/ in UR was deleted and converted to ø in PR. However, there are so many consonant clusters in this dialect that are beyond the scope of this paper for the sake of space. Some of them are ps, pj, tm, km, dr,χn, ʁd, np, nʒ, bχ, br and etc.

Kent (1953) was shown that some of the consonant clusters are not the result of centralization and syncope because they came from Old Persian in every Iranian dialects. Some of old consonant clusters in Sistani dialect are:

TABLE 4
EVIDENCE OF OLD PERSIAN

ROW	PERSIAN	SISTANI	CONSONANT CLUSTER
1	BARADAR	brɑːdǽɾ̥	br
2	BOSHKE	drǽ̃m	dr
3	FORUSH	fr̥ʷʊ́ʃ	fr
4	YONJE	spʰestʰ	sp
5	ISTADE	stʰɑːd+ǽ	st
6	SEFT	skʰǽt	sk
7	HARARAT	zrʷʊː́	zr
8	XORUS	χr̥ʷʊs	χr
9	SOHBAT KARDAN	χr̥ɑ́s	χr

According to table 4, all of initially consonant clusters aren't the result of vowel reduction process and omission. On the contrary, some of the Old Persian words are present in Sistani dialect and there is a unity between their deep structure and surface structure, it was mentioned above. Some in Old Persion are br, dr, fr, sp, st, sk, zr, χr and χr.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results clearly revealed the fact that the deep structure of [pʰsæɾ̥] is /pesær/ and its syllabic deep structure is CV$CVC. The transformational rules on the Sistani dialect, the centralization and later syncope, causes the omission of initial vowel of the words. The omitted vowel must be one of the short vowels /æ,e,o/. It must not have stress and and it must be centralized and deleted. So, in surface structure, the word is pronounced as [pʰsæɾ̥] that in phonetic representation has the syllabic structure of CCVC. As it was concluded previously, initially consonant clusters can't exist in deep structure level. Therefore, in Sistani dialect only phonetic level has initially consonant cluster. Examples below clearly show the point, The syllabic structure of [b(ə̃)+nɑ́l] in phonetic representation and underlying

representation is depicted. In PR, its syllabic structure is CCVC and in UR its syllabic structure is CV$CVC. Consider their corresponding:

UR: be $ nɑl   PR: b+n ɑ l
      | | | | | | → | | | |
UR: CV $ CVC   PR: C+CVC

We can find many initially consonant clusters in the Sistani dialect. Though there are many languages which have consonant cluster structure like English, but the clusters of those languages are not such diversified as the Sistani dialect. Of course the diversity in initially consonant clusters shows the non-existence of such clusters in deep structure of Sistani dialect. But English language has consonant cluster in both representations, underlying and phonetic, without any process. Such as st, sp, sk and etc

V. Conclusion

This study was written on the basis of generative phonology, a branch of Rule-base theory. The generative method helps to discover the deep level and mental specification of a language. It has been attempted to describe phonological system of Sistani dialect in it. Results of the study show that two rules occur as consecutives and change the syllabic structure of Sistani dialect. They are: centralization and syncope. According to generative phonology, it was found that two levels of alternations happen, one of them was short vowels /æ,e,o/ and the other one was /ə/. It was proved that the underlying representation or deep structure of the word has the short vowels and only phonetic representation or surface structure of word has initially consonant cluster. So, we can concluded that the Sistani dialect has CV(C)(C) syllabic structure in deep structure and when a word changes to surface structure, the vowel of initial syllable is omitted and the initially consonant cluster remains. Therefore, syllabic structure of the surface level is C(C)V(C)(C).

There are so many phonological processes in Sistani dialect that studying of them can discover new information about the Persian language and dialects. Via surveying other dialects and languages, the linguistics researchers can attain to universal result that it is the goal of the generative school.

The study revealed some results such as:

1- Two phonological processes in Systani dialect, centralization and syncope.

2- The arrangement of the two processes acting.

3- The affection of two processes on syllabic structure of Sistani dialect.

4- Finding initially consonant clusters of Sistani dialect.

5- Finding initially consonant cluster of Old Persian.

APPENDIX A. A SAMPLE OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Row	Persian sentences	Transcribed sentences
1	امشب مهتاب است.	ʔẽmʃoˊ mætʷʰoˊvæ
2	دیروز آفتاب نبود.	diɾʷʊˊz ʔæftʷʰoˊ næˊbʷu
3	به خانه نور خورشید نمی تابد.	væ ɦiˊ χʷõnæˊ nʷuˊɾə χʷoɾʃɾˊdⁿ n(ə)meˊtabæ
4	آن مرد شکار رفته است.	ʔʷʊˊ mæˊrd væɻ ʃ(ə)kɑˊrˋ ræftʰæˊ
5	اینجا حیوان وحشی زیاد دارد.	ʔindʒæˊ dætʷʰo dŏˊmə (ʔeˡvŭˊnə væʃ+i) zijɑˊdˋ dɑɾæˊ
6	گلنار در باغ رفت.	gʷolˋnɑˊr b(ə)ɾæˊ dær bɑˊʁ
7	چه گل هایی اینجا می رویید.	tʃʰəˊ gʷolæˊ ʔinˋdʒæˊ soˊz m(ŏ)næˊ
8	گنجشک زخمی شده است، نمی تواند پرواز کند.	tʃʷʰoʁʷoˊkʰ zæχmiˊ ʃ(ə)dæˊ ň(ə)meˊtnæ pʰærv ɑˊz kʷʰõnæˊ
9	یک گنجشک مرده اونجا افتاده است.	jækʰ tʃʷʰoʁʷoˊkʰ ə mæˊɻdə ʔʷõndʒɑ ʔæftʰidej æˊ
10	آن بوی بد می دهد.	ʔʷʊˊ bʷʊˊɦiə bæˊdⁿ mɪdæˊ
11	الان دیگه آفتاب بالا آماده است.	ʔɑlɑˊ d(ə)gæˊ ʔæftʰaˊb tⁿnʊˊkʰə ʃ(ə)dæˊ
12	هوا چطور است.	ʔævɑˊ ʃ(ə)tʷʰoˊræ
13	هوا خیلی بد بود، اون می خواست بیرون برود.	ʔɑvɑ χeˊlə bæd bʷʊ ʔʷʊˊ m(ə)χɑˊstʰ b(ə)rijæ bʷuɾʷ
14	امروز هوا گرم بود.	ʔẽmɾʷʊˊz̩ ʔævɑˊ gæɻm bʷu
15	بیرون نرو.	bʷuɾʷŭˊ mæˊɾʷo
16	از کجا می أیی.	ʔæz ʔægdʒæˊ m(ə)jaɦi
17	من امشب خواب نمی شود.	məˊ ɦẽmʃʷoˊ χ̩ʷoˊ n(ə)mɪˊʃa
18	آسمان صاف است.	ʔɑsmʷo sɑˊfæ
19	آسمان پر از ستاره است.	ʔɑsmʷoˊ pʰæˊræ+ æ ɦiæ̩z ɦestɑɾæˊ
20	وقتی آدم تشنه است، گلویش خشک می شود.	væʁtʰə ɦɑdæ̃ˊm tʷʰoʃniˊjæ glʷuˊjo χʷoʃk mɾˋʃ ʷo
21	اگر آب بود می خوردم.	ʔægæ ɦɑˊw mɪbʷʊˊ, m(ə)χɑrdʷo
22	نمی دانم امشب باران می بارد.	n(ə)mɪˊ fæ̃mʷʊ ɦẽmʃʷoˊ bɑɾeˊʃ nĩˊnæ
23	سنگ ها خیس است.	sẽŋˋgɑˊ χiˊsæ
24	کمرم درد می کند.	kʰmæˊr meˊ dæɻd mẽnæ
25	سر کوه برف باریده است.	sæˊr kʷʰoˊˋ bæɻf kʰæɻdæˊ
26	او یک شب و یک روز در راه بوده است.	ʔʷʊˊ jækʰ ʃʷoˊvʷo , jækʰ ɾʷʊˊz dæːrˋræ̍ˡ bʷud æˊ
27	ما یک روباه دیدیم.	mɑˊ jeˊg rʷobə b(ə)diˊde
28	او می گوید: سردش است.	ʔʷŏ meˊgæ χnækʰĩˊˋ m̃(ə)χɑræˊ
29	باد شروع به وزیدن کرده است.	bɑˊɖ pʷʰoˊ ʃ(ŏ̃)ɖæˊ

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Interpersonal Metaphor in Legal Discourse: Modality in Cross-examinations

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Abstract—Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) has been widely applied to different discourse analysis but the courtroom discourse analysis has seldom been touched upon. This article presents a modality analysis of the utterances between the lawyer and the witness within the interpersonal meta-function of Systemic Functional Linguistics framework. Applying the theory of interpersonal metaphors to the analysis of the discourse of cross-examination, the article evaluated the relationship between the different types, orientations and values of modality used in court and the chances of taking the powerful linguistic position and gaining the trust of the jury. The results of present study contribute to readers' understanding of the techniques for the lawyer and the witness to examine or reply successfully.

Index Terms—cross-examination, modality, orientation, types, values

I. INTRODUCTION

Law is an overwhelmingly linguistic institution. The world of law begins with speech and is made and announced with words. The legal actions and the legal provisions are related to the thoughts, public speeches and debates. With the rapid development of the law science, linguists attach more and more importance to the linguistic study in the legal field. Some of them fight for justice with speech and others made a great amount of researches of the specific cases. The researches involve many subjects, such as Phonetics, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Pragmatics, Rhetoric and Graphology.

The study of courtroom discourse, as an important branch of Forensic Linguistics, is still in its infancy either at home or abroad. Courtroom discourse includes opening statements, courtroom testimony, closing arguments, examination and so on. Among them, lawyer-witness examination, especially cross-examination, is the most important part of courtroom discourse analysis. From the different research methods, the courtroom discourse analysis in these decades can be divided into four types: Rhetoric, Sociolinguistics, Conversation Analysis and Pragmatics. This article explores power in the discourse of cross-examination, from the perspective of the modality system. Linguistic power can be defined as different social positions in certain context of situation, which is mainly realized by means of controlling or losing control of language. Mood and modality are the grammatical means to control or lose control of language. The article focuses on the modality system.

Functional linguistics views modality as a complex area of English grammar. It concerns with the different ways by which a speaker expresses his attitude toward or opinion about the truth of what he says. In Halliday's (1994) opinion, modality is the intermediate degrees between the positive and negative poles. In fact, linguistic realizations of modality may be adjectival, adverbial or modal verbs, the latter probably the most common. In addition, modality can also be realized by nouns or prepositional phrases through the process of nominalization or even by full clauses and so on. It is hoped that SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS is a comprehensive descriptive and interpretive framework for courtroom discourse analysis.

II. METHODOLOGY

Halliday (1994) argues that "modality refers to the area of meaning that lies between yes and no: the intermediate ground between positive and negative polarity"(p. 356).

Halliday referred modality as the intermediate degrees between the positive and negative poles. According to the distinction between propositions ("information", i.e. statements and questions) and proposals ("goods & services", i.e. offers and commands), modality is correspondingly categorized into modalization and modulation. When we discuss the modality of propositions (statements and questions), we are dealing with "modalization", speaker's assessments of probability and usuality. But when we discuss the modality of proposals (commands and otters), then we are dealing with "modulation", the speaker's assessments of obligation or inclination. The types of modality can be set out in the following figure:
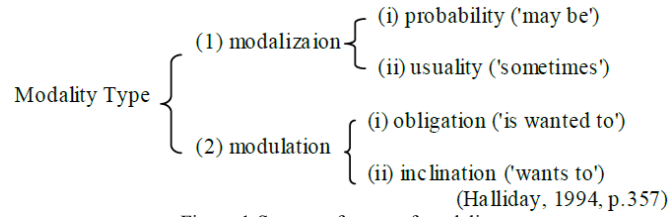
Figure 1 System of types of modality

To analyze the degree and scales of modality, Halliday (1994) established three basic values which are "attached to the modal judgment: high, median and low" (p. 358). The values of modality are summarized as the following:

TABLE I
THREE 'VALUES' OF MODALITY

	Probability	Usuality	Obligation	Inclination
High	certain	always	required	determined
Median	probable	usually	supposed	keen
Low	possible	sometimes	allowed	willing

(Halliday, 1994, p.358)

As for modal verbs, Halliday attaches values to them in the following way:
High: must ought to need has to is to
Median: will would shall should
Low: may might can could
(Halliday, 1994, p.362)

When the communicators want to modalize their messages, they have to make selections in the modality system. While the communicators are choosing some type of modality they want to use and some kind of value they want to set to their messages, they also have to take the orientation of modality into considerations. The orientation plays the role of determining how explicitly the communicators want to commit themselves to the propositions or proposals. Halliday classifies the orientation into four types:
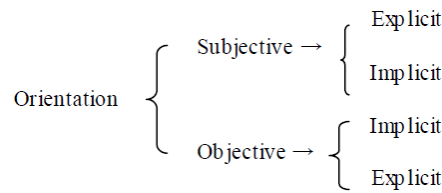
(Halliday, 1985, p.336)
Figure2 System of orientations in modality

In conclusion, according to the discussion above, the system of modality can be shown in the following figure:
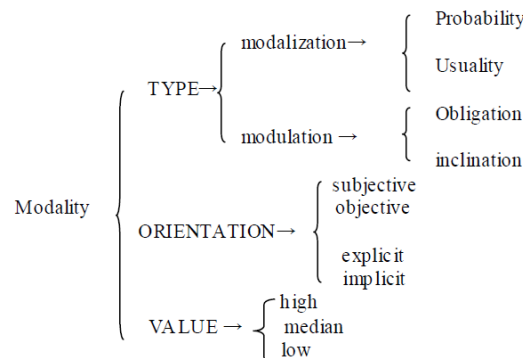
(Halliday, 1994, p.360)
Figure3 Modality system

To sum up, speakers can move between the positive and the negative pole in modality system. With the help of the modality system, the communicators are able to "modify" their messages. The speakers have to take type, value, and orientation into consideration, in order to make the communications more successful, when selecting the system of modality.

Functional grammar defines modality as "the speaker's judgment of the probabilities, or the obligations, involved in what he is saying" (Halliday, 1994, p.75) and regards it as the main semantic carrier of interpersonal meaning, without

limiting modality within single utterances. As a matter of fact, it broadens the concept of modality to the discourse level. It gives us a new perspective to analyze the courtroom discourse.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Court is a place for the two opposite sides to compete for power, without hiding their attitudes towards the fact. There are two purposes of cross-examinations. One is to elicit favorable testimony. This involves getting the witness to admit those facts that support your case in chief and are consistent with your theory of the case, themes, and labels. The other one is to conduct a destructive cross. This involves asking the kinds of questions that will discredit the witness or his testimony so that the jury will minimize or even disregard them. Since a destructive cross is one that attempts to discredit a witness or his testimony so that the jury will minimize or even disregard what the witness has stated, some special techniques are needed to achieve this goal. If we analyze the utterance in the cross-examinations, it is not difficult for us to find that the use of modality plays a very important role in the second purpose of cross-examinations. It can even decide the lawyer's and the witness' credibility for the judge and the panel. The more objective language you choose, the more persuasive you will be and the more linguistic power you will have. On the contrary, the more subjective you appear, the less persuasive you will be and the less linguistic power you will have.

The four samples used in this article are the pieces of the records of the cross-examination in court. They are chosen from Trial Techniques Thomas A. Maucet CITI Publishing House No.6 Edition. These four samples present four different types of cross-examinations in court, which are very good examples to present how the lawyers succeed in taking their tactics of examining to make the witness' testimony incredible for the jury.

A. Analysis of Samples One and Two

With the analysis of Sample One and Two, how the lawyer conducts his first tactic of discrediting the witness' perception successfully, making the witness' testimony not persuasive will be presented.

A common challenge to occurrence testimony focuses on the witness' ability and chance to observe the event involved. Showing that an event happened quickly and unexpectedly, that the witness was frightened or surprised, and that lighting was poor will make the jury realize that the circumstances under which the witness made the observation were not conducive to accuracy.

In the Sample One, the cross-examiner wants to establish that the witness did not actually see the pedestrian get hit by a car. Table1 and Table2 are about the modality analysis of utterance of the lawyer and the witness, showing how many metaphorical modalities or non-metaphorical modalities used by the lawyer and the witness.

TABLE 1
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCES OF THE LAWYER

No	Lawyer	Metaphorical modality	Non-metaphorical modality
1	In fact, you've driven through that intersection over the past five years, haven't you? (3)	In fact : objective : high value	
2	You usually go through the intersection on your way to and from work? (5)		usually: proposition usuality: median value
3	You never saw a pedestrian hit by a car there before, did you? (9)		never: proposition probability: high value
4	The traffic was pretty much the way it always is at that time of day, wasn't it? (13)		always: proposition usuality: high value

TABLE 2
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCES OF THE WITNESS

No.	Witness	Metaphorical modality	Non-metaphorical modality
1	Probably.(8)		probably: proposition probability :median value
2	Yes, I'd say so. (14)	I say so: subjective: low value	would: proposition probability: median value
3	I might have been. (18)		might: proposition probability : low value

Table 1 and Table 2 compared, it is not difficult for us to find that the modality employed by the lawyer and the witness is very different, see Table 3.

TABLE 3
STATISTIC RESULT OF MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCES BY THE LAWYER AND THE WITNESS

speaker \ modality	Metaphorical modality						Non-metaphorical modality		
	subjective			objective					
	low	med	high	low	med.	high	low	med.	high
lawyer	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	2
witness	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	-

1. Metaphorical modality system

According to Halliday (1994), "Choice is meaning". Generally, if the speaker chooses more subjective modalities, that means he/she has a very clear attitude, dares to take the responsibility, but seems not to respect the fact totally. If the speaker chooses to use more objective modalities, he/she tends to make the fact clearer, respect the fact objectively, but seems not so responsible for what he/she says. From Table1 and Table2, we can see that in the cross-examination, the lawyer and the witness use metaphorical modality once respectively. But the lawyer's modality is objective with high value, while the witness' modality is subjective with low value. Here, the lawyer speaks more subjectively than the witness does, that is, the witness has more personal engagement.

2. Non-metaphorical modality system

As for the non-metaphorical modalities, choosing different values will have different meanings. High value reflects the speaker's firm certainty towards the state of affairs and makes the speaker more powerful in the conversation, while low value shows the speaker's uncertainty towards the fact and also makes the speaker inferior. In table1 and table 2, we can see that the lawyer employed non-metaphorical modalities three times-two of them are high value, (by2/3) one is median, no low value is used. The witness employed non-metaphorical three times-two are median value, one is low (by 1/3), and no high value. From different values the lawyer and the witness used, we can conclude that the lawyer is certain of the state of affairs, but the witness has more reservations. Thus the powerful position of lawyer is obviously reflected.

To sum up, by such a series of progressive questions, we have demonstrated that the witness was not expecting a crash and really did not notice anything until after hearing the sound of the crash. Therefore the lawyer can have his last question "so you didn't really see the pedestrian before the crash, did you?" The witness will invariably say "yes", or something even more damaging, which is needed in the lawyer's closing argument.

In Sample Two, a witness has testified to be driving down a street and observing a collision between two other cars. The cross-examination will show that the collision occurred quickly and unexpectedly, and that the witness was too far away to accurately observe what really happened.

The analysis of the utterance of the lawyer and the witness will be presented in Table 4 and Table 5 as follows:

TABLE 4
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCES OF THE LAWYER

No.	Lawyer	Metaphorical modality	Non-metaphorical modality
1	So you were driving the way you usually would just before the accident, weren't you?(11)		usually: proposition usuality: median value would: proposition probability: median value
2	As you were driving toward the corner, you couldn't see traffic on Maple other than at The intersection, could you?(27)		could: proposition: probability: low value
3	So you couldn't see the two cars involved in the accident until they were actually in the intersection, could you?(31)		could: proposition: probability: low value
4	There were probably cars Going in both directions on Elm Street, weren't there? (39)		probably: proposition probability: median value

TABLE 5
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCES OF THE WITNESS

No.	witness	Metaphorical modality	Non-metaphorical modality
1	I think so.(18)	I think: subjective: low value:	
2	I guess so.(22)	I guess: subjective: low value	
3	Probably. (40)		probably: proposition probability: median value
4	That's possible.(42)	That's possible: objective: low value	
5	That's possible, but I'm not sure.(44)	That's possible: objective: low value I'm not sure: subjective: low value	

For clearer analysis, we present the statistic result of modality used by the lawyer and the witness in Table 6.

TABLE 6
STATISTIC RESULT OF MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCES BY THE LAWYER AND THE WITNESS

speaker \ modality	Metaphorical modality						Non-metaphorical modality		
	subjective			objective					
	low	med.	high	low	med.	high	low	med.	high
lawyer	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	3	-
witness	3	-	-	2	-	-	-	1	-

3. Metaphorical modality system

From table 6, we can see that the lawyer does not choose metaphorical modalities while the witness uses metaphorical modalities with low value fives time, no median value and high value. That is to say, the witness is not so certain of the state of affairs. Besides, among the fives metaphorical modalities he used, three are subjective (60%) and only two are objective (40%). The subjective modalities go beyond the objective modalities by 20%. Here, we can conclude that the witness had too much personal comment on the fact, and made himself less powerful in the position, thus less persuasive.

4. Non-metaphorical modality system

According to table 6, the lawyer employs the non-metaphorical modalities for five times, three are median, two are low, and no high value modalities are used. However, the witness uses only one non-metaphorical modality with median value. From the percentage, we can find that low value modalities in the lawyer's utterances are more than those in the witness' by 40%, which also reflects his uncertainty. This does not mean that he is unable to keep a firm grasp on the situation of the cross-examination. It is due to his position in the cross-examination as an examination and the way he has to put forward his question. To his questions "As you were driving toward the corner, you couldn't see traffic on Maple other than at the intersection, could you?(27)" and "So you couldn't see the two cars involved in the accident until they were actually in the intersection, could you?" (31), the witness answers: "No." And the witness' answer was very positive to the lawyer's final purpose, which is to prove that the collision occurred quickly and unexpectedly, and that the witness was too far away to accurately observe what really happened. Medina value modalities used by the witness are more than those by the lawyer by 40%. But this does not mean that he has the grasp of the situation. It is only because he, as the examined, has to do to answer the question from the lawyer: "There were probably cars going in both directions on Elm Street, weren't there?" (39) With "probably", which also contribute to the lawyer's purpose? Now we can see that the lawyer still appeared more powerful in this conversation.

5. Inner-sentence modality accumulation

When there are two or more modalities occurring within one sentence or a clause complex, we call this phenomenon inner-sentence modality accumulation. There are two kinds of common modality accumulations. They are subjective metaphorical modality plus non-metaphorical modality and objective metaphorical modality plus non-metaphorical modality. From table4, we can see that the lawyer used one inner-sentence modality accumulation. "So you were driving the way you usually would just before the accident, weren't you?" (11) There appears two modalities, both of median value. From table5, we can see that the witness also uses one inner-sentence modality accumulation. "That's possible, but I'm not sure." (44) There are two modalities, both of low value. Both the lawyer and the witness have the uncertainty. The difference lies in that the lawyer's uncertainty is to tempt the witness to tell the truth, while the witness is not sure of the fact.

Through this cross-examination, we are convinced that the witness was such a good distance from the accident so that she could not see the cars involved until they were in the intersection, and probably had traffic blocking her view at the critical moments. That will lead the jury to believe that her observations are not as reliable as they first appeared to be.

B.   Analysis of Sample Three

For the second tactic of discrediting the witness' memory, the lawyer does a very good job of putting questions for the witness to answer, and finally proves that the witness does not have a clear memory with a good command of modality.

The witness' ability to recall details of an event, and his efforts to record or preserve these details, are usually important considerations. Even where the witness had a very good opportunity to observe an event accurately, the time between an even and the witness' testimony in court may be substantial. When this happens, cross-examinations often point out that the witness has forgotten details without any efforts to record them, or even confuses this event with other similar ones. Using modalities in a proper way can help the lawyer a lot, on the way to achieving this goal.

In the Sample Three, Plaintiff's secretary has testified that she mailed to the defendant a letter that accepted a previous offer the defendant made to the plaintiff. The defendant has denied receiving Plaintiff's letter. The cross-examination will demonstrate that because the secretary types and processes so many letters, she can't possibly remember how this particular letter was handled.

Table 7 and Table 8 show the modality analysis of utterance of the lawyer and the witness.

TABLE 7
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCE OF THE LAWYER

No.	Lawyer	Metaphorical modality	Non-metaphorical modality
1	So you would type approximately 25 letters a week, right?(7)		would: proposition: probability: median value
2	That would make about 100 each month?(9)		would: proposition: probability: median value
3	This means that you've probably typed over 5,000 letters for Mr. Doe since you started working For him, correct?(13)		probably: proposition: probability: median value
4	Ms. Jones, now and then Mr. Doe will make changes on a letter you've given him to sign, won't he?(15)		will: proposition: probability: median value
5	In those instances you'll type a new draft of the letter?(17)		will: proposition: probability: median value
6	Now and then Mr. Doe will decide not to send a letter you've typed at all, won't he?(21)		will: proposition: probability: median value
7	Every now and then Mr. Doe will keep a letter on his desk that you've typed, won't he?(25)		will: proposition: probability: median value
8	Every now and then you've probably had to remind him to send a letter out, haven't you?(27)		probably: proposition: probability: median value
9	Ms. Jones, as you sit here now, you can't remember which letters over the past five years you've retyped, can you?(29)		can:proposition: probability: low value

TABLE 8
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCES OF THE WITNESS

No.	witness	Metaphorical modality	Non-metaphorical modality
1	It varies, of course, but it's probably around 5 a day.(6)		probably: proposition: probability: median value
2	I guess so.(12)	I guess so: subjective: low value	
3	Probably.(14)		probably: proposition: probability: median value
4	Oh, perhaps once or twice a week.(20)		perhaps: proposition: probability: low value
5	Oh, maybe a couple of times a month.(24)		maybe: proposition: probability: low value

To make it clearer, we made Table 9 to demonstrate the statistic result of modality analysis of utterances by the lawyer and the witness.

TABLE 9
STATISTIC RESULT OF MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCES BY THE LAWYER AND THE WITNESS

modality / speaker	Metaphorical modality						Non-metaphorical modality		
	subjective			objective			low	med.	high
	low	med	high	low	med.	high			
lawyer	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	7	-
witness	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-

1. Metaphorical modality system

From table 9, we can see that the lawyer did not choose metaphorical modalities while the witness uses metaphorical modalities of low value for only one time, no median value and high value. That is to say, the witness is not so certain of the state of affairs. Besides, the metaphorical modality the witness used is subjective with low value: "I guess so" (12), which makes him appear less certain and less persuasive.

2. Non-metaphorical modality system

According to table 9, the lawyer employed the non-metaphorical modalities eight times-seven are with median value, one is low, and no high value modalities are used. However, the witness uses four non-metaphorical modalities-two are median value another two are low value. From the percentage, we can find that low value modalities in the witness' utterances are more than those in the lawyer's by 38%, which also reflects his uncertainty. In this cross-examination, neither the lawyer nor the witness employed high value modalities, which demonstrates that both the lawyer and the witness have their uncertainty.

As for the lawyer, he employs seven modalities with median value seven times. In the first three times-sentence (7), (9) and (13) ,the lawyer focuses on the numbers of the letters typed by the witness in a week, each month and since she started working for her boss. Undoubtedly, they are large numbers. The lawyer employs such median value modalities in order to make the witness admit that she had too many letters to type.

In the other four times of modalities employed by the lawyer, sentence (15), (17),(21), (25) and (27), the lawyer points out that the letters having been prepared does mean that they will be sent: some will be changed, some retyped, some not sent, some kept on the boss' desk and so on. With the modalities with median value, the lawyer succeeded in making the witness agree that she was in such a confusing condition, that it is difficult for her to have a clear memory of the letters she typed. Consequently, in the sentence (29) with low value modalities, the lawyer leaded the witness to

answer his question "you can't remember which letters over the past five years you've retyped, can you?" (29) With "No."

As for the witness, she employed two median value modalities and two low value modalities which reflect that she is not certain about the fact and doesn't have a very clear memory. Because the purpose of this cross-examination is to suspect the witness' ability to remember details, the witness will be inferior in this conversation.

Finally, the lawyer drew a conclusion "It's simply a case of too many years and too many letters, isn't it?" (35). the witness answered "Yes" without any other choices.

C. Analysis of Sample Four

In sample Four, the lawyer is taking the tactic of discrediting the witness' ability to communicate to prove that the witness cannot re-create a picture of what happened to the jury accurately. Modality also plays a vital role.

Another method of discrediting testimony is to test the witness' ability to communicate. It will do much good to the opposite side, if a witness has observed an event, remember what happened, yet is unable to describe the event logically and accurately to the jury. A common cross-examination technique is to examine the witness' ability to describe directions and details and to estimate distance and time, to demonstrate that the witness cannot re-create a picture of what happened to the jury accurately.

In sample Four, a witness has testified to the details of a collision and the time and distances involved. The cross-examination will show that the descriptions, time, and distances are not accurate or reliable. In Table 10 and Table 11, we can have a clear idea of different modality employed by the lawyer and the witness in this cross-examination.

TABLE 10
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCE OF THE LAWYER

No	Lawyer	Metaphorical modality	Non-metaphorical modality
1	From your porch you could see both cars involves in the accident, right? (2)		could: proposition: probability: median value
2	Mr. Jones, could you estimate the distance form the witness stand to the doors at the back of the courtroom?(18)		could: proposal: obligation: low value
3	Your Honor, may the record reflect the distance is actually 38 feet? (20)		may: proposition: probability: low value

TABLE 11
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCE OF THE WITNESS

No.	witness	Metaphorical modality	Non-metaphorical modality
1	Well, it's a long driveway, so it's Maybe 100 feet.(9)		maybe: proposition: probability: low value
2	Maybe four seconds or so.(11)		maybe: proposition: probability: low value
3	Oh, maybe 500 feet away.(15)		maybe: proposition: probability: low value
4	Maybe 20 seconds or so. (17)		maybe: proposition: probability: low value

Table 12 present us the statistic result of modality analysis of utterances by the lawyer and the witness.

TABLE 12
STATISTIC RESULT OF MODALITY ANALYSIS OF UTTERANCES BY THE LAWYER AND THE WITNESS

modality \ speaker	Metaphorical modality						Non-metaphorical modality		
	subjective			objective					
	low	Med.	high	low	Med.	high	low	Med.	high
lawyer	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	-
witness	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-

1. Non-metaphorical system

According to table 12, it is not difficult for us to see that neither the lawyer nor the witness employed metaphoric modality system. However, from the non-metaphorical modalities they chose, we can also infer the different linguistic position of them. The lawyer used non-metaphorical modalities three times-two are of low value, one median value. But it does mean that the lawyer lost the grasp in the cross-examination. If we examine the modalities employed by the lawyer in detail, we can find the lawyer use proposal twice in sentences (18) and (20), but witness does not use it even once. Proposal means that the speaker requests orders the hearer to do something, so the speaker is more powerful than the hearer. On the other hand, the modalities employed by the witness are all of low value, which reflects that the witness is totally not certain of his own abilities of measuring the distance and the time: sentence (9), (11), (15), and (17). What's more, the witness actually failed in estimating distance by saying: "that's about 25 feet." In fact, it is 38 feet.

As a matter of fact, every lawyer handling automobile cases learns that 15mph=22ft./sec. The witness said the defendant's car traveled 100 feet in 4 seconds, or over 15mph. As plaintiff, the lawyer can argue that this was an excessive rate of speed for a driveway. The witness also stated that the plaintiff's car traveled 500 feet in 20 seconds, or less than 20mph. The lawyer can also easily argue that this was a safe speed to be traveling on a residential street. This type of cross-examination, pinning the witness down to specific estimates of distances, time, and speed, is a common technique in accident cases. After that, the lawyer can demonstrate that this witness is an unreliable source of information, because he is not capable of accurately.

From the above analysis, we can see that the lawyers discredit or limit the witness' testimony successfully by discrediting the witness' perception, memory and ability to communicate. To fulfill their purposes, the lawyers need to have a good command of their specialty and language skills. As for the language skills, the ability to rein the use of modality helps them a lot.

It is not difficult for us to know that among the samples, the lawyers tend to employ more high value and objective modalities than the witnesses do. It demonstrates that the lawyers speak more objectively and with more certainty. On the contrary, the witnesses are more likely to engage personally and more subjectively, thus their testimony does not have much reliability for the jury. In the courtroom, being objective and more certain means to prevail and have more persuasion. Those who can rein the use of modality are more powerful and persuasive than those who cannot. So from the perspective of modality, the lawyers in the samples are much more powerful than the witnesses.

IV. CONCLUSION

This article expands the application of Systemic Functional Linguistics to the conversation analysis in the legal field, and the basic principles and methodologies of Systemic Functional Linguistic open a new horizon for courtroom discourse analysis. From the modality perspective, different types, orientations and values of modality will have influence on the speaker's linguistic position and reliability for the jury.

According to the analysis of the four samples, we can find that there is great difference between the lawyer's modality and the witness'. For succeeding in taking the three tactics of examining, the lawyers are very careful in choosing their words and questions. By comparison, the lawyers tend to employ more high and median modalities such as *never, would, will, usually and so on*, but no subjective modalities come into their utterances. That means the lawyers speak objectively and with great certain and less personal engagement. However, the witnesses are more likely to use more low value modalities, such as *maybe, perhaps, could and so on* and they are quite liberal with the employment of subjective metaphorical modalities with low such as *"I think", "I guess", "I am not sure"* and so on. Besides, the witnesses employ the objective metaphorical modalities with low value like *"that's possible"*. This shows that the witnesses like to speak subjectively, with less certainty and more personal engagement. In the courtroom, being objective and certain means being more powerful in the linguistic position and more persuasive for the jury. Otherwise, you will seem less convincing.

The result of the analysis gives suggestions for the lawyers and the witnesses to examine or reply in a successful way. Additionally, the debaters and the lecturers should be careful in choosing modality if they want to be more persuasive for the audience. As for the ordinary people in communications, the choice of different modality will give others different impression, which influences the chance of a successful communication.

APPENDIX

Sample One:
Q: You're familiar with the intersection of North and Clark? (1)
A: Yes. (2)
Q: In fact, you've driven through that intersection over the past five years, haven't you? (3)
A: Yes. (4)
Q: You usually go through the intersection on you way to and from work? (5)
A: Yes. (6)
Q: You were about one-half block from the corner when it happened, isn't that so? (7)
A: Yes. (8)
Q: It's fair to say that you weren't expecting an accident that day, isn't it? (9)
A: Yes. (10)
Q: So you were driving the way you usually would just before the accident, weren't you? (11)
A: Yes. (12)
Q: You had a passenger in the car? (13)
A: Yes. (14)
Q: You were talking with him while driving? (15)
A: Yes. (16)
Q: Ms. Jones, each block in this city is one-eighth of a mile long, isn't it? (17)
A: I think so. (18)

Q: So each block is about 600 feet long, isn't it? (19)
A: That sounds about right. (20)
Q: This means that you were about 300 feet from the corner when the accident happened, weren't you? (21)
A: I guess so. (22)
Q: Three hundred feet is the length of a football field, isn't it? (23)
A: Yes. (24)
Q: Both Maple and Elm have building on both sides of the street, don't they? (25)
A: Yes. (26)
Q: As you were driving toward the corner, you couldn't see traffic on Maple other than at the intersection, could you? (27)
A: No. (28)
Q: That's because the building was blocking your view? (29)
A: Yes. (30)
Q: So you couldn't see the two cars involved in the accident until they were actually in the intersection, could you? (31)
A: No. (32)
Q: Ms. Jones, there was other traffic on Elm Street as well as Maple that morning, wasn't there. (33)
A: Yes. (34)
Q: You were watching that other traffic as you were driving? (35)
A: Yes. (36)
Q: Elm Street has a good amount of traffic during the rush hour, doesn't it? (37)
A: Yes. (38)
Q: There were probably cars going in both directions on Elm Street, weren't there? (39)
A: Probably. (40)
Q: Some of those cars were in your lane, while others were in the opposite lane, weren't they? (41)
A: That's possible. (42)
Q: And some of the cars were in front of you, while others were behind you, weren't they? (43)
A: That's possible, but I'm not sure. (44)
Sample Two:
Q: Ms. Jones, Maple Avenue is a north-South Street and Elm Street runs east-west, correct? (1)
A: Yes. (2)
Q: The accident you say you observed was at that intersection? (3)
A: Yes. (4)
Q: When the accident happened, you were driving toward the intersection on Elm Street, correct? (5)
A: Yes. (6)
Q: You were about one-half block from the corner when it happened, isn't that so? (7)
A: Yes. (8)
Q: It's fair to say that you weren't expecting an accident that day, isn't it? (9)
A: Yes. (10)
Q: So you were driving the way you usually would just before the accident, weren't you? (11)
A: Yes. (12)
Q: You had a passenger in the car? (13)
A: Yes. (14)
Q: You were talking with him while driving? (15)
A: Yes. (16)
Q: Ms. Jones, each block in this city is one-eighth of a mile long, isn't it? (17)
A: I think so. (18)
Q: So each block is about 600 feet long, isn't it? (19)
A: That sounds about right. (20)
Q: This means that you were about 300 feet from the corner when the accident happened, weren't you? (21)
A: I guess so. (22)
Q: Three hundred feet is the length of a football field, isn't it? (23)
A: Yes. (24)
Q: Both Maple and Elm have building on both sides of the street, don't they? (25)
A: Yes. (26)
Q: As you were driving toward the corner, you couldn't see traffic on Maple other than at the intersection, could you? (27)
A: No. (28)
Q: That's because the building was blocking your view? (29)
A: Yes. (30)

Q: So you couldn't see the two cars involved in the accident until they were actually in the intersection, could you? (31)
A: No. (32)
Q: Ms. Jones, there was other traffic on Elm Street as well as Maple that morning, wasn't there. (33)
A: Yes. (34)
Q: You were watching that other traffic as you were driving? (35)
A: Yes. (36)
Q: Elm Street has a good amount of traffic during the rush hour, doesn't it? (37)
A: Yes. (38)
Q: There were probably cars going in both directions on Elm Street, weren't there? (39)
A: Probably. (40)
Q: Some of those cars were in your lane, while others were in the opposite lane, weren't they? (41)
A: That's possible. (42)
Q: And some of the cars were in front of you, while others were behind you, weren't they? (43)
A: That's possible, but I'm not sure. (44)

Sample Three:
Q: Ms. Jones, you've been Mr. Doe's secretary for some five years now? (1)
A: Yes. (2)
Q: The events to which you just testified took place almost three years ago? (3)
A: Yes. (4)
Q: How many letters, on the average, do you type during a working day? (5)
A: It varies, of course, but it's probably around 5 a day. (6)
Q: So you would type approximately 25 letters a week, right? (7)
A: Approximately. (8)
Q: That would make about 100 each month? (9)
A: Approximately. (10)
Q: An over1, 000 each year? (11)
A: I guess so. (12)
Q: This means that you've probably typed over 5,000 letters for Mr. Doe since you started working for him, correct? (13)
A: Probably. (14)
Q: Ms. Jones, now and then Mr. Doe will make changes on a letter you've given him to sign, won't he? (15)
A: Yes. (16)
Q: In those instances you'll type a new draft of the letter? (17)
A: Yes. (18)
Q: How often does that happen? (19)
A: Oh, perhaps once or twice a week. (20)
Q: Now and then Mr. Doe will decide not to send a letter you've typed at all, won't he? (21)
A: Yes. (22)
Q: How often does that happen? (23)
A: Oh, maybe a couple of times a month. (24)
Q: Every now and then Mr. Doe will keep a letter on his desk that you've typed, won't he? (25)
A: Yes. (26)
Q: Every now and then you've probably had to remind him to send a letter out, haven't you? (27)
A: Yes. (28)
Q: Ms. Jones, as you sit here now, you can't remember which letters over the past five years you've retyped, can you? (29)
A: No. (30)
Q: Or which letters Mr. Doe decided not to mail? (31)
A: No. (32)
Q: Or which letters you had to remind him to put in the mail? (33)
A: No. (34)
Q: It's simply a case of too many years and too many letters, isn't it? (35)
A: Yes. (36)

Sample Four:
Q: Mr. Jones, you were sitting on the porch of your house when the accident happened? (1)
A: Yes. (1)
Q: From your porch you could see both cars involves in the accident, right? (2)
A: Yes. (3)
Q: The impact between the two cars happened right in front of your house? (4)

A: Yes. (5)
Q: The defendant was pulling out of his driveway across the street from you, right? (6)
A: Yes. (7)
Q: How long is that driveway? (8)
A: Well, it's a long driveway, so it's maybe 100 feet. (9)
Q: How long did you estimate it took for the car to go the length of the driveway? (10)
A: Maybe four seconds or so. (11)
Q;   The Plaintiff's car on the street going toward you was moving at about 40 mph, is that your estimation?(12)
A: Yes. (13)
Q: How far away from you was the plaintiff's car when you first saw it? (14)
A: Oh, maybe 500 feet away. (15)
Q: And how long did it take the Plaintiff's car to travel 500 feet? (16)
A: Maybe 20 seconds or so. (17)
Q: Mr. Jones, could you estimate the distance form the witness stand to the doors at the back of the courtroom?
(18)
A: well, that's about 25 feet. (19)
Q: Your Honor, may the record reflect the distance is actually 38 feet? (20)
Court: It may ---- we've measured that before. (21)

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Reader's Empire: The Reader Is the Main Focus in Receptor Theory (Receiving Beauty) and Communication Code with Literature Text

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Abstract—The Receptor theory receiving beauty is considered today one if the most important theories in term of literature quality, so. The reader is the one who determines the dimension of that quality through the influence of literature image on him in fact the literature work is effect and influence, and communication, so, if it's influence is large on its receiver, and it's receiver communicated with it, so it achieved it's literatarity, and gave the text a high value, and gave them the opportunities of survive through ages, so, the survival of literature works is a survival of its receiver self. The results of this study indicated that the effectiveness of reading, receiving and communicating is very important, because it has an authority on the text and give the reader the larger role in the process of receiving, reading, or communication with the text, if there is no food reader to per produce the literature work. From here, I tried to focus on this reader through his simple and complex types and the effect of that on the text and its producer. So, it was clear that this reader has a role before and after producing the literature work.

Index Terms—reader, receiving and reading theory, communication with text, modern Arabic critique

I. INTRODUCTION

The Receptor theory (Astatiqa= receiving beauty) is considered today one if the most important theories in term of literature quality, so. The reader is the one who determines the dimension of that quality through the influence of literature image on him in fact the literature work is effect and influence, and communication, so, if it's influence is large on its receiver, and it's receiver communicated with it, so it achieved it's literatarity, and gave the text a high value, and gave them the opportunities of survive through ages, so, the survival of literature works is a survival of its receiver self.

This theory, and what is it combined with looking after reader or receiver and text, came in civilization context which is the reasoning climate in western, so it was an increased feeling with separating between literature and its audience, and poetry- in particular-so, there was agape which separates the reader from the text, and doesn't care with the communication code between it and the text creator, and a lonely climate is formed between the three creative work basis which are: the creator, the text, and the reader. That led some critiques and researcher to study his phenomenon, because the recognized that the beauty subject can't be achieved and integrated without receiving and communication, so receiving puts it in self and transforms it into effected internal image, also, because the perfect performance doesn't measured or determined based on performance alone, but it requires referring to those who recognize the conducted article produce that means, if the work is wonted to be in meaningful article, it must be with beauties (alwad,1994).

The theory of receiving (reading) was developed in the framework of analytical philosophy which looks to the reading process from the corner of reader's sense of it (Khawaja, 1994), which considered it as the base of achieving the literature text, because literature work is not fund until it achieved by the reader, in that, reading g will be the new form of the text.

After this brief introduction to the receptor theory we have to mention that contestants Germany University has an important role in revealing this theory by (H.R .yaws) and (F. Izar) and their modern hypothesis, dissertations.

II. THE PROCESS OF COMMUNICATING READING AND THE READER

It may be said that the base of receptor theory Is revealing the role of reader and his effectiveness in interpreting literature works and contributing in reevaluating them and giving them a meaning according, to asset of factors related to the nature and his time and culture, so, the placement of reader- receiver- gains an increased importance and still one of the primary issues in this theory. That means that the studied focused on revealing the relations of effect and in flounce in the works under comparative study started to francs form Germany theorists and their fellows of this theory in to the last party of the equality which includes (the author, the reader). After the attention transformed from author in to text, the reader became having an authority in directing the text and determining its value. While each text is directed to the reader, so apart of critique will include recovering its implicit or practical reader (Ibrahim, 1990). However, the science of interpretation developed by some Gorman theorists of receptor theory tends to focus on past work and cues

through reviewing and reading them that the major role for critique is understanding these works by under- standing the direct or indirect effect (Ayyad, 2002).

We notice that the reader (receiver) is the major focus in receiving process, these, this study will start from this focus to show the process of communicating reading and the reader (receiver), and his types, reading types, and How reading process conducted, and levels, and the problem of communicating reading g effectiveness and reader receiving g, then the research conclusion.

A. The Reading Process and Reader

Reading is considered a process of access the context and communication with it, which an attempt to categorize the text in a context which includes it with similar ones, and this text is not found except in its context (and the text doesn't hold its meaning and value as a stable, but it's an existence the reader gives to the text, and according to what is this gift the existence is being (Howaidi, 1999). The reader starts (to raise questions for which he looks for answer in the text, these questions may be implicit or explicit, but it's important to determine the mechanisms of reading according to the nature of the reader who raises questions, so, each reader looks at the text from his own corner which imposed the nature of the raised questions, because each text has two sides, an objective side refers to language, which makes understanding process possible. And self side refers to author reasoning, and it's cleared in its special use to language (Kudhair, 1999). Both sides refer to the author experience which the reader tend to rebuild it, and the reader has the right from any side he wants according to the nature of his raised questions.

This process is not pure beauty enjoyment focuses on the form, but it's an existence participation process based an argument between the receiver and the work, and it is based, in addition to the reader questions, on the base of the question raised from the work itself, so both experiences mixed in new product based on knowledge an d enjoyment of work to the reader, so, reading g is considered writing in another way for bath work in one work which is the enjoyment (Al- Ghuthami,1995).

The literature work take in its way to the receiver (two ways aiming two different styles from literature receivers and who deal with it, the first way tends to the audience which doesn't refer to general case of receiving, and to general space of psychological, that, and knowledge, depends in receiving literature on shared motives don't give space to personal gaps it receives the literature effect in group, and sharing in advertising the poem festival (Al- Maqaleh, 1981).

The second way represented by readers who were not shared, they were isolated sample, or embodying the receiving individuality and personality, and when they touch the poem (each of them depends on his body and soul isolation to direct it towards him)" in his own method, from here, the variety of items came (Estaif, 1997).

This reader represented in the second style, his receiving doesn't aim at responding freely to the text to meet his beauty need, and in his funny isolation desired to possible personal receiving in its individuality, but the reader became new aggressive his response to the text forms the whole body of critique (Al- Allaq,1998). From here the critique direction based on the reader authority, based on his response to the creative text originates. The text is not an achievement to his anther, but it became a product by the reader this focus on the reading effective made the reader activity originates a large number of meanings, each reader to the text embodies one of possible meaning to the readable text, after the text was limited to one meaning related to the anther meaning.

B. The Types of Reading and Readers

The meaning of reader here is a reader of special kind, who is trained know, doing efforts, free, based on back ground, and not a negative creator who receives texts and accepts them and responds to them without recognizing their meanings, he is in front of a world of reasoning freedom in understanding the text (so, receiving is reasoning, that is, no one reading to the text when the reader made an effort), (Mubarak,1999) the reader meeting with the text forms the real literature existence to the text, because the text is closed existence, and isn't achieved without the reader who practice reading process divides it into three types (Ayyashi,1992).

A: scanning reading: it's a traditional type of reading and doesn't focus on the text, but it pass from it towards the author or the population, and the role of reader in this type is very limited.

B: explaining reading: this reading obligates with explaining, but it take the external meeting, and five this meaning a preventing above words, so, the text explaining explains alterative words for the same meanings, and this is also limit the reader position.

C: the poetic reading: which is reading the text through the poetic of its context design, this tends to reveal the internal text, and reads what is farther of its current pronunciation, that makes it with more ability to explain the facts of literature experience and enrich the language.

In this last type the role of reading is appeared in which it interacts with writing elements represented in good tricks which put the reader in the problems of his human life as the first creator and reader of the text evidence (Abu Zaid,1992) .from have this reader must take more importance in all production process stages, that leads to rebalance of literature process itself by returning the rights of this reader which cause the deeper understanding to the text so the integration between the article point which is the anther text and the beauty point which is the achievement of the text which came from the reader response is returned.

This reader came in many types (Awadh, 1994):

A: a receiver who is absolute from time and place.

B: The actual receiver who really receives the text in simple and limited conditions with the possibility of being normal receiver who don't have except the lowest limits of experience, also, he may be with high level with knowledge procedures, and that makes his receiving a complex, between the not according to his experience and knowledge.

C: The implicit receiver chosen by the anther when he produce his text, and this proposed receiving by the producer is un actual receiver inspire of his relation to the writer awareness because of his vast experience.

D: The optimal receiver, who is wanted by each producer, is able to unite with the work in each step of producing literature text, and after that, he behaves as the producer wants, and shows what he wants of facts objectives, and purposes, and make use text as the producer planned.

E: The receiver writer who takes the role of text receiver after producing it, and tries to text it.

The producer of literature text is considered the first receiver to his text, because he has knowledge and awareness with related to divide the beauty task of literature work (Fidel Ealah,1999) This receiver participates actively in producing text, so he engages with all producers' choices that include all sides and level of literature text. From here, the receiver was major in the process of producing creative text, and while and before the process of producing. So, the producer makes choice process when he puts himself in the place of receiver, and tends to look at the text in his eyes, and makes same changes because of the advices and recommendation from the receiver, and other receivers, friends, arbitrators.

After that, the role receiver is touched, who is the actual receiver for the literature text who has the abilities of producer, although his total receiving is not objective, because his actual receiving is opened and unlimited with time, place, language, or country, and this role starts as the literature work is spread, but what benefit's the text here I the reader who can free the text from the authority of interpreting and reading it, and then, leave it to be evidence after the producer was the first master who has the rights of interpreting, selecting and directing, and when he loose his ability, a conversational relation originated between text and reader, so, reading was developed and became cultural creative and achievement by a producer reader differs from the old reader, also, this direction is developed, and the authority of the anther is decreased, and the age of reader who became the interpreters who id like the critique is came the difference between them is that the critique is social Job in looking after the article values, and that cause the critique to be a guard for the literature who able to represent it to be understood, not just as mental understanding, but the spiritual responding with values which are escalated also, he must be able to see the new which reform theatrical values to express on the kite and ideas of the beings.(every serious reader deals with literature works as the critique deal although he doesn't obligate the arbitration). Also, the critique will not be critique until he start to read the text interestingly before thinking in it the critique manner, because this type reading make the reader feel with freedom which let reader reach into the accurate judge by the personal awareness with the beauty value, and the reader doesn't depend on critique just for reaching into this value because he is asked to taste all arts. So, the receiver finds himself unable to understand them, because he is empty culturally, and for from any value system help him to firm a wisdom in literature works. But the receiver, who communicates with text and accepts it, is the reader who makes beauty, whose creativity is more than the originator creativity.

From here, literature has argument relation between text and reader, from their communicating, the literature existence id formed (so, literature is text and reader, the text is ambiguous existence as a dream doesn't achieve without reader). That ensured the importance of reader and the effective of reading as a primary process to the literature existence, so, the modern writer care with reader through his creative process, so he try to direct him by poetry statements and opening some gaps in a poem to enable the capable reader to close it and reproduce the poem (Aja,1991).

The relation between them and the receiver depends on language, and directs into one purpose which is producing the literature meaning in its language and it's the source of evidence which the reader must built, and it's the starting point for all proposed challenges for the article work and it's what open the door behind the written text and it's the opening to produce meaning by looking behind the written text by this text which cause preparing thee literature work the reader is the point of moves vision (Al- Maqaleh,1981).

The reader faced through reading process the communication with literature text codes and it's total context after variable of changed situation between many emotions that cause him to cry or laugh and the reader may avoid these positions because of its design and knowledge (the world of modern literature has far spaces expanded in front of self, so the vision recognize what appear from it and remember what is absent it's important that the reader be communicated with the text to recognize it.

C. How the Process of Reader's Reading and Communication Conducted

The aspects of reader meeting with text are various and start with reading text through put it with in context, then knowing it, then opening it's spaces and communicating with it (an d its components Flourished it to and with alive in the reader for this text. This flourishment doesn't mean the escaping of text from its system, but it means that the reader know the text system, so the tax is flourished at this moment connected with its system and it's language structures and separating from its book, because it doesn't accept nor it's context (Awadh,1994).

III. RECEIVING

A. Receiving Levels

Reader while reading process deals with different receiving levels; it may be still the opinions of another person who is the author because he doesn't want his personality to disappear. That means that the process of reading, receiving, and communicating is a process of mixing between the other and the real self (Author / Reader) and communicating between them, in which the reader is in his full awareness and his achievement is expected and he torch his expectation then modified it that results putting all expectation in their integrated frame work from this reader paint of view which forms of literature work reading. This level is called the Top of expectation which the extent of vision for everything in suitable site.

Through the process of reading g of reading and communicating and with in expectation, the reader tries to show his experience also, he tries to originates a shared area between this special experience and the experience of writer in his embodied image. This level called beauty distances, which means the changing of expectation by the various reading. In this, the reader can observe himself and the other in the same time. The reading process it's done without perceptual spiritual engagement by the reader, this level called the space integration (Fidel Ealah, 1999).

B. The Problems of the Effective Communicating Reading and Readers Receiving

Reading effectiveness is considered important because it related to text, but that bring more problem because of readers communicating g with text, this role may be done by incompetent readers. Ethereal protection to the protection to the text in this domain is the context the complete knowledge of context considered a primary condition for correct reading, any reading can't be considered correct without starting from the context in interpreting text codes and analyzing them, so the self factor is very important in the correct reading g, but it's not absolute to impose unlimited Authority on the text, with the verity reading g to a specific text we find some shared factors link these reading with each other's event, they are different, because there is no correct reading to the text without objective control but they must be controlled by awareness, culture, article ability and context scales, from here, they gain their ability and effect (Aja,1991).

The problem of communicating between the writer and the receiver is an important one, especially, in poetry that characterizes it with complexity an d ambiguity. The reason of this conflict is the large ignorance in our Arab audience to comprehend the simplest condition of Arts which decreased its ability to comprehension because of ignorance, political and social injustices, the absent of Democratic an d social organizations.

The receiver, however, the easy and low radical works are more accepted by the audience because of the previous reasons. And to other psychological reasons, the audience prefers the easy and fast works, which responses to specific motives, as the current life imposed new type of receiving different from the past conflicts, the article works is complicated and became with higher level because of variety culture, while cultural and social life doesn't develop to be suited with literature works, so literature still near some people just. Because recoat literature product needs a large experience and culture and spent a time of text. Also, the audience dose not interacts with text or responds to it without any relation with his life (Kudhair, 1999).

The reader finds himself in conflict when dealing with some literature types, especially in poetry, because it doesn't depend on employing one code to the sender, then receiving them in union manner, but often, it sends many codes, and that cause misunderstanding in emerging evidence.

Also, the poet may council the signs of objective determining because of modernist, but the receiver finds himself motivated to take one of both situation, according to the degree of his awareness with modern poetry movement, so, this absent of poetry subject many surprised him when he searches about certain, determinant without finding them, without being active to take on other step in recognizing the article alternatives, because he is controlled with his traditional expectation with one code to the experience subject or to recognize this a absent which is considered the major feature for the modernity poetry, an d pass through it in to the real knowledge with the text, so, he is not satisfying after he used to the absence of objective determinant about its appearance clearly, because the role of such reader in such text will be limited the text featured with objectively unlimited is wider For this reader to participate, while the first type of receivers said that the poet is ambiguous. Forgetting hi needs to the understanding which doesn't include the clarity which isn't the result of the objective determining so, he must train on passing the first need of understanding because poetry doesn't stop on understanding because it's elements ire more than the limits of logic, so he is in need to the recognition at the base that recognition consists of sensory, spiritual and mental receiving categories.

Also, the receiver need to take a correct situation of the previous literature traditions so, he doesn't controlled by them negatively, from here, the importance of rehabilitation the reader and training them to understand the high the situ for the text, came (Ayyad, 2002).

IV. CONCLUSION

At the End, we may say that the effectiveness of reading, receiving and communicating is very important, because it has an authority on the text and give the reader the larger role in the process of receiving, reading, or communication with the text, if there is no food reader to per produce the literature work. From here, I tried to focus on this reader through his simple and complex types and the effect of that on the text and its producer. So, it was clear that this reader has a role before and after producing the literature work.

This, the reader transformed into evil who controls the text and its producer at the end I tried to investigate some problems faced the literature text, and the reader, because he is unable, and that led some to describe the text with complexity.

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Speech Community and SLA

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Abstract—**The notion of the speech community is one of the foci and the main issue of analysis in the ethnography of communication and one of the important concepts in sociolinguistics. In the theory and method of sociolinguistics, it is one of the major problems concerned. Second language acquisition (SLA) is a sub-discipline of applied linguistics and is defined as the learning and adopting of a language that is not your native language as well as the process by which people learn it. SLA is influenced by many factors in a speech community. This paper presents a detailed analysis of speech community; discusses different theories concerning SLA; summarizes the various factors in a speech community which function to influence SLA; and tries to point out the significance of the study and the problems existing in it.**

Index Terms—**speech community, second language acquisition, definition, influence, sociolinguistic**

I. INTRODUCTION

In most sociolinguistic and anthropological-linguistic research, the speech community has always been the focus. It is one of the main problems and the major objective of study in the ethnography of communication, in addition, it is also one of the important issues in sociolinguistics. In the theory and method of sociolinguistics, it is one of the major problems concerned. Second language acquisition (SLA) is a sub-discipline of applied linguistics and is defined as the learning and adopting of a language that is not your native language as well as the process by which people learn it. SLA is influenced by many factors in a speech community. This paper discusses the various definitions of the speech community proposed by different linguists; tries to present a detailed analysis of this notion; discusses different theories concerning SLA; summarizes the various factors in a speech community which function to influence SLA; and tries to point out the significance of the study and the problems existing in it.

II. AN ANALYSIS OF SPEECH COMMUNITY

A. Definitions of Speech Community from Different Linguists

For general linguistics, a speech community is all the people who speak a single language and so share notions of what is same or different in phonology or grammar. This would include any group of people, wherever they might be, and however remote might be the possibility of their ever wanting or being able to communicate with each other, all using the same language. Sociolinguists, however, focus on the language practices of a group of people who do in fact have the opportunity to interact and who, share not just a single language but a repertoire of languages or varieties. Different linguists defined it differently:

Lyons (1970) defined it as "All people who use a given language or dialect" This definition was rather simple and general with the focus on a given language or dialect.

For Fishman (1971), a Speech community is a subtype of community "all of whose members share at least a single speech variety and the norms for its appropriate use". In this definition, he put forward the concept of speech variety and norms of usage which was a great step forward.

Labov (1972) defined it as: "Participation in a set of shared norms; these norms may be observed in overt types of evaluative behavior, and by the uniformity of abstract patterns of variation which are invariant in respect to particular levels of usage" He proposed the first definition of speech community and his perspective was most influential in that it emphasized on linguistic production, social perception and evaluation. It gave an insight to the essence of this term and has been followed by all the subsequent scholars.

Gumperz (1968) held that it was: "any human aggregate characterized by regular and frequent interaction by means of a shared body of verbal signs and set off from similar aggregates by significant differences in language usage". Later he revised it as "A social group which may be either monolingual or multilingual, held together by frequency of social interaction and set off from the surrounding areas by weaknesses in the lines of communication"(1971) He focused on the aspect of interaction and multilingual which is very important feature of the speech community.

For Hymes (1974), however, the Speech community is "not a naive attempt to use language to compass a social unit", but rather "an object defined for purposes of linguistic inquiry", not to be confused with "attributes of the counterpart of that object in social life… It postulates the unit of description as a social, rather than linguistic, entity" Then, Hymes (1986) proposes to divide the speech community into individual communities and groups, which is considered a descriptive theory including two aspects: a community that shares "rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech,

and rules for the interpretation of at least one linguistic variety". Thus, he was concerned with approaches of speaking and communicative competence.

Kerswill (1994) believed it referred to "linguistic similarities among the various codes in use", and to "agreement on the social meaning of various linguistic parameters", including sociolinguistic variables, codeswitching, and contextualization cues; such parameters can only be fully understood by members of the same speech community (liu Mingzheng, 2012). He took the perception and motivation of the individual speaker as primary.

These definitions reflect different concerns of each researcher, but it turns out that most linguists emphasized the shared rules of language use and the common communication among the members in a speech community. And it's also the basic concept in the study of the speech community.

B.   My Interpretation of the Speech Community

After studying all this, I find it is difficult to give the speech community an exact definition. But this study helps me a lot in having a deeper and better understanding of this notion. In the ethnography of communication and in sociolinguistics, speech community is related more strictly to social interactional conditions. And the members in a speech community must have shared language use, shared norms of speech performance, shared value and interpretation of language, and shared sociocultural knowledge. I tried to summarize my understanding of the speech community as follows:

1. The Speech community is the principal unit of analysis in the ethnography of communication and sociolinguistics. It is an abstract "space" studied in sociolinguistics, where a complex interlocking social network of communication takes place, and through frequent, rule-governed interaction and the use of shared speech norms and a common linguistic repertoire of signs, the members in it constitute a group which is distinguished from others by significant differences in language use. So there is a linguistic component and a social component in this concept.

2. In this interpretation of the speech community, speech norms are the unstated rules for use of a language that are shared by members of a speech community. We assume that all the members in a speech community have only one series of norms in language use when speaking. Some of these norms embrace common rules for assessing such as making judgments, understanding problems and explaining language use, which helps people in one speech community to recognize members form other speech communities. For example, we often feel that someone "sounds funny" or "has an accent" or "isn't from around here", that's due to the fact that they don't share the speech norms with us. Linguistic repertoire refers to the linguistic resources of a person or a community.

The idea of the sharing norms and repertoire or varieties is important. Though the members in a speech community might not all know and use each of the varieties, they recognize the conditions under which other members of the community believe that it is appropriate to use each of them. For example, Londoners recognize Cockney and Mayfair varieties of English though they may themselves use neither. Another example is in some small Israeli Palestinian villages, there are commonly four significant varieties making up the linguistic repertoire: the village vernacular, a dialectal variant of Palestinian Arabic, which is considered appropriate for most daily activities; Classical or Modern Standard Arabic, which is used only in educational or religious or formal public functions; Modern Israeli Hebrew, kept for use outside the village; and some school-learned English, for educational use.

3. In addition, there is no theoretical limitation on the location and size of a speech community. The members in a speech community may be far away from each other, for example, there are a variety of dialects. If speaks can understand each other's dialects well, they just consider that they belong to the same speech community despite the fact that their homes may be far away from each other. A small social network (such as regular patrons of a football team) forms a speech community, and so does a large metropolis or a country, a region, or a communication network, like the internet.

4. What is also worth noticing in this notion is that the members of a speech community only share some experiences such as knowledge about and attitude towards a set of language varieties, but not necessarily the same language. For instance, Spanish speakers in some states of America and in some countries of south America all speak one language, but they are members of different speech communities. Whereas in some speech communities in South Pacific, the couples in one family may speak different languages but they belong to one same speech community.

III.   SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

A.   Definition of SLA

Second language acquisition (SLA) is the process by which people learn a second language. It also refers to the scientific discipline devoted to studying that process. *Second language* refers to any language learned in addition to a person's first language; although the concept is named *second*-language acquisition, it can also incorporate the learning of third, fourth, or subsequent languages (http://en.wikipedia.org, Mar, 2013). So according to the above analysis of speech community, there may be a variety of different language in one speech community, which makes SLA research more difficult.

Second-language acquisition is a sub-discipline of applied linguistics. It is a comparatively new research field and is based on many other subjects. As well as the various branches of linguistics, second-language acquisition is also closely related to psychology, cognitive psychology, and education. SLA research began as an interdisciplinary field, and

because of this it is difficult to identify a precise starting date. However, it does appear to have developed a great deal since the mid-1960s. The term *acquisition* was originally used to emphasize the subconscious nature of the learning process, but in recent years *learning* and *acquisition* have become largely synonymous (http://en.wikipedia.org, Mar, 2013).

Generally speaking, Second-language acquisition does not include bilingualism. Most linguists hold that bilingualism is the final result, but not the process of learning a language. And they consider this term as something like the fluency in their native language. However, researcher in many other fields like education and psychology, often use the term roughly to refer to all forms of multilingualism. There also exist difference between Second-language acquisition and the acquisition of a foreign language. Of course, second language acquisition and learning foreign languages share the same basic procedure in different settings.

Researchers have all along been debating as to how on earth is language learned, but a lot of problems haven't been resolved yet. As for second-language acquisition, there are many different theories but so far there is no consensus concerning the final and perfect and absolute definition and explanation of this term. Owing to the fact that the study of second language acquisition is a multi-field task, Due to the interdisciplinary nature of the field of second-language acquisition, there will be a long way to go before we fulfill the final satisfactory definition and explanation of this term.

B. Theories of SLA

S. Krashen developed the monitor theory over a number of years since 1975. It was first designed not as a second language acquisition theory but as a model of second language performance of second language learners. Krashen (1982a) formalized this theory in five hypotheses, dealing with the laws governing L2 acquisition. The five hypotheses are as follows:

1. The acquisition-learning hypothesis. Krashen claims that adults have two ways of getting to master a second language, whose process is distinctive and independent. One way is language acquisition. It is a process unconscious to the acquirers and is much the same as the way children acquire their first language. The acquirers of the second language are usually unaware that they are acquiring a language, instead, they are only aware that they are making use of the language to exchange with others. They are also unconscious that they have acquired the language as well as the competence in using the language. The other way to have a good command of a second language is by language learning. This is a conscious process. The learners are conscious that they are learning a second language, knowing the rules and being able to talk about them. The acquisition-learning hypothesis claims that acquisition is a very powerful process in the adult, that the capability to "pick up" languages does not disappear in childhood, and that correcting mistakes have very little or even no impact on the subconscious acquisition, although researchers consider it helpful for the conscious learning process.

2. The monitor hypothesis. This hypothesis holds that acquisition and learning are used in very specific ways. Usually acquisition makes a person speak in the second language is the key factor for his/her fluency, whereas there is only one function of learning, that is , to edit or monitor the language in use. Learning only has the function of changing the forms of our spoken words after they are uttered by the acquired language. This hypothesis implies that conscious learning of formal rules only has a minor function in mastering the second language. Many people are against this theory.

3. The natural order hypothesis. This hypothesis claims that in acquiring a second language, usually the acquisition of the structure in grammar has its feature of being a foreseeable and natural order, no matter how different the acquirers' ages and language backgrounds are. The implication is that the sequencing of grammar is neither desirable nor necessary when our goal is language acquisition. But when our goal is conscious learning, sequencing is necessary and unavoidable.

4. The input hypothesis. It claims that we acquire by understanding language that contains structure a bit beyond our current level of competence (i.e. "i+1"). This is done with the help of context or extra-linguistic information. When communication is successful, and when the input in understood and there is enough of it, "i+1" will be provided automatically. Hence production ability emerges. It cannot be taught directly. According to Krashen, the input hypothesis predicts that the classroom may be an excellent place for second language acquisition because within an hour in the classroom, we can provide comprehensible input of a whole day outside. (Meiyun Yue, 1999).

5. The affective filter hypothesis. This hypothesis captures the relationship between affective variables such as anxiety, motivation and self-confidence and the process of second language acquisition by positing that acquirers vary with respect to the strength or level of their affective filters. It claims that the influence of affect is "outside" the language acquisition itself. It implies that our pedagogical goals should not only include supplying comprehensible input but also creating a situation that encourages a low filter (Meiyun, Yue, 1999).

Krashen summarizes his second language acquisition theory as follows: Acquisition is of more significance than learning; two conditions are necessary for acquiring a second language---comprehensible input containing structures a bit beyond the acquirer's current level; and a low or weak affective filter to allow the input "in". Krashen concludes that comprehensible input and the strength of the filter are the true causes of second language acquisition. (Meiyun, Yue, 1999).

IV. SPEECH COMMUNITY AND SLA

As is motioned above, the Speech community is the principal unit of analysis in the ethnography of communication and sociolinguistics. And in fact, it may refer to any research in linguistics that is involved in people's natural speech and all the recorded data. It is at the intersection for which the researchers try to analyze and describe and explain. And it is inescapable in studying language variation and change both geographically and socially, ways of speaking, and patterns of choice among elements in a linguistic repertoire. It is thus a main objective of description and theorizing in our study. According to the above summary and analysis, the research of SLA has many different sociolinguistic approaches. All these approaches have one thing in common, that is, they don't consider language as a purely psychological phenomenon; on the contrary, the social context in which language is learned is viewed by most sociolinguistic researchers as vital for an appropriate comprehension of the acquisition process.

Rod Ellis identifies three types of social structure which can affect the acquisition of second languages: socialinguistic setting, specific social factors, and situational factors. Socialinguistic setting refers to the role of the second language in society, such as whether it is spoken by a majority or a minority of the population, whether its use is widespread or restricted to a few functional roles, or whether the society is predominantly bilingual or monolingual. Ellis also includes the distinction of whether the second language is learned in a natural or an educational setting. Specific social factors that can affect second-language acquisition include age, gender, social class, and ethnic identity, with ethnic identity being the one that has received most research attention. Situational factors are those which vary between each social interaction. For example, a learner may use more polite language when talking to someone of higher social status, but more informal language when talking with friends (http://en.wikipedia.org, Mar, 2013).

Speech community and SLA both emphasize shared community membership and linguistic interaction. Combing Krashen's input and affective filter hypothesis with Rod Ellis's three types of social structure which can affect SLA, this paper summarizes the factors in a speech community which influence SLA as follows:

A.   Community Attitudes.

Community attitudes toward the language being learned can have a profound impact on SLA．The process of second language acquisition is stressful and the positive or negative attitude from the surrounding society in a speech community can be impactful. As is stated in Krashen's affective filter Hypothesis, acquirers vary with respect to strength or level of their affective filters such as anxiety, motivation and self-confidence. Consequently, the more positive the community attitude is, the more effective will the second language be acquired. In general, positive attitudes toward second language, its speaker and its cultre can enhance learning, which can in turn be influenced by this success; negative attitudes can impede learning. According to Schumann's acculturation model, Learners' rate of development and ultimate level of language achievement is a function of the "social distance" and the "psychological distance" between learners and the second-language community. Social factors in a speech community are most important, but the degree to which learners are comfortable with learning the second language also plays a role.

B.   Social Context in a Speech Community

Many languages are now wildly used as international languages. In every social interaction, they act as the means of communication between speakers of different countries in different social context such as doing business, conducting scientific study or having a daily small talk. To achieve better second language acquisition, the learners should involve themselves in various resources of the language. The Input Hypothesis states that human acquire language in only one way-by understanding messages or by receiving "comprehensible" input"．Language differ from one domain form another, for example, the language of physics is not the same as the language in politics. To acquirers of a second language, the most important thing is to understand and fact and persevere in learning it. The potential learning outcomes are associated with different social context.

C.   Specific Social Factors in a Speech Community

A variety of specific social factors in a speech community can affect second language acquisition such as age, gender, social class, and ethnic identity. Besides, the role of the second language in the speech community, such as whether it is spoken by a majority or a minority of the population, whether its use is widespread or restricted to a few functional roles, or whether the society is predominantly bilingual or monolingual all play a vital part in SLA. Take gender as an example. It is commonly believed that females are better at second language acquisition than males. Women are more sensitive to the language forms such as pronunciation, expression, oral language, etc. and are more willing to employ them in their speech. In this way they may be more likely to avoid making use of any interlingua forms which are different from the targeted language forms. However, when it comes to comprehension, grammar, analysis, the differences between females and males are not so clear. So it is commonly believed that gender difference exerts some influence on second language acquisition. Another case in point is ethnic identity. Most socio-psychological research has shown that language and ethnic identity are related to each other. In a speech community, one group of people will choose the language fits for their ethnic identity. Within the social psychology of identity, two components are involved: personal identity and social identity. A person's native dialect or language shapes his personal identity, whereas the environment in his speech community, his educational process in the speech community develop his social identity.

V.   SIGNIFICANCE AND PROBLEMS

The speech community has always been the focus in most sociolinguistic and anthropological-linguistic research. It is one of the main problems and the major objective of study in the ethnography of communication, in addition, it is also one of the important issues in sociolinguistics. It is involved with all linguistic research that is concerning the naturally-occurring speech or recorded data. It represents the social boundaries within which analysts locate and seek to describe and account for. And it is inescapable in studying language variation and change both geographically and socially, ways of speaking, and patterns of choice among elements in a linguistic repertoire. SLA is a subdiscipline of applied linguistics and is defined as the learning and adopting of a language that is not your native language as well as the process by which people learn it. SLA is influenced by many factors in a speech community. Thus the study of speech community is equally important as other basic notions such as "language", "dialect" or "grammar" as a primary object of description and theorizing in our study of its influence on SLA. And the study will be of great significance to second language teaching as well.

Yet there still exist some problems concerning this issue. First of all, there is remarkably little agreement or theoretical discussion of the concept in sociolinguistics, though it is much defined. Then, the survey of its application seems hard to be exhaustive. Next, in order to have a scientific and detailed study of the shared language varieties, we must examine speech in natural settings, not artificial ones. But how do we get at this kind of speech? As we know the "Observer's paradox": the speech we most want to observe is unobserved speech, we have to come up with techniques for overcoming this. Besides, the principal concepts of speech community have received reactions and modifications of two broad types: variations on a theme, intended to refine (usually broaden) a speech community model; and general rejection of their applicability, on various grounds. Which one should be followed? Finally, the speech community should not be taken for a unit of social analysis; and we ought not to assume speech community exist as predefined entities waiting to be researched, or identify them with folk notions, but see them as objects constituted anew by the researcher's gaze and the questions we ask. So, we still have a long way to go to get a better job done in studying the notion of the speech community and its influence on SLA.

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Difference(s) between Male and Female Speakers of Turkish Regarding Politeness Norms

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Abstract—**This study was an attempt to explore the possible differences between male and female speakers of Turkish language as far as politeness norms in speaking was concerned. To achieve this end 20 male and 20 female native speakers of Turkish language were chosen, and their speech was analyzed in different settings. These observations included their speech with different individuals in two settings, namely, formal and informal settings ones. That is to say, in one setting their speech was analyzed when speaking with close friends, and in the other one it was analyzed with more formal individuals, say, their teachers. To explore the differences and similarities, code-switching was selected as a criterion, and the number of code-switchings was counted. These observations were made within 20 sessions. The findings showed a drastic variation in observing politeness norms between male and female speakers of Turkish, especially code-switching from English to Farsi. Besides there were other differences noticed between male and female speakers, for example male speakers used much more taboos, but the most noticeable difference was female speakers' excessive use of code-switching to Farsi.**

Index Terms—**code switching, politeness norms**

I. INTRODUCTION

Politeness has always been a topic for discussion among people, the topic of most these discussions is about what is polite and what is not. For decades these differences in people's belief of politeness has remained unresolved, and people from various cultural/regional backgrounds have had different beliefs regarding norms of politeness. For example some of them considered indirectness as a symbol and representation of politeness, while others paid much attention to content and expressed it directly.

In dictionary of applied linguistics politeness is defined as "how languages express social distance between speakers and their different role relationships" (Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics3rd edition In Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics (3rd edition) politeness is referred to as "the attempt to establish, maintain, and save face during conversation". Different countries have got various norms to show politeness: in China being indirect is a sign of politeness in conversation while indirectness is an indicator of shyness and incapability in western countries.

Traditional theories of politeness (Lakoff1973, Brown & Levinson 1987, Leech 1983) presented politeness as a phenomenon within linguistic pragmatics and Gricean perspective. In fact they gave priority to speakers' intention, and did not put emphasis on differences between cultures, in other words they hold the idea that various cultures are homogeneous regarding politeness norms. However later approaches (Ellen 2001, Milks 2003, Watts 2003) gave priority to culture, and analyzed different politeness norms considering heterogeneity of cultures, the role of addressee and setting. In fact they believed that "politeness cannot in principle be a matter of using particular linguistic devices/strategies because it is negotiated at the micro level and jointly by the speaker and the addressee" (MarinaTerkourafi, 2003).

Two languages in one person's mind have always been very much important for researchers working in the field of language sciences for many years. In the field of bilingual study, researchers have made so much effort to characterize and formalize dual language knowledge and to identify the cognitive strategies that are invoked in managing and deploying two language systems. For example, Empirical studies have shown that while bilinguals are able to create different phonetic categories from each other, they present phonetic/phonological properties that are not presented in the speech of their monolingual counterparts. Furthermore these results are more likely to be enhanced in the speech of bilinguals who are regularly called on to access and activate their languages at the same time, as in code-switching. Considering individual bilingualism from the morpho-syntax perspective the following research papers all represent the structural properties of bilingual code-switching. Addressing individual bilingualism through the lens of morpho-syntax,

the research papers assembled herein represent a shared interest in the structural properties of bilingual code-switching. (Almeida Jacqueline Toribio, 2008)

Statement of the Problem

As mentioned so far politeness norms may vary drastically across cultures, so politeness as a social phenomenon has to be defined in real setting of society. In countries such as Iran, where different cultures co-exist, dealing with politeness differences is more complex. In fact some communities, such as Turkish community has to adapt itself to norms of dominant culture, Farsi. In other words Turkish adults have to make their children aware of Turkish culture as well as Farsi culture.

It is self-evident that cultural gap between Turkish and Farsi is not a small one, so it puts lots of burden on shoulders of parents to get their children acquainted with norms of politeness in both cultures, and this pressure often leads to controversies among female and male parents. In this complex situation children mostly do not understand what they are supposed to do in different situations, and these complexities and paradoxical situations often result in abnormal behaviors on the part of children. In other words they are not context-sensitive enough to behave differently in various situations. It is obvious that abnormal behaviors done by children may embarrass their parents, and this is one of the possible sources of disagreement between female and male parents, because they have quite different attitudes/beliefs toward politeness norms. Another important issue (not dealt with in this paper) is having mother tongue accent while speaking Farsi. Most female parents prefer their children not to have that accent, because mostly it renders their speech deviant. In order to investigate male and female parent's different attitudes/beliefs toward politeness norms, a decision is made to observe their own behavior and manner, while speaking in different settings with different people.

Significance of the Study

This global economic system has caused an increasing degree of communication among the cultures. Among the cultures communication is problematic since these systems of symbolic meanings are known to one group but unknown to other groups. (Geertz, 1973; Kluckholm& Kroeber, 1952; Trice & Beyer, 1992).It is very much important to improve the manager's ability to make communication across cultures and it is very much important to know these differences. (Limaye& Victor, 1991; Beamer, 1992; Earley, 1987).Whereas in the traditional system of career progress little need for international experience was required. in the future people may require international experience to make leading positions for themselves in their organization (Adler, 1991; Kom, 1989).

Economical and educational system of Iran as a multi-cultural country necessitates Turkish and other language communities to have negotiation with dominant language/culture, and if these communities want to be welcomed in the society they have to change some of their norms and adapt new ones. This process is not easy as it may seem; in fact it is very difficult for a community to avoid its norms/values and adapt new ones. Having new norms/values is not that easy and often leads to complexities. As stated before the need for cross-cultural communication grows every day, and the number of studies done inside Iran as a multi-cultural nation is not that much in quantity. So, the researchers have decided to show how this process leads most Turkish adults to have different and often paradoxical values in different settings.

Null Hypothesis

There is no difference between male and female speakers of Turkish regarding Politeness norms.

Definition of Terms

Code-Switching: "a change by a speaker (or writer) from one language or language variety to another one. Code-switching can take place in a conversation when one speaker uses one language and the other speaker answers in a different language. A person may start speaking one language and then change to another one in the middle of their speech, or sometimes even in the middle of a sentence" (*Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics, 3rd edition*).

Politeness: (different definitions has been expressed by different scholars for politeness so far, I just quoted some of them)

a) "How languages express social distance between speakers and their different role relationships" (*Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics, 3rd edition*).

b) "Non-prescriptive, true politeness can be thought of as the techniques people use to avoid being offensive, embarrassing, aggressive or presumptuous in conversation" (Cari Sisson, 2007).

c) "Politeness is an attempt by the speaker to preserve the self-esteem, or face, of both the speaker and the hearer" (Brown, P. & Levinson, S.C 1987).

d) "Politeness is information about the speaker's commitment to particular propositions and their willingness to have this information modified by a hearer" (Brennan & Ohaeri 1999).

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Lots of studies have been done on politeness in recent decades. One of the interesting studies done by Robert Rosenthal (1996) was about politeness strategies expressed through different channels of communication (silent video, speech, full channel video and audio, and transcriptions of speech). In this study he found that politeness strategies were communicated non-linguistically as well as linguistically and that non-linguistic strategy usage was related to social and contextual factors. Differences revealed by Rosenthal between Korean and American politeness were quite interesting.

For example Koreans' politeness strategies were influenced more by relational setting, whereas Americans' strategies were influenced more by content of the message.

Relevance of politeness to social and contextual factors is self-evident, and in case of Iran, Turkish speakers use lots of strategies to fit to dominant culture. One of the most tangible strategies used by Turkish speakers is code-switching. The interesting point is that Turkish speakers use code-switching even when they are talking to Turkish interlocutors; in other words they insert Farsi words to their Turkish sentences when they are in a formal situation.

Other studies have also been done regarding politeness variations across cultures; an interesting case was reported by Ambady (1996). In his paper he magnified the point that there are some differences between East- Asian societies and America where in the former much importance is given to relational concerns whereas in the latter this importance is diminished. yet in another study Ambady, Koo, Lee, Rosenthal(1996) proposed that in Latin and East-Asian politeness norms it is necessary to eye contact, emotional expressions and tone of voice are carefully attended whereas in European American politeness what is said is more important than how it is said. The situations in Iran do not seem to get in line with these studies, as mentioned earlier Turkish speakers have to insert Farsi words even when speaking Turkish, so that they can be noticed as respectful members of society.

Another interesting research was done by Hall (1959; 1966) in his paper, he states that "conceptions of time and of interpersonal proximity are universal in human interaction; these concepts cause variation among different cultures". He also adds that "interpersonal distance is in some cultures relatively small, while in other cultures there are larger degrees of interpersonal distance". Japanese are in the habit of using more ambiguity and indirectness in their speech. Another term for politeness in Japanese culture is linguistic indirection. This is not in line with the nature of politeness theory. Differences in politeness norms apply both in the comparison of Japanese and American speech and occur in the cultures of all societies.). Culture and politeness norms can be investigated from different aspects; for example anthropologists seek norms in various cultures considering universal dimensions, meaning through using constructs universally valid and can be generalized across all human cultures, this approach is called ethic approach. (Bowling Green; Jan 1996). However from social and linguistic perspectives generalizability of cultural values is not much; in other words there are often lots of differences among some cultures that looking for even one commonality seems impossible. It is self-evident that humans are social beings, so politeness norms have always been an important issue throughout history, and people from different regional areas and cultures have always tried different processes to be a part of community, and save their faces; in other words "All humans within all cultures of the world, project a public face, a sense of positive identity and public self-esteem, so throughout social interactions, all individuals try to show they are competent, noticeable, and worthy individuals" (Bowling Green 1996) Since people live in social settings their faces are continuously judged by other members., it is also continuously treated, handled and upheld by others. Other members of society who surround human being in daily communication sometimes engage in interactional support work by means of which they protect and validate speakers' face. But there are settings where members of dominant group do not support individuals, who use different norms, and the result might be quite disappointing for these individuals. In other words there are sets of common interactional events, which are intrinsically likely to generate interpersonal tension or conflict, for instance criticisms, disagreements, asking favors, requesting, saying no to, apologizing, etc.

As Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) suggest "during these face threatening events or moments, we commonly utilize an array of linguistic strategies, or politeness behaviors, in order to mitigate interpersonal conflict. For example, when criticizing someone (an act we know potentially imperils their face), we are likely to linguistically exhibit some polite speech, or when asking for something we are in a face threatening position". It is quite easy to notice in multi-cultural societies even a simple request potentially puts the people's public face in danger.

Another research done by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) investigated politeness norms in three entirely unrelated languages; English, Mayan and Tamil (a south Indian, aboriginal language totally unrelated to the Indo-European languages of North India), and they declared that people in every culture share a very broad set of polite linguistic conventions for mitigating the force of speech acts (in essence, that every human language contains expressions of apology, hedges, tag questions, honorifics, etc.) and that these linguistic mechanisms serve the same interactional and social purpose in every language.

For Brown and Levinson there are two categories of politeness (positive and negative).In positive politeness the speaker aims to communicate the same impact on the listener , putting much emphasis on their commonalities. However, in negative politeness they are intended to show their respect to the differences between the speaker and listener and let them preserve their autonomy and freedom in being obliged to each other.

In another paper Liliana Sánchez (2011) examines the concept of convergence in some strategies related to case mapping in every day talking of Quechua- Spanish bilinguals. In that language suffixes at the end indicate case markers. The data reveal that speakers of that language those suffixes and Spanish prepositions happen together those mapping strategies converge. This fact (mixing of case markers with Spanish prepositions) is a true indication that the latter one is a case marker not a postposition. Further evidence came from considering this fact that there were no clear differences among the non-oblique and oblique case markers. Samples of case suffix deleting expressions are taken as a mark of instability case marking in code mixing utterances.

Valerie Hobbs, Ayumi Matsuo and Mark Payne (2010) argue that in the classroom setting also there are many code switching cases between teachers and the students which they employ in their first and target language use. However, few studies have compared the differences between native and non-native teachers most of them have not aimed to consider culture of learning as a variable. In this paper the results obtained how three teachers, one of British and two of Japanese origin, had different applications of classroom language when used in target language vs. the students first language. They came to this understanding that code –switching practices of the teachers are very much affected by the teacher's culture of learning .Field notes and semi- structured interview results revealed that teacher's background and teaching context should be prioritized in language teacher education programs as far as code-switching is concerned.

Brian Hok- Shing Chan (2008) in his paper argue that lexical and functional categories (V, N –D,I,C) have different features regarding code-switching. Functional categories can always determine the order of the elements in code-switching; however, lexical ones do not possess this feature. This feature is in contrast with the findings of many recent studies which claim that heads are order determining component (e.g. Mahootian, 1993; MacSwan, 1999; Nishimura, 1997; Nishimura and Yoon, 1998. Assuming a "Null Theory" perspective (Mahootian, 1993; MacSwan, 1999), code-switching data are explained here in terms of existing syntactic apparatus which also governs monolingual syntax. It is proposed that word order between lexical categories and their complements are determined by head parameter instead of feature strength as an intrinsic property of the lexical heads. Nonetheless, head-complement order is inherently specified in functional categories. On this account, prepositions are functional heads instead of lexical heads.

Pondering upon the lack of explanatory deepness in the previous studies regarding bilingual code-switching, Jim Hlavac (2006) examines the distribution and usefulness of the aforesaid techniques in English and Croatian. It should be added that the corpus includes 100 Croatian and English bilinguals' recordings. Very high rates of co-occurrence are reported to be evident in English and Croatian, however; lack of correspondence is evident in poly functional forms. It goes without saying that poly functional patterns are single forms for accomplishing various functions.

His- Yau Su (2002) employs a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods for examining a Taiwanese bilingual to see his code-switching styles in face-threatening telephone conversations. The study shows that the used code-switching styles are under the influence of the speakers' cultural and ethnic background. This study also illustrates that, while on the sequential level code-switching serves to organize the internal structure of the conversations, on the interactional level it can be used simultaneously with other linguistic strategies to negotiate interpersonal relationships in a face-threatening situation and is but one among a variety of resources circulating in the society available to bilingual speakers in performing various tasks in their daily interactions. This study further demonstrates how code-switching should be understood alongside notions such as footing (Goffman, 1981) and politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1987), arguing that an adequate study of interactional code-switching should be situated within a larger study of linguistic practices and social interaction.

Peter Auer (2005), discusses the processes of social identity construction accomplished via code-switching and code-mixing techniques. The researcher states that the employment of extra linguistic tools is typical among bilingual language users. He also claims that bilinguals use a combination of various techniques to build social identity under different circumstances.

III. METHOD

I tried to observe 20 male and 20 female native Turkish speakers in a city where the only language for communication was Turkish, and I observed them in different settings. In order to observe females in informal setting I used the cameras of an institute to record their voice before the teacher's arrival for about 15 minutes, and I did not attend to in their classes as an observer, because my presence as a male might cause them to behave formally. In order to observe them in formal setting I recorded their voice while their teacher was in class, and 15 minutes at the beginning of the class we did our project. In both settings (formal and informal) the only language for communication was Turkish. It should be clarified that in formal setting the medium of communication was Turkish too, because all three classes were at the beginning level and the teacher had to initiate the class in Turkish in order to warm them up. As mentioned so far, I used three beginning level classes to observe females, and I used three different classes just to create age differences. Class number 1 included 7 female students with ages ranging from 11 to 16, in class number 2 there were 8 females their ages ranging from 20 and 28, and finally class number 3 consisted of 5 female students their ages ranging from 26 to 35.As for male classes we tried to make the situation very much similar to the females'. The only difference was that there were only two classes instead of three. In the first class there were 12 students their ages ranging from 12 to 17, and the second class consisted of 8 students their ages ranging was from 19 and 27.Having observed these classes for 9 sessions, the total numbers of code-switching to Farsi was counted, while subjects were speaking Turkish, and a significant difference was found between males and females. The spss calculated results are given in the following table.

IV. RESULTS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	5.885[a]	1	.015		
Continuity Correction[b]	4.270	1	.039		
Likelihood Ratio	4.837	1	.028		
Fisher's Exact Test				.026	.026
Linear-by-Linear Association	5.841	1	.016		
N of Valid Cases	134				

V. DISCUSSION

As stated above in the introduction part, politeness norms have been investigated from two different perspectives. One was traditional view (Lakoff 1973, Brown and Levins-on 1987, Leech 1983) that considered speakers' intention as the most important criterion of politeness; in other words this view did not put emphasis on differences between cultures. However later approaches (Ellen 2001, Milks 2003, WATS 2003) gave priority to cultural differences regarding politeness norms. According to the results of present study, the second approach seems more plausible, because the results showed that Turkish female speakers considered code-switching as a politeness norm, while female speakers of other languages/cultures might not.

The other issue dealt with in this paper was differences between male and female speakers of Turkish regarding politeness norms. As shown in the result section there was a significant difference between males and females regarding code-switching's according to the findings of this paper it can be claimed that the traditional view (Lakooff 1973, Brown and Levinson 1987, Leech 1983) does not make sense; in other words speakers' intention is not the most important criterion regarding politeness. It seems that politeness norms should be considered as a mixture of speakers' intention, culture/language and gender; to put in another way the results of this article were more in line with more recent approaches (Ellen 2001, Milks 2003, Wats 2003) which considered cultural differences as a dominant criterion in case of politeness norms.

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ON THE EFFECT OF THEMATIZATION ON THE COMPREHENSION OF SENTENCES WITH DIFFERENT VERB CATEGORIES AT INTERMEDIATE LEVEL. (Germany, VDM , 2011)

He has been able to get one of his papers be published in the journal of JLTR in January 2012 and published another one in the journal of TPLS.

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Indeterminacy in Postmodern Fiction

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Abstract—**Indeterminacy is an intrinsic feature of postmodern fiction. This paper focuses on the indeterminate feature of postmodern fiction, which refers to a complex category that is composed of various different concepts such as ambiguity, discontinuity, heterodoxy, pluralism, randomness, revolt, perversion and deformation etc. After a brief review of postmodernism and postmodern fiction, the paper explores the feature of indeterminacy embodied in the theme, plot, characters, language of postmodern fiction.**

Index Terms—**indeterminacy, postmodernism, postmodern fiction**

I. POSTMODERNISM

Postmodernism is a hot topic in a wide variety of disciplines or areas of study, including art, architecture, music, film, literature, sociology, communications, fashion, and technology. Although a conceptual term is expected to have a clear-cut definition that defines its connotation and extension, it is hardly so in the area of social science and humanities. The reasons are as follows: first of all, concepts in social science and humanities are relative, because unlike a concept in physical science that has an objective signified, the signified of a concept in social science and humanities is usually an idea that is scarcely definable; Secondly, since there are differences in their comprehension of the same concept, people constantly revise or redefine the concept only to enlarge its connotation rather than making it clearer and more exact. Postmodernism focused on in this thesis is an indefinable term of the sort.

Of all the definitions available, some scholars believe that postmodernism refers to a movement, for example, as Sarup (1993, p.131) understands, it is "a movement in advanced capitalist culture, particularly in the arts", while some others, like Murfin (2003, p. 297) take it as "certain radically experimental works of literature and art". No matter what else it may be, this thesis adopts that postmodernism is a cultural phenomenon embodied in areas such as art, literature and so on, which is becoming increasingly dominant in contemporary society.

As to the exact time when postmodernism arose, a unanimous agreement has not yet been reached among theorists since each of them sticks to his own viewpoint. These viewpoints can be generally sorted out into three catalogues, namely Genesis of Postmodernism before WWII Genesis of Postmodernism after WWII and Genesis of Postmodernism both before and after WII.

Theorists who hold that postmodernism originated before the Second World War are best represented by British postmodernist Charles Jencks and American postmodernist Ihab Hassan. Hassan indicates in his *The Postmodern Turn* (1987) that "postmodernism" might be traced back to the Spanish "Postmodernismo" in Federico De Onis's *Antolog ú de la poes ú espa ñola e hispanoamericana* published in 1934, and he believes that it is James Joyce's *Finnegans Wake* (1939) that marks the beginning of postmodernism. Jencks's view is slightly different from that of Hassan's because according to his research, he holds that it was British artist John Watkins Chapman who first put the term "postmodernism" to use in the 1870s, and that the appearance of term "post-industrial" in the sociology circle during the period from 1914 to 1922 marked the beginning of "Posties" researches. (Tong, 2003)

Theorists who believe that postmodernism came out after WWII have not reached a universal agreement either. American New Marxist scholar Fredric Jameson (1983) believes that postmodernism arose in the 1950s as the offspring of Transitional Capitalism, Late Capitalism and Consumer Society. American sociologist Daniel Bell (1976) holds that postmodernism prevailed in the 1960s as the result of modernism being pushed to an extreme by capitalist cultural conflicts. Still another chief postmodernist is French philosopher Jean-Francois Lyotard. His attitude (Lyotard, 2002) towards the origin of postmodernism is that it emerged in the 1960s as the result of information age as well as the reflection to the crisis of legalizing capitalism. So it easily comes to a conclusion that theorists who support that postmodernism firstly appeared after WWII generally associate the genesis of postmodernism with the development of capitalism and the crisis and conflicts in society after the Second World War, focusing on the research of the relationship among them.

Among those who advocate the Genesis of Postmodernism is both before and after WWII, Dutch scholar Hans Bertens is of chief importance. In his article "The Postmodern Weltanschauung and its Relation with Modernism: An Introductory Survey" included in *Approaching Postmodernism* (Bertens, 1986), he expounded the evolvement of postmodernism and defined it as the following four stages. The first period ranged from 1934 to 1964, during which postmodernism started to appear in literary works of many well-known writers such as Onis, Dudley Fitts etc. In the second phase of the middle 1960s, postmodernism interacted with the American anti-culture movement and postmodernists including Fiedler, Sontag and Wasson etc. made up their mind to break thoroughly with modern writers. During the third stage from 1972 to 1976, postmodernism developed into an international movement in which the

European Existentialism had exerted its huge effect. At its last stage of development from the late 1970s to the 1980s, postmodernism was much more compatible because it adopted the various cultural phenomena that had not been accepted by modernism. (Tong, 2003)

Of the three theories of the origin of postmodernism, a comprehensive view is adopted in this thesis. Although scholars disagree as to who originally coined the term, there is a general consensus that postmodernism likely first appeared sometime in the 1930s referring to a major historical transition already under way and as the designation for certain developments in the arts. But postmodernism did not gain widespread attention until the 1970s, during which the postmodern challenge to modernism infiltrated into mainstream culture. At the beginning it denoted a new style of architecture, and then it invaded academic circles, originally as a label for theories expounded in college English and philosophy departments. Eventually it surfaced as the description for a much broader cultural phenomenon including literature, art and architecture, and other forms of thinking and expression. No matter what else it might possibly be, as the name suggests, postmodernism signifies the quest to move beyond modernism. Specifically, it involves a rejection of the modern mind-set, but launches under the conditions of modernism. Hence, to understand postmodern thinking, we have to view it in the context of the modern world that gave birth to it and against which it is reacting. (Grenz, 1996)

Modernism, as defined in *The Bedford Glossary of Critical and Literary Terms*, is a revolutionary movement including all of the creative arts that rooted in the 1890s, and a transitional period during which artists and writers sought to liberate themselves from the constraints and polite conventions associated with Victorianism. (Murfin, 2003) Modernists endeavor to break away from traditions and conventions through experimentation with new forms, devices, and styles, and modern works reflect the pervasive sense of loss, disillusionment, and even despair in the wake of the First World War.

With the affix "post-", postmodernism suggests a time after modernism, or the future of modernism, so postmodernism follows modernism as both a succession and an anti of it.

On the one hand, modernism creates the conditions from which postmodernism grows, and postmodernism arises partly as a continuation of some modern ideas such as challenging cultural forms and pushing back the limits of how people represent the world. Take literature as an example, postmodern literature preserves some writing techniques, the spirit and even some of the themes of modern literature such as the alienation of humanity, historical discontinuity and so on. In this aspect, modernism and postmodernism interwind with each other and there is no strict boundary that distinguishes them.

On the other hand however, postmodernism resists the modernist doctrine of the supremacy of reason, the notion of truth, and the belief in the perfectibility of man. Although scholars disagree among themselves as to what explicitly postmodernism involves, they have reached a consensus on one point: this phenomenon marks the end of a single, universal worldview. Postmodernism abandons the quest for a unified grasp of objective reality, and it asserts that the world has no center, only differing viewpoints and perspectives. The postmodern ethos resists unified and universally valid explanations advocated by modernism. It replaces them with a respect for difference and a celebration of the local and particular at the expense of the universal. Postmodernism also entails a rejection of the emphasis on rational discovery through the scientific method, which has provided the intellectual foundation for the modern attempt to construct a better world. As its foundation, then, the postmodern outlook is anti-modern.

II. INDETERMINACY IN POSTMODERN FICTION

E. M. Foster talked about all sorts of aspects of fiction in his *The Art of Fiction* in 1927, but his days are far earlier than the time in which postmodern fiction exploded onto the international scene. As it is no easy job to define fiction, it is even harder to define postmodern fiction. The modifier "postmodern" is complicating rather than simplifying the definition of postmodern fiction. If it serves as a time determiner, postmodern fiction becomes fiction in postmodern age, which involves all the fiction after the 1970s. It is obviously imprecise because on the one hand, some novels with postmodern features were not produced during that period, such as Miguel de Cervantes's *Don Quixote* written in the 17[th]C and Laurence Sterne's *Tristram Shandy* produced in the 19[th]C, while on the other hand, novels composed after the 1970s are not necessarily all postmodern. Realistic, romantic or other genre of fiction also came out during the period from the 1960s to the 1970s in which postmodern fiction was flourishing. Therefore, postmodern fiction here does not refer to novels composed after the 1970s but those with postmodern literary features.

A. Origin and Development of Postmodern Fiction

Although postmodern fiction might be traced back as early as to the 17[th]C or even earlier, most western critics believe that it became an influential literary trend in around the 1950s and the 1960s in Britain and the U.S., and after reached its peak in the 1970s and the 1980s it faded in the 1990s. Postmodern fiction was born and developed under certain historical and cultural background. A comparatively general understanding is that it is the direct result of the western turbulent social life after the Second World War. People were so shocked by the fascists' appalling ferocity during WWII that they started to doubt the social moral standard and values they had been holding all along. After the war, as the intrinsic problems in capitalistic society became more conflicting, people were more and more confused with the increase of social upheavals and they lost faith and loyalty, and became indifferent to others.

Such disorder of society cannot be separated from the rapid development of science and technology, which turns the society into an accurate machine on which each person serves as a trivial part. Mass media and convenient transportation broaden the public knowledge and people start to realize that the existence of knowledge and objects depend on themselves and the relation between them, rather than certain eternal nature. Meanwhile, the development of high-tech brings about mechanical and digital copies in large scale, hence reality and original texts disappear and everything can be fake and imitation. Modern societies are constructed on the basis that signifiers always point to signifieds in which reality resides, while in postmodernism, however, there are only signifiers. The idea of any stable or permanent reality disappears, and gone with it the idea of signifieds that signifiers point to. In literary field, "The fiction of the creating subject gives way to the frank confiscation, quotation, accumulation and repetition of already existing images. Works such as these which bring together heterogeneous images and technologies not only undermine many modernist assumptions but also raise questions about originality and authenticity." (Sarup, 1993, p.173) Intertexuality and hypertexts take the place of manuscript and originality and the world becomes an unknowable indeterminacy.

Compared with modern fiction, postmodern fiction challenges and disintegrates the form of fiction itself, rather than innovate it. Modern fiction emphasizes skills, structure and language, while postmodern works blur literary genres and break conventional narration. In contrast to the absurd meanings in modern fiction, postmodern fiction is meaningless with language games. Unlike the modern writing skills such as interior monologue and stream-of-consciousness, postmodern skills include irony, pastiche and collage etc.

B. Indeterminacy as a Significant Feature of Postmodern Fiction

Postmodern fiction cannot be easily confined to a concrete definition; however, most postmodern works share some common features, such as plurality, centerlessness, language experiment and language game etc. These features generally fall into the principal character of indeterminacy. British postmodernist David Lodge (1986) believes that postmodernism exceeds and sublates modernism with its negative sense, and that postmodernism attacks the pursuit of determinacy of rationalism, holding indeterminacy as its intrinsic feature. Postmodern novelists think that there is no apriority or objectivity in meaning since everything is uncertain, centerless and incoherent. Indeterminacy as the essence of postmodernism is not only a mode to appreciate the essence of postmodern life, but also a writing technique.

As one of the literary critics who first apply the concept of "postmodern", Ihab Hassan coined the term "indeterminacy" in his *The Postmodern Turn: Essays in Postmodern, Theory and Culture* in 1987 referring to a complex category that is composed of various different concepts. It includes the concepts of ambiguity, discontinuity, heterodoxy, pluralism, randomness, revolt, perversion and deformation etc., all of which represent the postmodernists' universal will to abandon everything. (Tong, 2003) Widely used in areas of postmodern architecture, painting, literature, music, and politics, the physical and biological sciences and so on, the term affects the western political system, the public cognitive system and mentality. As to indeterminacy in postmodern literature, concepts of authors, readers, reading, literary schools, critical theories, and even the concept of literature itself are challenged when Roland Barthes announced the "Death of the Author" and Geoffrey Harman asserted that the purpose of contemporary criticism lies in the hermeneutics of indeterminacy. (Hassan, 1987) Indeterminacy in postmodern fiction is reflected in the following aspects.

1. Indeterminacy in the Theme

Realist writers emphasize the themes of their works, while modernists oppose to themes of realist works rather than theme itself. As to postmodern novelists, they abandon themes in their literary creation, because there is no meaning, center, or essence in postmodern works. Everything in postmodern fiction is on the same level so that no theme or subheading or even a topic is needed, and writers' attention is paid to the randomness, extemporization and collage during the creative process of postmodern production.

After Nietze announced God's death in the late 1880s, French theorist Roland Barthes followed suit and published his article "The Death of the Author" in 1981, which placed great emphasis on importance of readers' participation and cooperation in novel creation. Previous literary creation stresses the author's dominance in the production so a novel is completed as soon as it is composed by its writer and readers will have to passively accept it. As postmodern fictionists believe, the work created by a writer is half done, and the other half is to be finished through reading and imagination of the readers. Therefore, closed texts are opened by postmodern novelists and the previously advocated explicit works are indeterminate with postmodernism. Themes designed by authors thus "die" with them, and the meaning of fiction depends on the understanding of each reader.

2. Indeterminacy in the Character

Since postmodernists believe in the death of subject and author, characters in literary works naturally die with them; therefore in postmodern literary works characters are vague figures or even images. For example, in the novelle "Sindbad" in *Forty Stories* (1987) by the American postmodern novelist Donald Barthelme, there are two protagonists: one is the skillful sailor Sindbad and the other is "I", a teacher in the 1980s America. Poor and dowdily dressed, "I" am looked down upon by my students, so when "I" enthusiastically encourage them to "Be like Sindbad! Venture forth…" (p.24), the students simply respond that there is nothing outside. When "I" retort that there is waltz, sword and dazzling floating seaweed, the waltz here refers to the previously mentioned melody that guides Sindbad to the forest after his eighth navigation wrecking. Here it is hard for readers to figure out whether it is teacher "I" or sailor Sindbad that is speaking. How many characters are there in this short story, one or two? What is the relationship between Sindbad and

"I"? Maybe they are friends who know each other, or maybe Sindbad retires to be a teacher and they two are the same person. The specious images dispel any attempt at making out determinate meanings; hence readers are free to use their own intelligence and to appreciate the postmodern indeterminacy.

Characters depicted by postmodernists are usually images or symbols that lack ontic determinacy despite their human characteristics. In their works, postmodern authors either profess or imply that characters are artificiality constructed by letters; therefore they are being-there instead of being-in-the-world. (Hu, 2000) Characters in postmodern novels do not actually exist, but appear as ideas, so they are unknowable to readers. In contrast to characters in realistic novels that can stay vividly in readers' mind, postmodern characters are vague and indeterminate. In another typical postmodern fiction *V* (1963) by Thomas Pynchon, the disordered narration fragments confuse readers in terms of what on earth the letter "V" stands for. The "V" being searched for by Stencil is indeterminate of its identity, and its entity is even vague to the author himself as he states in the fiction that "There is more behind and inside V than any of us had suspected. Not who, but what: what is she" (p.53). It seems that "V" refers to a female, but is she a real figure in the protagonist's life or is she simply his fantasy? The answer cannot be traced in this postmodern novel, and readers have to depend on their own intelligence and endow the characters with some real meanings.

3. Indeterminacy in the Plot

Postmodern fictionists oppose to logic, coherence, and closeness in plot arrangement and they believe that close structure that has coherent meaning, characters' logical movements and integrated plot is merely writers' own wishful thinking, instead of something based on real life. So such a close structure should be broken and replaced by an open framework, and postmodern writers abandon logic and coherence during the process of novel creation only to permute historical time, present time and future time. With past, present and future randomly reversed and space constantly divided and severed, there arise various infinite possibilities in plot of postmodern literary works.

Donald Barthelme's short story "The Explanation" in *Forty Sotries* (1987) is structured with an open plot and the skill of juxtaposing multi-closures. At the beginning, four hollow panes introduce a series of questions and answers that develop into closures of all sorts. Bounds of time or space are thoroughly broken since there is no evidence in the fiction that hint the time when or place where the dialogues take place. The conversations between the unknown speakers are themeless and the topics involving various aspects of postmodern life range from literature to arts, love, trees, books, narrative strategies or to travel, football matches etc. Traditional story mode of outset, complex, climax and denouement is abandoned in this novel and its plot is arranged randomly as a postmodern uncertainty.

4. Indeterminacy in the Language

Austrian philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein is a significant figure who contributes to the reconstruction of the nature of language. He believes (Wittgenstein, 1961, p.39) that language "pictures" the world, and he asserts that "each use of language occurs within a separate and apparently self-contained system complete with its own rules". In this sense, the use of language is similar to playing a game and each use of language constitutes a separate "language game" (Grenz, 1996, p.113). Holding the notion of language as a game, postmodernists aim at dispelling reality and creating a new world with the sole tool of language. They do not take up the responsibility of reflecting a real world; instead, they regard novel creation itself as reality and construct a disordered world with words. In the postmodern classic *V* mentioned previously, the language game reaches its peak through the use of the mysterious letter "V". It may stand for the female character Victoria, or any of the other characters in the fiction whose names start with the letter "V". It may also refer to the series of "V"-started appellations including a country, a street, an article and so on. Pynchon is playing language game with readers, so the world of "V", as well as the language in this fiction, becomes indeterminate.

To adopt the concept of "language game" is to take an important step toward rejecting the idea of objective reality. In his later works, Wittgenstein explicitly abandons the concept of truth as correspondence with reality or a picturing of reality, characterizing it instead as an internal function of language. No proposition can be limited to a single meaning, he believes, because its meaning is necessarily dependent on its context, and the language game in which it is involved. Thus, every sentence has as many meanings as the number of contexts in which it is applied. Taken to its logical conclusion, as Grenz (1996) put it, this position implies that one can never claim to be stating the final truth or truth in any ultimate sense; at most, he can produce utterances that are true within the context in which they are spoken.

Postmodern novels indicate a thorough reconstruction and innovation of arts' mode, as well as a tremendous chaos and anarchy of novel creation. Although it is not the sole trend of the late 20thC western literary world, or even not the mainstream, its effect on the development of the world literature, as well as its contribution to the innovation of literary notions is significant.

III. CONCLUSION

Involving all the acts that may exert influence on knowledge and ambiguities, ruptures and displacements of society, indeterminacy has always been a typical and significant feature of postmodern writing. It brings each and every existence into skepticism that permeates through our actions and thinking only to construct the world we are living in. Overthrowing authorial authoritative legacy, indeterminacy in postmodern literature advocates a revolt to traditional writing styles, such as a definite theme or meaning, integrated plot of a story and so on.

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Ideological or International Move? A Critical Discourse Analysis toward the Representation of Iran Sanctions in Western Printed Media

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Abstract—The media are not neutral, common-sense[d], or rational mediator of social events, but essentially help reproduce preformulated ideologies (van Dijk, 1988, p.11). Adopting the Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) approach, the present study focused on the headlines and lead paragraphs of a corpus of twenty news reports released by ten well-established western newspapers and examined the coverage of Iran sanction imposition by western printed media. Working within the ideological framework of news production and reception (van Dijk, 1988, p. 248), this study further explored the western press coverage of Iran sanctions to demonstrate how the arguments made by western newspapers via heads and leads were encoded in ideologically biased discursive patterns (e.g. lexical and grammatical choices, intertextual choices and ideological *us* versus *them* binary opposition) in an attempt to justify and legitimize the so-called "international move" against Iran (van Dijk, 1988, p. 248, as cited in Sheyholislami, 2001, pp. 3-4). Interestingly, the findings suggested that there were strong ideological proclivity and orientation in the western newspapers' reports of the event.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, media bias, language, ideology, Iran sanctions, western printed media

I. INTRODUCTION

It is very common, nowadays, to hear people say "Nulla nuova, buona nuova," the old Italian adage meaning "no news is good news," which seems to be true in the ambience of too much news of disturbing nature pouring in from all directions all the time nolens volens. The news, however, is a must for everyone to lead an active life and nothing but the news can help us to keep in touch with the milieu which we live in. The main conveyor of the news, though old-fashion, is still newspapers that are incomparably superior to any other forms of the media (Heek, 2004, para. 1, 2). However, the news and information we pick up through the media, including newspapers, might not reflect the sound realities. They might be politically or ideologically biased and manipulated (Bielsa & Bassnett, 2009, p. 33; Lee, 2010, pp. 8-9). According to van Dijk (1988), media massage is not transparent but rather is intricately ideological. "The media", as he further argues, "are not a neutral, common-sense[d], or rational mediator of social events, but essentially help reproduce preformulated ideologies" (van Dijk, 1988, p. 11). To this end, the media symbolically employ *language* to represent and maintain social power and exercise the ideologies (Popp, 2006, pp. 5-17).

Language, for Fairclough (1992), is by no means a neutral object (Moreno, 2008, p. 34). It is overly simplistic to view language as nothing but a tool for communication; on the contrary, it is a potentially manipulative instrument which reflects ideologies through lexical, syntactic and discoursal choices (Munday, 2009, p. 197). The dominant groups in society (i.e. those in power), fully aware of the potential of the persuasive media and its powerful medium – the language, subtly imprint their views on widespread discursive practices by having privileged access to and control over public discourse via the media and its language. In turn, discourse contributes to supporting and legitimizing those views as part of a consensus which is unwittingly accepted and taken as 'natural' by the majority in society; and this may cause social problems – inequality and injustice in societies, to be more precise. Thus, there is an urgent need for studies on media language and discourse within an appropriate paradigm to address these social problems. The paradigm in question, according to Bloor and Bloor (2007), is Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) (p. 12).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

CDA, as Brown (2005) puts it, is founded on the assumption that texts and talks play a key role in maintaining and legitimating inequality, injustice, and oppression in societies (p. 290). Van Dijk (1993) offers further explanation as he argues that CDA is a field which is basically concerned with and explores the way in which powerful social agents influence social beliefs and values, and shape ideologies, through the standards they set for what is and is not acceptable, therefore revealing the power asymmetry in discourse (Bhatia, 2006, p. 178). Coffin et al. (2010), using the work of Fairclough and Wodak (1997) summaries the general principles of CDA as follow:
1) CDA addresses social problem
2) Power relations are discursive
3) Discourse constitute society and culture
4) Discourse does ideological work
5) Discourse is historical
6) The link between text and society is mediated
7) Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory
8) Discourse is a form of social action (pp. 98-109).

In sum, CDA, seeking to achieve these principles and objectives, investigates and attempts to illustrate 'a relationship between text and social conditions, ideologies and power-relations'. From this, four central and main themes of CDA can be identified: the constituted and (re)creative character of discourse; power and social relations in discourse; ideology; and hegemony (Richardson, 2007, pp. 26, 27). The concepts of *ideology*, *hegemony*, *power* and *discourse* will be discussed in further details in the following sections.

B. Ideology, Hegemony, Power and Discourse

There is no universally agreed-upon definition for ideology (Cassels, 1996, p. 1), nor do any exist for power, discourse and hegemony (Gallie, 1955, as cited in Richardson, 2007, pp. 29, 30). *Ideology*, however, is defined by most scholars as "ideas and beliefs which help to legitimate the interest of a ruling group or class by distortion or dissimulation" (Eagleton, 1991, p. 30, as cited in Calzada Perez, 2003, p. 4). In Richardson (2007) rather neat turn of phrase, "*hegemony* is the process initiated by ruling class to persuade and convince all other classes to accept and submit to the authority and subordination of the ruling class" (p. 35). *Power*, in crude terms, refers to asymmetrical relationships in which some participants are more powerful than others to shape what occurs or how it is interpreted. Said another way, power is a special privilege one subgroup or one person "has" and others don't: power stems from social status (Johnstone, 2008, pp. 129, 130). The term *discourse*, another incredibly slippery concept, is simply defined here as "language in use" since this definition is not only precise enough and further suffices to grant *language* a central role in discourse, but still flexible enough to be able to denote all other definitions that exist for this elusive term (Richardson, 2007, pp. 237, 238).

C. Directions in CDA

Many theorists, belonging to different schools have prominently figured in attending to CDA from different scholarly angles (Wodack, 2006, pp. 2, 4). CDA, however, is most often associated with researchers such as Norman Fairclough, Teun A. van Dijk and Ruth Wodak (Wooffitt, 2005, p. 137). Their proposed models for CDA are the points we briefly return in the following paragraphs due to the substantial contributions they have made to overall development of the field.

Fairclough's (1992, 1995) framework for discourse analysis has three levels: the text, the discursive practice, and the socio-cultural practice. The first level is text analysis which involves the study of the language structures produced in a discursive event. The second is analysis of discourse practice, through which texts are produced, consumed and reproduced. The third level is the analysis of social practices, focusing in particular on the relation of discourse to power and ideology (Rogers et al., 2005, p. 371). He is, in a nutshell, advocating a detailed analysis of the form and function of the text, the way that this text relates to the way it is produced and consumed, and the relation of this to the wider society in which it takes place; and these, according to him, are a must if a full understanding of the nature of discourse and the way it operates is really desired (Richardson, 2007, p. 37).

Van Dijk's (1988a, 1988b, 1991) socio-cognitive framework for discourse analysis, like Fairclough's, has three levels, which illustrates how societal structures can be related to discourse structures only through social actors and their minds: mental models mediate between ideology and discourse. Therefore, three main components are identified in his approach: discourse, cognition, and society where cognition mediates between discourse and society. By discourse he simply means the discourse structures that are manifested in different forms, such as written text, speech, gestures, facial expressions, etc. Cognition here refers to personal/social beliefs, understanding, and evaluation engaged in discourse, whereas society concerns local interlocutor relationships or global societal structures such as political systems and group/subgroup relations. Although van Dijk's model bears a close resemblance to Fairclough's, there is still a clear distinction between them regarding the second level: while the second dimension in Fairclough's model namely, discourse practice, mediates between the other two, it is the social cognition and mental model mediating between discourse and social in van Dijk's approach. Van Dijk's proposed model for CDA also analyzes both microstructure level (e.g. vocabulary and syntax) and macrostructure level which is represented in news headlines and lead paragraphs (Kuo & Nakamura, 2005, p. 398; Wang, 2009, p. 748; Sheyholislami, 2001, p. 7).

Ruth Wodak's model of CDA, namely discourse-historical approach (DHA), is an interdisciplinary, multimethodical and multitheoretical approach which attempts to incorporate the historical perspective with CDA since "social processes are dynamic, not static" and this "has to be reflected in the theory and in the methodology" (Wodak & Meyer, 2001, pp. 63-64; Isbuga-Erel, 2008, p. 65). The term historical holds a key position in her framework where there is an attempt to take into account all available background information in the analysis and interpretation of the many layers of a written or spoken text. In other words, DHA highlights the discourse is historical, closely connected with events which have happened or are happening. What really distinguishes this approach from previous attempts in CDA – van Dijk's model, in particular – is its focus on the historical contexts of discourse in the process of explanation and interpretation (Sheyholislami, 2001, p. 5; Bhatia, 2006, p. 178).

D. Linguistic Toolkit for CDA

A core group of linguistic features ought to be examined in the search of the ideological underpinnings of discourse (Hakam, 2009, p. 37). The features most relevant to the present study are as follows:

1. Lexical Choice

Lexicalization, or word choice, as van Dijk (1995) points out, is 'the major dimension of [ideologically controlled] discourse meaning' (Johnson et al., 2010, p. 248). There is a widely held view that the choice of words in news reports is by no means arbitrary, nor it is journalist's own creation; but is systematically determined by societies (Pan, 2002, pp. 51-52). For Richardson (2007), all types of words, but particularly nouns, adjective, verbs and adverbs carry connoted in addition to denoted meanings. Thus, the analysis of particular words used in a newspaper text is almost always the first stage of any text or discourse analysis (p. 47).

2. Metonymy

Metonymy is a figure of speech in which the name of an attribute of an entity is used in the place of the entity itself (Crystal, 1980, p. 291). What make metonymia, amongst other linguistic devices, an important feature of language use for discourse analysis, are the ways that they are employed and not their presence. Metonyms may 'enable the speakers [or writers] to conjure away responsible, involved or affected actors (whether victims or perpetrators), or to keep them in the semantic background' (Richardson, 2007, p. 68).

3. Presupposition

Van Dijk (1995) defines presupposition in this way: proposition *q* is presupposed by *p*, if it is implied by *p* as well as by *non-p* (original emphasis) (p. 273). It is a frequently referred linguistic/pragmatic property of language use which might be systematically employed to serve ideological and/or political purposes in news discourse (Bekalu, 2006, pp. 151, 169).

4. Modality

Modality refers to judgments, comment and attitude in text and talk and is indicated through the use of modal verbs (such as may, could, should, will and must), their negations (may not, couldn't, shouldn't, will not, and must not) or through adverbs [such as probably, possibly, certainly and so on] (Richardson, 2007, p. 241). As it functions 'to express group membership', the use of modality is crucial to signaling the alignment or 'affiliation' of the writer (Stubbs, 1996, p. 202, as cited in Hakam, 2009, p. 37).

5. Metaphor

Metaphor, broadly speaking, is a literary device or special 'way of saying' in literature (Lotfipour-Saedi, 2008, p. 96). Metaphors, as Lakoff (2003) argues, can be instrumentally applied to exercise ideologies and ideological concepts (Billig & MacMillan, 2005, pp. 459-478).

6. Transitivity

Transitivity, as Richardson (2007) puts it, illustrates the relationships between participants in communicative events and the roles they play in the processes described in the reporting (p. 54). Subjects of interest include, for example, the application of passive forms ("twelve rioters were shot") and nominalizations ("a shooting"), the use of which enables a speaker/writer to obscure, downplay, or omit mention of agency—whoever did the shooting (Fitch & Sanders, 2005, p. 258). As suggested by Simpson (1993), transitivity is employed to offer some explanation of how some meanings are foregrounded, whereas others are obfuscated or suppressed. Thus, it is a crucial aspect of the relationship between language and ideology (Simpson, 1993, p. 104, as cited in Marco, 2004, p. 77).

7. Collocation

A careful examination of co-occurring words in a large body of texts (a corpus) and observing the way they are applied, according to Bloor and Bloor (2007), can prove fruitful to reveal the sort of meaning and message people associate with a particular word (p. 130).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Corpus

The data of this study is based on the coverage of Iran sanctions imposition by UN and western countries, culled from the websites of 10 western English language newspapers – 10 British papers and 10 American papers, 20 copies in total (i.e. 2 copies from each website). The selected newspapers were the Daily Mail (DML), the Guardian (GU), the

Daily Telegraph (DT), the Daily Mirror (DMR) and the Independent (IN) from UK; and The New York Times (NYT), the USA Today (UT), the Wall Street Journal (WSJ), The Washington Post (WP) and the Los Angeles Times (LAT) from USA. The aggregated data included news texts dating from 8 June through 8 October 2010, and 1 January through 3 July 2012, when the contentious issue of the new rounds of Iran sanctions still hit the headlines and the sanctions, both unilaterally and internationally, were imposed on the country. The selection of newspapers was limited by certain parameters. Firstly, they are among the most well-established, influential and highly circulated newspapers which are read and viewed not only nationally but internationally. Secondly, they look at the international affairs from the western perspective and angle. And finally, they are all available online providing a worldwide population with easy access to the latest news and information. It should also be noted that the researchers conducted the electronic search only for those news articles whose headlines included the phrase or term 'Iran Sanctions,' 'Sanctions' or 'Embargo'.

B. Procedure

   The researchers hypothesized that the western newspapers misrepresented Iran and Iran affairs via their headlines and leads paragraphs – how these newspapers articulated ideological positions via language in the headlines and leads of their reports of Iran sanctions imposition, in an attempt to justify and legitimize the so-called international and unilateral sanctions against Iran which were, in effect, imposed by the west. Recurrent stereotyping and negative reporting in their reportage of the event leading to sanctions imposition are due to not only the various types of linguistic choices, but also construction of their news stories.

   To meet the objectives of the study, and following the argument put forward by van Dijk (Sheyholislami, 2001, p. 4), the headlines and leads paragraphs of all news texts were isolated and carefully examined in terms of both linguistic devices (i.e. lexical choices, transitivity, modality, metaphor, metonymy and presupposition) and metalinguistic features (i.e. ideological square and intertextuality). The choice of the headlines and leads for a close examination of ideological constructions is motivated by general importance of the opening parts of the news articles – a subject broached by van Dijk (1988) and Thetela (2001) (Sheyholislami, 2001, p. 4; Thetela, 2001, p. 351). Finally, the present study focused on verbal features of the news stories and the way they were structured in the papers; and consequently non-verbal properties – graphical organization and graphic format of the pages, pages layout and photographs – were not considered in the analysis.

C. Analytical Method

   Van Dijk (1998), Weiss and Wodack (2003) argue that an integrated approach to analyze text and talk is crucial if a satisfactory form of multidisciplinary and methodological CDA is really desired (van Dijk, 1998, p. 363; Hart & Lukes, 2007, p. ix). This attitude lends support to the view that a single method and approach may not produce the desirable results in doing CDA. Bearing in mind this argument, therefore, the approach to CDA we felt most satisfied with was an eclectic method of analysis – van Dijk's notion of "*ideological square*" and Fairclough's concept of "*intertextuality*" – which together with linguistic features were well suited to meet the goals and objectives of the present study.

   Van Dijk (1998) contributes a useful theoretical concept he calls the 'ideological square', which encapsulates the twin strategies of positive 'ingroup' description and negative 'outgroup' description (Hakam, 2009, p. 37). Ideological Square, for van Dijk, equips the language users with a conceptual tool to determine choices between referential strategies. Dichotomous character of this conceptual tool helps to place the *Selves* in a positive light and simultaneously to put the *Others* in a negative light; it is a way of perceiving and representing the world – and specifically ' 'their' and 'our' actions, position and role within the world. To be more precise, 'their' bad qualities and social behaviors are emphasized – or foregrounded in technical term – and 'their' good qualities and social behaviors are de-emphasized – or backgrounded. Conversely, 'our' good qualities and social behaviors are foregrounded and 'our' bad qualities and social behaviors are backgrounded. The ideological square can be traced across all linguistic dimensions of a text. Starting with referential strategies, positive terms are used to refer to 'Us' and 'Our country' and negative words being used to refer to 'Them', 'Their country', Their values', etc. (Richardson, 2007, p. 51).

   Intertextuality, as Jorgensen (2002) points out, is the foundation for Fairclough's model of CDA without which a text can never be understood or analyzed (Jorgensen, 2002, p. 70, as cited in Richardson, 2007, p. 100). For Fairclough, intertextual analysis is a way of building bridge between text and discourse practice that makes it possible to follow and discover the traces of the discourse practice in the text (Sheyholislami, 2001, p. 8). Two different types of intertextuality are generally identified by Fairclough: 'manifest intertextuality' and 'constitutive intertextuality' (Li, 2009, pp. 92, 95). While the former refers to how quoted utterances are selected, changed, and contextualized, the latter is concerned with how texts are made up of heterogeneous elements: generic conventions, discourse types, register, and style. In news discourse, quotations and reports of news actors' speech, both direct and indirect, are an important aspect of referring to news actors and constitute what Fairclough calls 'manifest intertextuality' of text. The quotations, as Teo (2000) puts it, are neither transparent nor simple citations, rather involve (re)interpretations of events and power relations between news participants. Van Dijk (1989) further argues that in the process of their selections, quotations, and changes of the speech of various news actors, news texts redefine the power structure and create meanings about the world that news actors inhabit. Therefore, the study of the representation of social actors through quotation patterns can also reveal the ways certain actors and groups are systematically empowered as oppose to simultaneously silencing of others. This, in turn, sheds further light on a newspaper's perspectives on the relations social actors have with the world and with other

actors, and the ways in which news events and actors are interpreted and represented by the newspaper (Li, 2009, pp. 94, 95).

<div align="center">IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION</div>

Headlines ant Lead paragraphs

In the analyzed headlines and lead sentences of the data, we found that the newspapers employed different linguistic features (e.g. lexical choices, transitivity, modality, metaphor, metonymy, collocation and presupposition) to project a negative image of Iran as an unfavorable element in international community, in an attempt to justify and legitimize the imposition of Iran sanctions. Van Dijk's proposed framework namely, "Ideological Square," and Fairclough's concept of "Intertextuality" were also of invaluable help in unraveling the western newspapers ideological stance and the ways they choose to achieve their political objectives. Before moving on, one final point that needs to be made is that there was an attempt to include, where possible, those samples which could cover the occurrence of different linguistic devises in headlines or leads simultaneously; to avoid any instances of circumlocution. Here are some examples:

Lexical choice, Metonymy and Presupposition:

Headline → (Daily Mail, 9 June 2010)
UN hits defiant Iran with new sanctions as Tehran refuses to drop nuclear programme

The headline informs the reader of hitting somebody with something. People usually do *hit* the enemies or foreign aggressors when they invade their country; or *hit* their children *with* something as a kind of severe punishment when the children do something terribly wrong. Through the clever and metaphorical application of the phrasal verb '*hit* somebody *with* something' (usually associated with genres of war and family), Iran is represented as an enemy and foreign aggressor, or as a disobedient child in international community and family that deserves to be severely punished (Oxford, 1948, p. 615; Longman, 2006, p. 726). The word *defiant* helps to reinforce the negative image of Iran as a belligerent country and as a real threat that should be immediately dealt with. Another key word which plays a pivotal role to justify and legitimize the imposition of the sanctions is the verb *refuse*. Any reader familiar with the latest political news and events of Iran is well aware of the fact that the country has long been alleged to have a covert military nuclear program capable of developing atomic bombs. When a country like Iran with a suspicious nuclear program *refuses* to comply with the international community's demands to stop its nuclear program, this *refusal* could only mean the country is really ill-indented to build a nuclear bomb. In this case, Iran is represented as belligerent country which endangers the international security and peace; and consequently, anybody would be reasonably convinced that a common-sense approach is really needed to stop such a dangerous state: the imposition of the sanctions (or even if needed, a military strike).

Lead Paragraph → (Los Angeles Time, 21 June 2010)
House and Senate negotiators reached agreement Monday on legislation that would impose additional U.S. sanctions against Iran in hopes the economic pressure persuades Tehran to curb its nuclear ambitions.

The main argument for additional sanctions imposition against Iran, according to the lead, is to put "economic pressure to persuade Tehran to curb its nuclear ambitions." The lead attempts to justify the imposition of the sanctions through the clever application of the words and phrases *negotiators*, *agreement*, *legislation*, *curb* (to control or limit something, especially something bad) and *nuclear ambitions* (Oxford, 1948, p. 307). The words *negotiators*, *agreement* and *legislation* suggest that House and Senate members are rational people whose decisions are based on reason and law rather than emotion and arbitrariness (the lawfulness of the sanctions is explicitly stated in eighth paragraph to reassure the reader of legitimacy of the congress's move); that is to say any decisions they come to are reasonable, appropriate, legitimate and justifiable. On the other hand Iran, according to the lead, has a lofty and burning *ambition* to deliver *nuclear* weapons. Therefore, the decision made by House and Senate negotiators to control such a bad country – to *curb* it – through additional precautionary and punitive measures is absolutely rational, appropriate and easy to justify.

The metonymic use of *Tehran* as the political, economic capital of Iran in both headline and lead may suggest that the sanctions are directed against Iranian government rather than Iranian people, to preserve or improve the positive image of UN among readers, particularly Iranian readers reading English papers.

The defiance of Iran is presupposed and taken for granted through the application of the adjective *defiant* in the headline. The modifiers *new* in the headline and *additional* in the lead also presuppose the fact that there were previously old sanctions that apparently didn't work or were not enough – which may give the impression that a fresh and stricter set of sanctions is needed if a workable solution to Iran crisis is really desired. Iran's *nuclear ambitions* is further presupposed and taken for granted in the lead through the application of the possessive adjective *'its'*.

Modality and Metaphor:

Headline → (The New York Times, 30 June 2012)
U.S. Bets New Oil Sanctions Will Change Iran's Tune

From modality perspective and through the employment of the modal verb *will* – a model verb with the highest degree of certainty – the certainty of the upcoming phenomenon (i.e. the change in Iran's tune) is taken for granted in the head (Azar, 1999, p. 184). This, in turn, may help to persuade the readers to think of the sanctions as the appropriate and justifiable measures. The skillful use of the verb *bet* in metaphorical sense (i.e. to be almost certain that something is true or that something will happen) further helps to reinforce the sense of certainty among the readers about the claim; that is, new oil sanctions will definitely cause some changes in Iran's behaviors (Oxford, 1948, p. 133).

Lead Paragraph → (USA Today, 8 June 2010)
The United Nations Security Council has approved new sanctions against Iran over its suspect nuclear program that target the country's powerful Revolutionary Guard, ballistic missiles, and nuclear-related investments.

Through metaphorical use of the word *target* in the lead (a word ubiquitously employed in war reporting), Iran's powerful Revolutionary Guard – a blacklisted militant and terrorist group – is considered as enemy that should be attacked and shot by sanctions as bullets (Longman, 1992, p. 1421; Cooper & Fathi, 2007, para. 1).

Transitivity:

Headline → (The Washington Post, 29 September 2010)
Obama orders sanctions on Iranian officials for human rights abuses

Obama, *sanctions* and *Iranian officials* are the senser, phenomenon and indirect object of the mental process *order*, respectively. From transitivity perspective and through the skillful use of active structure, the positive role of Obama as an active, powerful and legitimate authority to sit in judgment on the case, capable of giving orders and punishing lawbreakers, and the negative role of Iran as a passive patient and violator of human rights that really deserves to be legally punished are foregrounded in the headline.

Collocation and Ideological Square:

Headline → (Los Angeles Times, 2 July 2012)
Iran plans war games as EU oil embargo begins

The co-occurrence of *war games* with *Iran* in the head seems to be ideologically motivated. It is fairly clear that *Iran* is collectively used with *plan* and *war game* to project a negative image of Iran as a war-loving country who only seeks for aggression and is getting prepared for a real conflict in the future.

The binary opposition created through the application of Ideological Square has placed EU (*in-group: we*) in a superior position, capable of punishing Iran via the imposition of oil embargo against the country; in contrast, this ideological strategy has put Iran (*Out-group: they*) in a negative inferior position. Put this way, the readers become almost convinced that the country really deserves to receive the punishments in the form of sanctions.

Intertextuality:

Headline → (Guardian, 25 January 2012)
Iran sanctions need to be tougher, Israeli defence minister warns

The headline is a reported speech of Israel's defense minister in which he asks for *tougher sanctions* to be imposed against Iran. As it is seen, the editorial board of *Guardian* has decided to regard this plea as a *warning* through the purposeful application of the verb *warn* – while other neutral choices were also possible: *said, told* or *asked for*, for instance – to report the given official's request. Put this way, Iran has been represented as real threat to international peace and security, which should be urgently dealt with. Also, from syntactic perspective, Israel's defence minister is the agent of the headline and he is the only one whose voice has been empowered through the use of intertextuality – Iran's voice, on the other hand, has been completely silenced through the avoidance of reporting Iranian officials' statements and justifications for the case. Consequently, the reader is effectively left to only hear the voices and arguments of Israelis, yet deprived of the right to hear the other party – Iranians.

V. CONCLUSION

A close look at the data in this study revealed the fact that Iran and individuals or firms associated with Iran were misrepresented in the headlines and lead paragraphs of the western newspapers via the ideologically motivated application of linguistic features (i.e. lexical and grammatical devices); and the findings further unveiled a significantly strong ideological proclivity and orientation in the analyzed data to project, explicitly or implicitly, a negative image of Iran and Iranian officials/organizations in an attempt to justify and legitimize the sanction imposition against the country. Van Dijk's notion of "ideological square" (Hakam, 2009, p. 37) – which is characterized by positive in-group description and negative out-group description – provided a more plausible and logical explanation for the finding expressed in this study. Also, Fairclough's concept of "intertextuality" shed light on newspapers perspectives and stance on the matter in hand. The analysis of intertextual properties in some newspapers headlines and lead sentences showed that particular verbal processes were systematically selected for characterizing the reported speech, in an attempt to

depict Iran or Iranian officials/organizations as *"belligerent and guilty, unwise and irrational, brutal and betrayal to their own people, powerless* **and** *mismanagers*.*"* Furthermore, it was revealed that the inclusion of Westerners' voices in the headlines and leads of news articles through intertextuality served to empower and justify what they said or did; whereas the systematic exclusion of Iran or Iranian officials' voices helped to totally silencing them or to disempowering their arguments and justifications. In this case, the reader was effectively deprived of the right to hear the voices and arguments of the other party – Iranians.

It is hoped that the multidimensional analysis of language and ideology in media discourse – printed media, in particular – in this study has brought some insights into the complex process of (re)producing discourse to represent the world. The question of why news texts are produced in the ways they are is always a complex one and seemingly will continue to be. While this study has looked at language and ideology in analyzing various meanings about the headlines and lead paragraphs of news texts, there are certainly other variables that may also shape our understandings of news texts, such as the medium of communication (e.g. TV news or internet-based news) and socio-cultural specific media practices.

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An Eye for an "I" -- An Insight into Emerson's Thought of Self-reliance

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Abstract—Ralph Waldo Emerson's *Self-reliance* is one of the major writings that helped carve the ethnic American individualism and form the intellectual basis of today's writers. The thought of self-reliance inspires people not to conform to social conventions but to rely on themselves. This theory can be considered as his perspectives about life. This thesis analyzes the active and mental self-reliance and furthermore, explores this thought through the following theories: circle and compensation. A deeper understanding of self-reliance is therefore deduced through the analysis. Besides, self-reliant individuals are so closely associated with the relationship with it.

Index Terms—self-reliance, individualism, active self-reliance, mental self-reliance

"Self-reliance", which Emerson began to use in 1830, is perhaps a term closer to the idea of individual identity that Emerson was trying to describe. In the following part of this chapter, I am going to analyze Emerson's essay Self-reliance and the thought of being self-reliance from the division of active self-reliance and mental self-reliance.

I. THE ESSAY OF SELF-RELIANCE

Emerson's master principle *Self-reliance*, which was also the main theme of the American Transcendentalist movement that he helped inspire, is now considered one of the classic formulations of American individualism. This essay provides us saying as well as builds up new concepts through which the author paves the path for the readers to follow, and furthermore, he tries to force the readers to be self-reliant in order to obtain their self-realization successfully.

In this essay, the author proposes an idea for living that defies all previous convictions. He encourages the readers to free themselves from the constraints of conformity and give themselves back to their nature. His theory is that everything in nature operates in harmony with divine Providence, and that by conforming oneself to social conventions, man cuts himself off from those conventions, which dictate all life. The text then proceeds to encourage man to get back to that state. He insists that man should step out of the routine thoughts associated with the rigidity of society, and live with the guidance of the spirit. Trust thyself: every heart vibrates to that iron string" (Emerson, 1841, p.25), this topic sentence could easily serve as Emerson's thesis statement.

He emphasizes that in order to gain one's own independence, one must first abandon all things that have been learned and seek to accumulate only the knowledge which one attains firsthand and makes it into one's own truth.

It seems that the energy he saves by not concerning himself with form is reused in his employment of analogies. This may be another reason why he is such a favored writer. He is skilled in providing everyday examples for his often obscure and abstract ideas, which have the effect of making his long descriptions easy to be understood by even the common readers. These analogies also help his writings to be a certain visual element, which servers to keep the readers inspired by the work.

While Emerson's language may not always reflect a humble tone, his overall message of universality is an assumption, which places the individuals above the masses, regardless of their identity as long as they act out of their own personal decisions. While at first this may not reflect the common idea of modesty, the assumption is that everyone has the potential to reach the highest esteem; therefore no person is innately superior to any other one. This view also shows the optimism, which permeates the speaker's views. Everyone can achieve happiness, for it is possible upon anything inherent, rather, it requires a simple shift in one's mental pattern, a shift any given person can make at any time in their life. Though Emerson may show a little pride at times, he does come from an equal point. His character has no prejudices rather he bases his judgments on independence of though and strength of conviction. Emerson's character exhibits a sense of duality that virtually counteracts any extremes of his character.

II. ACTIVE SELF-RELIANCE AND MENTAL SELF-RELIANCE

Emerson's thought of being self-reliant can be categorized into active reliance, namely, acting self-reliantly or self-reliant activity, and mental self-reliance, which is thinking self-reliantly. Active self-reliance is an independent activity, but it is less important than mental self-reliance for three main reasons: first, self-reliant thinking is an impersonal embrace of contrast and contradiction, while action must choose and exclude; second, self-reliant activity is dependent on free and retrospective thinking to draw its worth and meaning; and third, the nature of things seems to

obstruct people's effort by acting, no matter how self-reliantly, to achieve a feeling that one has experienced. Emerson's work lowers hope for self-reliant thinking. However, he does not abandon self-reliant activity. It may show some kind of independence, some daring or initiative effort. It can be inventive. And though self-reliant activity, still bound by the requirements of practical purpose, is guided by thinking, which can still be one's own. Activity can be the activity of individuals, of people who act as individuals: "What does it mean to act as an individual? It means a truly individual person will be act one with himself or herself, self-sufficient and self-contained; that its being will be indistinguishable from its being; that its being will naturally achieve its perfection; and that its being is an unintentional blessing on whatever is around it or happens to come its way."(Kateb, 1995, p. 135)

Here we are free to explore Emerson's theory of what it means to act as an individual. The theory contains several contrast ideas. I think that he resolves their contrast not by eliminating them, but by ranking them. These various ideas, however, have a common element; all self-reliant activity is a service or a contribution to others.

The plain fact is that Emerson's concept of individuals—his philosophy of self-reliance—is always suitable for the individual of all persons. and just as the higher self-reliance, which is mental, is finally vindicated by the appreciation of the world, so the less import self-reliance, which is active, is praiseworthy to the extent that it serves or contributor. Emerson's self-reliance is a democratic individuality.

A society of individuals is a society made up of individuals serving or contributing to other individuals. "Each person is one self; each person gives and receives as oneself" (Cavell. 1988. P.58). To give or to receive because one's role requires it; to give anything that strengthens people in their sense as members or parts of a community—all these ideas are ruled by Emerson's theory of self-reliant activity.

Although Emerson's emphasis is on service or contribution, his idea of active self-reliance has a complex relation to morality. More precisely, self-reliant activity will be framed by moral limits, and moral purpose should be achieved indirectly for the most part. Emerson praise moral conduct insistently, and he also points out that indirect service is the best service. The following passages in the essay Uses of Great Men reveal Emerson's strategy: "Gift is contrary to the law of the universe. Serving others is serving us. I must absolve me to myself. 'Mind thy affair,' says the spirit: 'would you meddle with the skies, or with other people?' indirect service is left" (Emerson, 1850, p. 3).

He then gives a general characterization of indirect service: "Men are helpful through the intellect and the affections. Other help, I find a false appearance, if you affected to give me bread and fire, I perceive that I pay for it the full price, and at last it leaves me as it found me, neither better nor worse: but all mental and moral force is a positive good. It goes out from you, whether you will or not, and profits me whom you never thought of. I cannot even hear of personal vigor of any kind, great power of performance, without fresh resolution." (Emerson, 1850, p. 5-6).

Emerson's idea of self-help as a primitive self-reliance is illustrated not only by war of survival but also by economic endeavor. In order that a more important kind of active self-reliance ensure, primitive self-reliance in the form of economic self-help must first exist and then remain established. It means making one's way in the world, making it on one's own by an expenditure of one's effort.

The key print is that because self-reliance in every one of its active forms is conceptualized by Emerson as necessarily making a contribution to others, or serving them, the self-reliant individual cannot be dependent on the contributions or service of others to such an extent as to be unable to reciprocate there must be moral equality. Otherwise there would not be democratic individuality—there would not be the active self-reliance appropriate for a democratic society.

The search for wealth is not only a search for power; it is an impulse of power. That means it is also a display, even though those who display it are not interested necessarily in offering themselves or convert themselves into the raw material of their own contemplation or retrospection. But Emerson observes and encourages all of us to do so. His writings throughout his life contain tributes to the entrepreneurial energies of the Americans and the English. It is fitting that one of his tributes is found in the chapter, "Success" in Society and Solitude: "Our American people cannot be found taxed with slowness in performance or in praising their performance. The earth is shaken by our energy. We are feeling our youth and nerve and bone. We have the power of territory and of se-coast, and know the use of these" (Emerson, 1850, p. 289).

That he says that Americans are not slow in praising their own performance is a sly word of satire. "What I think he admires above all, is the sense of indefinite yearning and reaching that is conveyed by a wealth –seeking society so extravagant and wasteful in its worldly motions". Hence Emerson finds that recklessness, not prudence, is often at the root of the search for wealth, and that self-expenditure is not for the sake of future economic expenditure but for the sake of self-testing and self-discovery, or more likely, self-forgetting: "An individual's pursuit of wealth is a kind of indefinite outward reaching. Emerson admires the trait and praises it as part of what is best in the human race. He praises it even when it seems driven by obscure purposes or by unmastered currents of thought" (Bishop, 1964, p.203).

What is all history but the work of ideas, a record of the incomputable energy, which his infinite aspirations infuse into man? Has anything grand and lasting been done? Who did it? Plainly not any man, but all men: it was the prevalence and inundation of an idea. What brought the pilgrims here? One man says civil liberty; another, the desire of founding a church; and a third, discovers that the motive force was plantation and trade. But if the puritans could rise from the dust, they could not answer.

So far we find in Emerson's thought about active self-reliance a defense of primitive self-reliance primarily as

economic self-help and a qualified admiration of the self-reliance that shows itself in the pursuit of wealth-a pursuit he traces to various passions, all of them commendable to a certain degree, but none wholly admirable in itself, his general implications is that the pursuit of any main power, position of fame can be a form of active self-reliance, even though in a commercial democracy, the overt pursuit is the pursuit of wealth. Yet Emerson has a keen sense of the inadequacy of worldliness. The self-reliance shown is not reliance on the best self, the aspects of the acting self that most deserve display. Worldliness, to Emerson, is too entwined with selfishness or egotism to be wholly commendable. "The deeper trouble is that the ego in display when worldly prizes are pursued is often not really the ego, but an imitation of egotism" (Kateb, 1995, p. 142). To be worldly is to want what others want because they want it and to obtain success because others have succeeded or failed. Or it is to take unconscious satisfaction in playing one's part in a game or drama; keeping the whole thing going becomes one's interest. One is owned by the world and as it were selflessly obeys its commands by accepting and acting on its definition of what is worthwhile.

To be worldly, one does not break away from the society; one does not break one's neck by turning around; one does not think oneself into a position where once can ask oneself why one is pursuing the things; one looks at one's life at all. One does not try to live from point zero. One knows how to play the games, but not why they exist or why one should play them. Being worldly is conformity, but conformity is the main antithesis to self-reliance.

But even if not a deceived selflessness but a pure egotism motivates worldly pursuits. Emerson suggests that after a certain near point, an inverse relation exists between egotism and self-reliance, and hence between the self-assertion and self-expression of worldly pursuit and true active self-reliance" (Kateb, 1995, p. 143).

Nevertheless, Emerson adores expressiveness and he is willing to admire self-assertiveness. He is not merely prepared to make concessions to inevitable active egotism. He favors it." But he wants the search for power and the desire to display energy to find better channels than those already established in the world, established by and for the world, established as an unself-examining organization of power" (Kateb, 1995, p. 145). Emerson wants individuals to look at their lives from the perspective power and energy, but to cut their own channels.

III. Further Exploration of the Thought of Self-reliance with the Concept of Circle

Two principle conceptions can explain it when we try to think about Emerson's idea of active self-reliance as a whole. They can both be seen as conceptions of personal identity, of being in the world. One is the idea that a person's movement through life should be unfixed, an unceasing creation and abandonment of channels. One's identity should be constantly changeable, not easily defined by others or by himself. The other idea is that one should do his work "in a certain unegotistical way" (Anderson, 1971, p.344). After finding one's position, one should do the work that one does best, that is, the work that one was born to do. Obviously, there is dissonance between two ideas. A life of restless movement is a life of constant self-finding and self-loss. "a life of vocation is willing one thing, a life of perfect, adherence to one commitment, even if such adherence is not static, but rather something more like a process of what is called unfolding" (Kateb, 1995, p. 165). I believe that he prefers vocation above movement. Before turning to the thought of vocation, I will explore his views on a life, which is spent in movement, that is, in restless searching and finding, losing and searching. This, too, is a kind of unfolding. The good life is the life of growth or change.

Unless we overtake ourselves, circumstances will overtake us. The implication is that only conformists try to be fixed, and that in a democratic society, where change is allowed as a matter of principle. Only conformists crave fixity. Thinking that they can conform to democracy, they betray it. Thus the self-reliant personal identity is not really an identity but something more like an unlimited repetition.

The implication in Emerson's account is that living a changeable life is not simply changing from one thing to another, accumulating various experiences and thereby putting a life together by means of unpurposive addition. Ideally, one desires to draw a circle around oneself, succeeds in drawing it, but then draws another circle around the previous one. Drawing circles symbolizes the effort to achieve completion – that is, perfection. One desires to a kind of fixedness of identity and one is also supposed to become bored with what seems to be fixed. But change is genuine only if it is not searched for itself but is accepted for the sake of an idea of completeness or perfection. New courage arises from new dissatisfaction with the things incomplete as well as imperfect, but it is a courage that dares to try to achieve satisfaction. The memory of failure must become a source of energy, hope for success must be sincere. One must try to acquire his own identity and stick to the effort, and although one may always fail, perhaps one will ascend into a higher state, which is changeable. The very energy that goes into the effort to achieve perfection is an indication that the results of the effort will eventually be found unsatisfactory. Emerson says, "That which is made instructs how to make better" (Emerson, 1841, p.412). A self-reliant individual is supposed to see around himself or herself, to seize a new possibility of experience, and to jump out of the self-enclosure. "Nature, a mountain walk, always gives us to suspect the poverty of life, and we believe that we have run along only one thread of experience out of millions of varied threads which we were competent to combine with that single-string of ours." (Emerson, 1841, p.419)

The attributes that one is most proud of in oneself must be thrown away, because the "terror of reform is the discovery that we must cast away our virtues" (Emerson, 1841, p.421). The only fact that we are loved or admired means that we have made a mistake. One should try to be heaven if another one admires him, one cannot be heaven if he stops to be such a common person as the one who admires the others. In a cruel passage Emerson says: "The sweet of nature is love; yet if I have a friend I am tormented by my imperfection. The love of me accuses the other party. If he

were high enough t slight me, then could I love him, and rise by my affection to new heights." (Emerson, 1841, p.406)

One must grow out of the love that has enabled him to grow. "A man's growth is seen in the successive choirs of his friends" (Emerson, 1841, p.406). It seems that he was trying to say that one only love those who disdain him. One also helplessly disdains those who love him. "When much intercourse with a friend has supplied us with a standard of excellence, and has increased our respect for the resources of God who thus sends a real person to outgo our ideal; when he has, moreover, become an object of thought, and, whilst his character retains all its unconscious effect, is converted in the mind into solid and sweet wisdom, it is a high to us that his office is closing, and he is commonly withdrawn from our sight in a short time." (Emerson, 1836, p.31)

Life is a process of abandoning and attaining. "The way of life is wonderful; it is by abandonment." He says in one of his most famous sentences" (Emerson, 1841, p.414). We should grow by being loved, but perhaps even more by being rejected. "Dear to us are those who love us. They enlarge our life; but dearer are those who reject us as unworthy, for they add another life: they build a heaven before us whereof we had not dreamed, and thereby supply to us new powers out of the recesses of the spirit, and urge us to new and unattempted performances." (Emerson, 1942, p.315)

I must convert my being rejected into mutual abandonment. The irony is that by the abandonments we initiate or exploit we more nearly approach ourselves. The more we change, the more coherent we become. In talking about the advantages of calamity, Emerson says, "The changes which break up at short intervals the prosperity of men are advertisements of a nature shoes law is growth. In proportion to the vigor of the individual these revolutions are frequent, until in some happier mind they are incessant and all worldly relations hang very loosely about him, becoming as it were a transparent fluid membrane through which the living form is seen, and not, as in most men, an indurated heterogeneous fabric of many dates and no settled character, in which the man is imprisoned."(Emerson, 1839, p.52-53)

Growth means deliberately throwing away the less voluntarily or involuntarily acquired crust of custom. What is left is perhaps nothing more than an ever-greater desire to be identified: "Man was made for conflict, not for rest. In action is his power; not in his goals but in his transitions man is great. Instantly he is dwarfed by self-indulgence. The trust state of mind rested in becomes false."(Emerson, 1853, p.60)

According to Emerson, there is no end for our search and abandoning because our life is only a process of learning. It is "an apprenticeship to the truth that around every circle another can be drawn" (Emerson, 1841, p.403). We have to search and abandon for all of our lives. For a self-reliant individual the only rest from apprenticeship is not in attaining the achievements but in death. Until then, life is learning and forgetting and learning again the truth of incessantly available possibility that is contained inside one's power. "The only motive at all commensurate with his force is the ambition to discover by exercising his latent power. True culture is a discipline so universal as to demonstrate that no part of a man was made in vain"(Emerson, 1841, p.410).

In a passage that sounds like Whiteman before Whiteman got started, Emerson says: "I am not careful to justify myself. But lest I should mislead any when I have my own head and obey my whims, let me remind the reader that I am only an experimenter. I unsettle all things. No facts are to me sacred; none are profane. I simply experiment, an endless seeker with no past at my back." (Emerson, 1841, p.411-2)

Writing essays is combined with living a life Emerson breaks into the apparently sincere confessional mode because he anticipates that some readers will accuse him of Pyrrhonism –an equivalence and indifference of all actions, and will impute to him the unpleasant thought that even out of crimes "we shall construct the temple of the true God" (Emerson, 1841, p.412). Emerson answers the readers with the word "experimenter" (Emerson, 1841, p.412). It is not easy to say whether he hides from his implications or is underlining them but the passage is stirring, and its effect is not blunted when Emerson invokes a principle of "fixture or stability in the soul" (Emerson, 1841, p.412). For what is the soul? It is "the eternal generator; its central life is superior to all it generates and it contains all circles" (Emerson, 1841, p.413). The self is larger than anything it creates. No creation excels the power that created it or can satisfy the fixed soul in which the power of movement is lodged. But dissatisfied with not creating, the soul creates, and then it is also dissatisfied what it creates, and so it creates anew, again and again. What Emerson says about great works of art is also what he would have us feel about all works, all deeds, and all states of being: "They create a want they do not gratify. They instantly point us to somewhat better than themselves"(Emerson, 1841, p.414).

The great philosopher of affirmation is concurrently the great teacher of dissatisfaction, even disappointment. In each of us, the energies of hope should make room for the emotion of philosophical acceptance of the world, as it must be.

No doubt Emerson is keenly aware that the will to power, even in the most unexpressed person, can be limitless in its intentions or fantasies, which is why he hopes that all people will be encouraged in it: "For nature wishes everything to remain itself, and whilst every individual strives to grow and exclude, and to exclude and grow, to the extremities of the universe, and to impose the law of its being on every other creature, nature steadily aims to protect each against every other. Each is self-defended."(Emerson, 1850, p. 15)

I do not find in Emerson theoretical praise for a person who acts out of character in a radial sense, who acts against his grain or take sides against himself, or who changes because of a strong conviction that he has been in serious error. These phenomena seem contrary to unfolding. To think self-reliantly is to think against oneself, but one cannot expect or be expected to act that way. Emerson did act against himself when he took up the abolitionist duties of citizenship in the 1850s. But interrupting the arc of one's circle is not what emperor praises. The life of movement is nevertheless a life of risk. "Experimentation is life as an adventure's being the hero of one's life means taking on the world, not merely

as something that needs resistance, but as something that needs definition as one's own, one's rightful place. And in the process, the contribution to others that experimenters make is the inspiration they give by their exemplary courageous self-reliance they invite the more timid to live more" (Kateb, 1995, p.171).

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An Investigation of Tertiary EFL Teachers' Problems in Their In-service Professional Development

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Abstract—The developing trend and reform in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) have updated the requirements for tertiary EFL teachers. To meet these requirements, the teachers are encouraged to have their in-service professional development. However, the current situation of their in-service professional development is not as good as what has been expected. Hence, this study aimed at investigating the problems that tertiary EFL teachers may have in their in-service professional development and the suggestions that they made for helping to solve these problems. The data was collected from questionnaire and semi-structured group interview which were responded by the EFL teachers in Guiyang University of China. The findings after data analysis showed that the tertiary EFL teachers had such problems as the limitation of programs, the discontinuity of programs, the inappropriateness of programs, etc. and they suggested that the cooperation with colleagues should be employed in their in-service or on-the-job professional development.

Index Terms—in-service professional development, tertiary EFL teachers, problems, suggestions

I. INTRODUCTION

The worldwide expansion in the use of English language has brought with new requirements and standards of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). So there is a much higher level of professionalism in TEFL today than previously (Richard, 2008). The improvement of the EFL teachers' professionalism level depends greatly on their professional development, especially their in-service professional development. As early as in the 1970s, James (1973) ascertained that "it is only through the growth of in-service training that this gulf between advancing knowledge and practice can be bridged" (p.15). In the profession of teaching, more researchers stressed the importance of teachers' in-service professional development, such as in Widden et al.'s (1996) and in Day's (1999) studies, they claimed that as a result of the considerable change in education which makes enormous production in knowledge and information, the nature of teaching also demands teachers to engage in utilizing this knowledge effectively and it needs continuing career-long professional development role of the teacher in changing contexts in which teachers work and learning takes place. The rapid development of China leads to the situation that English is noted as the most learnt foreign language in China. Hence, the effectiveness and efficiency of English learning and teaching in China at all educational levels draw significant attention from stakeholders (Li & Hudson, 2011). In order to adapt to the new situation, China's Ministry of Education (MOE) has attached more importance to the TEFL in higher education, and improved the "Syllabus for English Majors of Colleges or Universities" in 2001 and issued the "College English Curriculum Requirements" in 2006. To be in accordance with the rules or norms in such requirements, the EFL teachers are encouraged to have their on-the-job professional development.

The EFL teachers in tertiary education in China can be generally divided into two groups: one of them teaches General English (GE) to non-English major students; the other teaches both General English and some specialized courses to English major students. Such skills are usually involved in General English as listening, speaking, reading, writing, and even translating. Besides, the specialized courses for English majors mainly include introduction to linguistics, American and British literature, translation theory and practice between Chinese and English, Chinese and Western culture comparison, etc. Tertiary EFL teachers in China are required to finish both teaching and research work. In most cases, those English teachers working with the non-English majors have heavier teaching load than those with English majors, whereas the latter, most of whom have a specific research focus, has more tendency to deal with their research than the former. However, since the year of 1998, China has increased its college enrollment, during the 1996-2000 period there was a total enrollment of over 11 million, from 2001 to 2005 the number of university students would be up to 16 million (CERNET, 2001, as cited in Meng & Tajaroensuk, 2013). It is evident that no matter what

group they belong to, Chinese tertiary EFL teachers now have much more teaching load than ever.

In fact, the nature of EFL teacher knowledge or professional knowledge seems to be a kind of transient knowledge, which needs to be updated with the inevitable change of the society. The gap between what the EFL teachers need to update and what they have already had in terms of professional knowledge should be bridged, and one of the best ways is by their in-service or on the-job professional development.

However, to conduct the in-service professional development is found to be faced with difficulties. Although many programs or models have been offered to help EFL teachers with their in-service professional development, most of them were not found to be as efficient as what had been planned. Ono and Ferreira (2010) have pointed out that many models of professional development do not achieve their ambitious learning goals. Quite a few researchers (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996; Ball & Cohen, 1999; Collinson & Ono, 2001; Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Villegas-Reimers, 2003; Schwille & Dembélé, 2007) found that traditional in-service teacher professional development programs are delivered in the form of workshops, seminars, conferences or courses, which have been criticized as being brief, fragmented, incoherent encounters that are decontextualised and isolated from real classroom situations (as cited in Meng, Tajaroensuk & Seepho, 2013). Such dissatisfaction was also observed in Chinese tertiary EFL teacher in-service professional development. Liu (2005) and Zheng (2010) had the findings in their research that showed a theoretical, academic, or research-oriented way is frequently applied to train Chinese EFL teachers, which leads to their passiveness. Zhang and Li (2003) and Liu (2006) claimed that when the teachers are asked to comment on these training programs, they criticized the distance between theory and practice. In addition, Wen and Ren (2010) also found in their survey that by reviewing the characteristics of the literature concerning the tertiary EFL teacher in-service professional development in China from the year of 1999 to 2009, many problems were linked to such limitations as being isolated from EFL classrooms and neglecting the teachers' demands (as cited in Meng, Tajaroensuk & Seepho, 2013).

Therefore, this study aims at investigating the current problems that the tertiary EFL teachers have in their in-service professional development and the suggestions that they make on it, and then to help solve these problems. The authors took the followings as the research questions of this study.

1. What are the tertiary EFL teachers' current problems in their in-service professional development?
2. What are the suggestions that the tertiary EFL teachers made for their in-service professional development?

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

55 EFL teachers, including 29 from the Department of College English Teaching and 26 from the School of Foreign Languages at Guiyang University of China, participated in this present study. The former group teaches English to non-English major students, while the latter one teaches English majors. All of them responded to the questionnaire, but only 12 of them were selected as the interviewees in the semi-structured interview in group. The participants were selected on the basis of purposiveness and availability.

B. Instruments

Two instruments were employed for data collection, namely, a questionnaire and a semi-structured group interview. A questionnaire was designed to find out the problems that the tertiary EFL teachers have in their in-service professional development and obtain the suggestions that they can offer. Meanwhile, a semi-structured group interview was also used to find more in-depth information about the teacher participants' problems and opinions on their in-service professional development, and the suggestions they could make on this issue.

C. Data Collection

First, the questionnaire took all of the 55 teacher participants as the respondents who was asked to answer both closed-end and open-ended questions. Three parts were included in this questionnaire. Part I is participants' personal information, such as sex, age, educational background, teaching experiences, teaching levels, etc. Part II is made up of the statements and open-ended questions on the problems that the teacher participants may encounter in their own professional development. Part III consists of the statements and open-ended questions about their suggestions and the needs on a model for tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development. 5-point Likert scale was used to design the closed-ended questions according to their level of agreement. Values on the scale are strongly disagreed, disagree, uncertain, agree, and strongly agree. The information from this questionnaire was analyzed and prioritized to indicate the current problems of tertiary EFL teachers in their in-service professional development from the highest to the lowest.

Second, the semi-structured group interview took the 12 teacher participants who would be involved in the experiment which is the follow-up research of this present study as the interviewees. Some questions were asked in this interactive group setting where the teacher participants were free to talk with other group members. The questions consisted of the teacher participants' opinions on current problems of in-service professional development and their suggestions on how to improve the ways to in-service professional development.

D. Data Analysis

1. Quantitative Data Analysis

In terms of the quantitative data from the Likert Questionnaire, the statistical way was adopted for analyzing the data, exactly, the fifty-five teacher participants' responses in the Likert Questionnaire were analyzed by the frequencies for the level of their agreements.

2. Qualitative Data Analysis

Regarding the qualitative data from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire and the semi-structured group interview, the qualitative analysis methods were employed. While analyzing the data from the open-ended questionnaire, the data were already the written texts and then could be directly progressed according to the steps of the qualitative data analysis. By analyzing the data, the researcher found the current problems that the tertiary EFL teachers have in their in-service problems, and the suggestions that they offered for their in-service professional development. While analyzing the data from the semi-structured group interview, the audio-taped data, first of all, were transcribed with several times of listening in order to have their reliability. Followed by the other steps of qualitative analysis, the interview data offered more in-depth information on the problems of the participants in their in-service professional development, and the suggestions or opinions on the needs to design practical programs or develop a model.

III. RESULTS

After analyzing the data collected from the instruments, the authors presented and interpreted the results in accordance with the research questions of this study.

In response to Research Question 1, the results were presented according to the instruments respectively.

A. The Results from the Questionnaire

The investigation was conducted through the questionnaire that was made up of both closed-ended and open-ended questions. Firstly, according to their level of agreement, the teacher participants rated on 5-point Likert scale about the problems that they met with in their in-service professional development.

TABLE 1;
THE RESULTS OF TERTIARY EFL TEACHER S' PROBLEMS IN THEIR IN-SERVICE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Problems	M	SD
1. There are quite limited programs for tertiary EFL teachers for their in-service professional development.	4.60	0.49
2. Implementing EFL teacher in-service professional development costs the university more because most of the programs are offered in other cities or areas	4.39	0.82
3. Many programs for EFL teacher in-service professional development are short-term, which is not good enough to contribute to the continuity of teachers' in-service professional development.	4.73	0.45
4. Many programs of in-service professional development focus too much on the theories of the TEFL.	4.55	0.66
5. Many programs of in-service professional development lay less emphasis on the issues existing in the TEFL.	4.58	0.67
6. Many programs of in-service professional development fail to serve EFL teachers' needs to solve their real problems.	4.80	0.45
7. Many programs of EFL teacher in-service professional development fail to offer the approaches to help the EFL teachers to solve the problems directly from their daily teaching.	4.80	0.52
8. EFL teachers are in the dilemma that while they want to have their in-service professional development, their heavy workload often stops them from doing so.	4.55	0.53
9. For some tertiary EFL teachers, their out-of-date assumption about in-service professional development leads to their ignorance of personal in-service professional development.	4.76	0.60
10. Some administrators do not attach importance to the EFL teachers' in-service professional development, so teachers can not get support for their in-service professional development from them.	4. 60	0.49
Total	4.64	0.56

As shown in Table 1, a total of 55 teacher participants, all of them gave the response to these questions, 33 (60%) strongly agreed and 22 (40%) agreed that the programs were quite limited and lack of attention from administrators. Meanwhile, 30 (54.4%) strongly agreed and 25 (45.5%) agreed that they were in the dilemma between their training needs and heavy workload. 47 (85.5%) also strongly agreed and 5 (9.1%) agreed that many programs could not deal with the problems directly from their daily teaching, and some teachers had the out-of-date assumption. Likewise, 45 (81.8%) strongly agreed and 10 (18.2%) agreed that the university had to pay more for the programs off campus. Besides, 40 (72.7%) strongly agreed and 15 (27.3%) that many programs were lack of continuity. 38 (69.1%) strongly agreed and 11 (20%) agreed that many programs laid less emphasis on the issues existing in the TEFL, but focused too much on its theories.

Secondly, the open-ended questions in the questionnaire were also responded by all of the 55 teacher participants.

In terms of what kind of programs they have attended before, many teachers answered that the programs were short-term lasting only two or three days including the registration day, and in most cases, they were held during the summer or winter vacations in other cities or other provinces, which attracted more attendants with the arranged sightseeing trip rather than the academic exchange.

When it came to whether they met with any problems in their daily teaching which could not be solved by themselves, all of them thought so. One of the teacher participants wrote down like this:

"…… In my classroom teaching, some problems are those that I can predict, and so I can prepare their solutions. However, when new problems are suddenly jumping in class, I sometimes can not solve them immediately on the spot. I have to do it after class or ignore it, I often wonder if only we have a team working together……"

With regards to whether they put their in-service professional development into agenda or what hindered their in-service professional development, 20 of them said they did so while 35 said that they did not. Those who had not taken it into their agenda did not know how to conduct it without the chance to have off-service professional development, and the heavy teaching workload and busy schedule hindered them from doing so.

As far as whether their in-service professional development could be easily carried out was considered, most of them thought that it was not easy to attend or conduct their in-service professional development although they have realized its importance. As one of them put,

"I have been teaching English for more than ten years, of course, I know the reform that our Ministry of Education is now conducting on English language teaching, with this pace, we need to innovate ourselves. But how can we do it? I have to teach over ten hours a week, two different courses. After this, I have to save some time to take care of the family, so what can I do with my professional development? I know it's important and necessary, but I don't know exactly how to do it…… "

Regarding what problem should be solved first to facilitate their in-service professional development, most of them thought that a practical program or model would contribute to their in-service professional development.

B.   The Results from the Interview

First of all, the 12 interviewees had a common idea that the situation of the teachers' professional development should be far better if possible when they were asked to express their opinions of the teachers' professional development in general. And although they have experienced some kind of professional development, such as, one-year or half-a-year off-service non-degree program, one-week workshop, two-day or three-day seminar, provincial or national academic conference, what they thought was that these programs failed to sustain their in-service professional development.

Secondly, while asked the question "Do you include your professional development in your career plan?" eight of them said "not yet" while the rest said "yes". Those who haven't put it into their career plan explained that they have taught English for quite a long time, and they were very skillful, and especially after getting the diploma of MA, their focus was not on this aspect, although they knew its importance, they were a little afraid of the reform, they wanted to have a peaceful and stable life, having more time taking care of their family. Those who said "yes" were somewhat different. They wanted to have an innovation in their work, and put new teaching concept into their work. They preferred to try some new methods or models, and conducted the research on their classroom teaching. Most of this group were younger than the former, and planed to improve their academic diploma, and some were preparing for the test to a Ph. D program.

Thirdly, speaking of the detailed problems in their in-service professional development, all of them gave the examples in turn. By summarizing what they offered, they were: 1) there was the dilemma between the heavy teaching load and the in-service professional development; 2) the program was not practical; 3) the chance was not for everyone who wanted to attend; 4) the program was a kind of traveling rather than professional training; 5) the lecturer in the program paid more attention to the developed universities; 6) the program was something like competition, the participants from the developing universities were always the losers; 7) what they learned from some program could not be kept practicing in their teaching. But they thought it was necessary for EFL teachers to have in-service professional development even if they have had their pre-service professional development.

In response to Research Question 2, the same two instruments were employed for data collection, and their results were shown respectively.

C.   The Results from the Questionnaire

The suggestions that the teacher participants agreed on for their in-service professional development were shown as follows:

TABLE 2;
THE RESULTS OF TERTIARY EFL TEACHERS' SUGGESTIONS IN THEIR IN-SERVICE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Suggestions	M	S
1. Tertiary EFL teacher in-service professional development should be put into agenda.	4.91	0.29
2. Tertiary EFL teacher in-service professional development should be taken as an important process as their pre-service one in their career.	4.91	0.29
3. Programs for EFL teacher in-service professional development should help teachers' conceptualization for new learning theories and teaching approaches.	4.91	0.29
4. Programs for EFL teacher in-service professional development should contribute to solving teachers' problems with effective strategies.	4.89	0.37
5. In order to have effective in-service professional development, EFL teachers should have it ongoing other than a short-term practice.	4.64	0.48
6. What matters in EFL teacher in-service professional development is not how many times they attend the relevant programs but how much they can learn from them.	4.89	0.32
7. Effective tertiary EFL teacher in-service professional development should be carried out without ignoring the classroom research.	4.65	0.48
8. Collaboration for EFL teachers in their in-service professional development should be encouraged.	4.80	0.45
9. Team work is better than individual practice in terms of sustainable in-service professional development.	4.87	0.39
10. Peer coaching within a team teaching can be more effective with its two-layer cooperation for teachers in the process of learning new knowledge and of solving the problems from their real teaching context.	4.85	0.40
Total	**4.83**	**0.37**

As shown in Table 2, among the 55 respondents, 50 (90.9%) strongly agreed and 5 (9.1%) agreed that tertiary EFL teachers should plan their in-service professional development as an important process in their career and the programs should be designed for teachers' conceptualization for new learning theories and teaching approaches. 50 (90.9%) also strongly agreed and 4 (7.3%) agreed the programs should contribute to solving teachers' problems with effective strategies. Then, 36 (65.5%) strongly agreed and 19 (34.5%) agreed that effective tertiary EFL teacher in-service professional development should be carried out without ignoring the classroom teaching and research. Likewise, 35 (63.6%) strongly agreed and 20 (36.4%) agreed that EFL teachers should have it ongoing other than a short-term practice. 49 (89.1%) strongly agreed and 6 (10.9%) agreed that what mattered was what they could learn from the programs, and team work was better than individual practice in terms of sustainable in-service professional development. Meanwhile, 48 (87.3%) strongly agreed and 6 (10.9%) agreed that peer coaching within a team teaching could be more effective with its two-layer cooperation for teachers in the process of learning new knowledge and of solving the problems from their real teaching context. Finally, 45 (81.8%) also strongly agreed and 9 (16.4%) agreed that the collaboration of EFL teachers in their in-service professional development should be encouraged.

What the teacher participants wrote down to answer the open-ended questions in terms of the suggestions also offered very important information.

While asked whether they were satisfied with the programs they attended for their in-service professional development, most of them said "not always". They explained that some programs were really good in some parts, but not good enough in others. Some teachers mentioned that some programs that they had attended had more focus on the non-academic activities such as saving a whole day or longer for the on-the-spot traveling to the city or resorts in order to attract more attendants, others also mentioned that in the programs that they attended the focus of the lecture or the workshop was based on the situation of the developed areas, such as the eastern, central, or southeastern parts of China. The model or methods which could be employed effectively there might not be practical in the underdeveloped or developing areas. The respondents also offered some suggestions, such as, to organize the down-to-earth program that could solve the problems of the developing areas; teachers in eastern areas and those in western areas should be based on their different teaching contexts, and helped with each other just in some cases; university-based or school-based programs should be organized for in-service professional development.

When they were asked to answer the question "What is the ideal program or model for your in-service professional development?" most of them shared the similar idea, as what one of them put,

"……. In my opinion, the ideal program or model for our English teacher's in-service professional development should be something that can lead to a sustainable practice. It can attract us to follow it willingly and continuously, and we can have it as a base to improve our daily teaching, and to do something like research action together with our colleagues, and of course, it can help us to do more and further practice in our professional development…."

In terms of whether they liked to work individually for their in-service professional development or with a partner or within a team, all of them answered that they would like to work with a partner, colleagues, or within a team.

D.   The Results from the Interview

First, all of 12 interviewees said that they would like to attend such a program for their in-service professional development as this: the program should include both latest educational theories, especially those related to language teaching, and teaching practice. This was because what mattered in the in-service professional development was to have the teachers exposed to the latest theories or concepts in their field and the practice all over the world so that the teacher could share their experiences and exchange their practice, and take lessons from each other. What's more, the program should be in continuity and could be closely rooted in their daily teaching. Although they did not have any criteria of

taking in-service professional development, they thought they should take it regularly after being a university teacher. They made such suggestions on their in-service professional development as: 1) to attend a national or international conference every year or more often; 2) to take a seminar every year or more often; 3) to work with a teaching team in the daily work; 4) to go for a program at any time when necessary; 5) to take a university-based program every semester with the help of the experts and the administrators. They stressed that no matter what program it was, the program should be conformed to the situation that in-service professional development was in continuity. Besides, regarding EFL teacher in-service professional development, most of the teachers thought that it should be done immediately since the field of TEFL has got very fast development. Learning English was like learning something that kept changing, it was easy for the teachers to stay behind if he or she was bad-informed, so to take instant and sustainable in-service professional development for them was quite necessary.

Second, while asked if they would like to cooperate with colleagues for their in-service professional development, all of them answered "yes", and as one of them said, "*That's a good idea. Working with the colleagues is interesting, helpful, confident, and fantastic.*" They thought that the problem that the in-service professional development faced was that it was brokenly conducted. When the teacher got some new idea or practice from a seminar, but after returning to their normal teaching situation, in most cases, they turned to their previous ways because there was no atmosphere for them to carry out what they had learned. Therefore, if in the daily teaching they could be encouraged to do so, especially together with their colleagues, then the new teaching concepts and methods would be definitely shared and practiced in continuity.

To conclude, after knowing about the EFL teachers' current problems and suggestions, it could be said that they were more willing to attend a program based on their needs and work with peers and team members for their in-service professional development.

IV. DISCUSSION

According to the results presented above, the problems and the suggestions on the tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development were discussed. The results revealed that there were many problems for the tertiary EFL teachers in their in-service professional development. In order to solve these problems, the tertiary EFL teachers also made suggestions on the way to improve their in-service professional development, which strongly showed their needs to develop a program or model to strengthen the tertiary EFL teachers' cooperation in their daily teaching so that their in-service professional development could be conducted in a practical and sustainable way.

1. Components Affecting Tertiary EFL Teachers' In-service Professional Development

According to the results from the questionnaire, it could be seen that the most important component that affected tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development was the shortage of good and practical programs. It could be argued that the EFL teachers might not be willing to attend the programs that were not practical or good enough for them to enhance their professional or teaching ability. Tusi (2003) claimed that EFL profession is facing two problems, namely, the lack of teacher training programs and the dissatisfaction with conventional theory-into-practice training models (as cited in Meng & Tajaroensuk, 2013). Liu (2005) claimed that many training models are quite traditional in which the lecture-based training is lack of the interaction between the trainer and the trainees. As what Koch (2006) indicated, "The process must actually be effective in achieving its goals. All of the efficiency, timeliness and predictability in the world are wasted if the process is not doing what the stakeholders need of it". Therefore, many researches were conducted for the range of the professional development opportunities for teachers in order to explore or design meaningful and effective activities in professional development programs (Sandholtz 2002; Pir 2005; Starkey et al 2009).

The research results also revealed another important component that was the lack of the continuity for tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development, which seriously affected their in-service professional development. Richards and Farrell (2005) have claimed that development serves a long-term goal and seek to facilitate growth of teacher's understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers. Widden et al (1996) and Day (1999) have pointed out that the nature of teaching needs continuing career-long professional development role of the teacher in changing contexts in which teachers work and learning took place. This implied that people working in a profession like teaching may have more demanding expectations of themselves and their colleagues because they regard the process of professional development as continuous and on-going (Wallace, 1998).

The contradiction between tertiary EFL teachers' heavy workload and their desire to have in-service professional development was also found to be another component affecting their in-service professional development. Many empirical studies indicated that time and workload are common critical factors that teachers encounter in continuous professional development (Carney, 2003). Heavy workload is considered as a common problem for public education as a result of a stressful environment that discourages teachers from participating in continuous professional development in their busy professional lives (Quaglia et al., 1991; Day & Gu, 2010). This implied that the school should give more time for facilitating teachers' continuous professional development by allowing continuous professional development activities to be conducted within school hours and arranging time for teachers to have more space in engaging in continuous professional development activities (Wan, 2011).

Additionally, the contradiction between the university's financial support and the expense for the programs became another component that affected tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development. Implementing EFL teacher in-service professional development usually cost the university more simply because most of the programs were offered in other places. Yu et al (2009) have claimed that it is a fact that considerable investment on hardware and software has provided a rich material supply for the new mode of English instruction. Nevertheless, the key factor which makes best use of the cost-consuming equipment, effectively integrating modern technology into course instruction is none other than the teacher. This implied that the authorities of the university should attach more importance to the EFL teachers' in-service professional development so that the teachers could make good use of the equipment for better instruction.

2. Problems of Tertiary EFL Teachers' In-service Professional Development

In terms of the problems of tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development, the research results showed that tertiary EFL teachers did not have a practical and sustainable model for their in-service professional development.

The participants' opinions about the current problems in their in-service professional development and the suggestions they made revealed the fact that they needed a practical and sustainable program or model for their in-service professional development based on their real needs in their teaching context. This was consistent with many researchers, such as Villegas-Reimers (2003), Schwille and Dembélé (2007), etc. It has been found in their studies that many traditional on-the-job teacher professional development programs are conducted in such ways as workshops, seminars, conferences or courses. With the characteristics of being brief, fragmented, incoherent encounters, these programs have been criticized for being decontextualised and isolated from real teaching context. This implied that the tertiary EFL teachers needed not only their in-service professional development but also the satisfactory programs for their in-service professional development.

According to Breen (2007), professional development is now at a critical moment, for it is the arena in which teachers can freely explore ways of thinking and acting collegially that focus upon the positive opportunities of the present climate of change. But how could the tertiary EFL teachers participate in the ideal programs that they thought useful for their in-service professional development? Strategies for teacher development often involved documenting different kinds of teaching practices; reflective analysis of teaching practices, examining beliefs, values, and principles; conversation with peers on core issues; and collaborating with peers on classroom projects. Professional development should go beyond personal and individual reflection (Richards & Farrell, 2005). As far as EFL teachers' professional development was concerned, more elements should be taken into account, as what Richards (2008) claimed, "the profession of English language teaching requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience, and it is a field of work where membership is based on entry requirements and standards." And Brown (2000) also stressed that language teachers should be aware of the fact that language learning and teaching always went together. Therefore, it was implied that updating the professional knowledge was inevitable and the cooperation with colleagues could be encouraged for the tertiary EFL teachers' in-service professional development.

3. Suggestions Made by Tertiary EFL Teachers for Their In-service Professional Development

The research results also revealed that the tertiary EFL teachers were not satisfied with the programs they had attended for their in-service professional development, and the suggestions they made to improve their in-service professional development were very constructive.

It was suggested that tertiary EFL teacher in-service professional development should be put into agenda, and it should be taken as an important process as their pre-service one in their teaching career. Professional development "serves a long-term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of teacher's understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers" (Richards & Farrell, 2005). It may also have different intended outcomes including enhancing professional skills and understandings; updating the teaching profession; and supporting major educational changes and reforms that have an impact on teaching practice (Dall'Alba & Sandberg, 2006). While pre-service TEFL programs offered student teachers tailored and highly specialized knowledge in language and linguistics, TEFL methodology and testing, practice teaching, and a variety of other areas depending on the program, and teachers were prepared with the knowledge base (Freeman & Johnson, 1998), effective and meaningful in-service professional development opportunities were critical to the successful implementation of any change agenda (Peixotto & Fager, 1998).

This study also showed the suggestion that the programs should help teachers' conceptualization for new learning theories and teaching approaches, and contribute to solving teachers' problems. This implied that the ideal program should serve as a platform that the teachers could have it as a base to update their professional knowledge, improve their daily teaching and do research action together with their colleagues. According to Leung and Teasdale (1999), ESL/EFL teachers required sound professional knowledge, including knowledge of language used in curriculum contexts, knowledge of second language acquisition principles, knowledge of pedagogic and assessment principles and skills in the management of the social aspects of working with learners and colleagues, and such professional knowledge needs updating and improving. James (1973) ascertained that it was only through the growth of in-service training that this gulf between advancing knowledge and practice could be bridged. Good in-service professional development programs, such as INSET, could be classified into three groups: 1. Professional education, by which is meant a widening and deepening of a teacher's theoretical perspectives by means of advanced study. 2. Professional training, the development of the knowledge and skills which are of direct applicability to daily work. 3. Professional support, activities aimed at developing on-the-job experience and performance (Spence 1996, cited in Yigit, 2008).

The suggestion was also highlighted by recommending the strategy of collaboration for EFL teachers in their in-service professional development, and it was suggested that team work was better than individual practice in terms of sustainable in-service professional development. Teams that work collaboratively can obtain greater resources, recognition and reward when facing competition for finite resources (Wagnar & Leydesdorff, 2005). As teachers learn to learn from one another and interact around substantive issues of teaching and learning and their own professional growth, their joint insights may shift the emphasis from individual classroom innovations to contributions to the teaching profession, resulting in organizational learning and change for the benefit of students (Collinson & Cook, 2004, cited in Nira et al, 2008). Therefore, encouraging the tertiary EFL teachers to have cooperation in their in-service professional development may contribute to its continuity and persistence.

V. CONCLUSION

This study has been conducted to investigate the current problems that the tertiary EFL teachers have in their in-service professional development and the suggestions that they make on it, and then to make the preparation for finding a way to solve these problems in the follow-up research of this present study. Its results have helped to pave the way for more research on EFL teachers' professional development. It is found that the current problems that the tertiary EFL teachers were faced with really blocked their in-service professional development, and the suggestions that they made were based on their demands and their teaching context, which would be helpful and constructive to design a training program or develop a model for their in-service professional development. Moreover, further studies are needed to solve these problems in the tertiary EFL teacher in-service professional development, and the efficiency of the approach to the solutions of these problems should be examined.

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Professional Learning Community and College English Teachers' Professional Development

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Abstract—This paper discusses the present problems in college English teachers' professional development from an educational, sociological and management viewpoints. It highlights the necessity of introducing professional learning community (PLC) into teachers' professional development and gives some suggestions at the same time. The main purpose is to promote teachers' collaborative development mode to replace the isolating and competitive one, which puts barriers to college English teachers' professional development.

Index Terms—college English teacher, teachers' professional development, professional learning community

I. INTRODUCTION

Since China's ELT (English Language Teaching) reform in higher education began in 2004, college English teachers' professional development has been given greater attention, as teachers' capability is the crucial factor in deciding the success of the reform.

Generally speaking, up to now most studies on college English teachers' professional development are focused on the personal dimension from a psychological or cognitive approach, such as the emphasis on individual teacher's reflective learning and reflective inquiry. The social elements like the relationship between teachers' working context and teachers' professional development are largely neglected. This paper, therefore is intended to study college English teachers' professional development from an educational, sociological and management viewpoints by introducing the concept of professional learning community (PLC) into the research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Professional Learning Community (PLC)

In the last twenty years, in western countries lots of educational reformers and researchers strongly advocate developing schools as professional learning community as a systematic and effective way to improve teachers' quality. Up to now there is no universal definition of a PLC, but educational researchers unanimously agree on a view that a PLC exists in a school where a group of teachers collaboratively and critically exchange their instructional practices in an ongoing, reflective, inclusive, learning-oriented and growth-promoting way to support innovation and knowledge sharing (Mitchell&Sackney, 2000). The concept of professional learning is often associated with professional development by many researchers, (Louis, Mark&Kruse, 1996, Hord, 1997) who proposed five dimensions of PLC which include supportive and shared leadership, shared values and vision, collective learning and application, supportive conditions, and shared personal practice.

1. Supportive and shared leadership

In a PLC, a collaborative effort involving all members is required, as principals alone cannot produce the large-scale improvement, so many schools are adopting a distributed leadership approach to address this issue. (Camburn, et al., 2003; Neuman & Simmons, 2000). Lambert (1998) views leadership as an organizational property which is opposed to a behavioral trait that is found within certain individuals. Thus a principal is responsible not only for building his or her own capacity, but also that of teachers and supporting the professional development of their staff. So teachers with content area expertise are encouraged to take on leadership roles in their areas of strength and beyond their classroom duties. (Camburn, et al., 2003; Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson, &Hann, 2002; Katzenmeryer&Moller, 2001). They are usually called model teachers. Model teachers can act as curricular leaders, guiding staff development, sharing successful practices and serving as teaching supervisors, club advisors and mentors to students etc.. Administrators who support teacher leadership also have learned that when they give out some of their authority to teachers they can unlock the creative powers of teachers and get innovative solutions to problems. (Barth, 2001, p.49)

2. Shared values and vision

Members of a PLA have shared values and vision. A spirit of mutual trust and caring exists among teachers. They work interdependently in collaborative teams in an effort to achieve the common goal that is for the improvement of students' learning. They view their peers as resources and recognize the value they contribute as well. Every one in the community buys into the shared vision, understands the goals and agrees on the actions to be taken. Once the shared values and vision are established, teachers are no longer just responsible for what goes on within the four walls of their classroom, but the whole school at large. Students are no longer taken as my students, but rather our students.

3. Collective learning and application

"Collective learning" or "team learning" is defined by Senge (1994, p.42) as the process of learning how to learn collectively. For most teachers, it is unfamiliar because teachers have the long tradition of working in self-contained classrooms isolated from peer interaction during the workday. Team learning unifies teachers toward a shared vision and coherence. In a PLA teachers collaborate in teaching skill and matters which are connected with students. Collegial behavior includes collegial discussion of teaching skills, sharing teaching resources, or observing one another's class. As Fullan (2005) points out, "It is not just workshops and professional development for all. It is the daily habit of working together." Lambert (2003, p.44) also advocates for team learning as "it is mutual and interactive, thereby investing in the growth of all participants"

4. Supportive conditions

Professional learning community (PLA) provides a favorable environment for teachers study by nourishing a cooperative and supportive school culture. Being involved in this network offers teachers the opportunity to see themselves as part of a broader profession, where teachers are supported in learning new knowledge and skills and are encouraged to help others to learn, they are provided with the needed assistance, guidance and coaching. In the positive environment, teachers experience general satisfaction.

5. Shared personal practice

Teacher professional learning community is a community of teachers and teaching practice, in which teachers can improve their work by learning "tacit knowledge" of their colleagues which are called by Wenger (1998). Fullan (1999, p.15) also mentioned the importance of sharing tacit knowledge, saying "the secret to success of living companies, complex adaptive system, learning community or whatever terms we use, is that they consist of intricate, embedded interaction inside and outside the organization which converts tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge on an ongoing basis". In the case of teacher professional learning community, teachers can share tacit knowledge through collegiate and collaborative activities in their daily work such as collegial conversations, coaching sessions, shared decision-making, as well as other interactive events.

B. Teacher Professional Development

In the educational reform of the new millennium around the world, teachers are regarded as both the objects and subjects of change, thus making teachers' professional development become an ever-growing and challenging area that has got great focus in the past years. On studying the recent educational literature, it can be generally concluded that teachers' professional development includes: (Guskey, 2000) "opportunities for educators to discuss, think about, try out, and hone new practices in an environment that values inquiry"; formal experiences such as attending professional meetings, collegiate discussion and cooperation in workshops, guiding novice teachers etc. , the informal experiences like reading professional books and magazines, watching teaching videos etc. (Ganser, 2000).

To summarize, the new tendency of teacher professional development is the traditional "in-service training" being replaced by a long-term process which emphasizes regular systematically-planned opportunities and activities to promote the growth and development of their profession. It is also conceived of as a collaborative process. This new path moves educators away from a view of teaching as a solitary activity, owned personally by each teacher. The view of teaching profession can be regarded as the activity with open access to cooperative observations, learning, and improving their teaching capability. It makes common teachers realize and accept the notion that they are responsible for honing not only their own practice, but also the shared activities of their colleagues. For the newly explored path, however, teachers will need to open their classroom doors and studying their practices as a professional responsibility, rather than only evaluating each other. (Hiebert, Gallimore, and Stigler, 2003)

III.   THE INTRODUCTION OF PROFESSIONAL LEARNING COMMUNITY TO COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

A.   The Necessity of Introducing Professional Learning Community into College English Teachers' Professional Development

Although cooperation is regarded as a powerful resource for sharing knowledge among teachers and advancing professional development, engaging all teachers in professional cooperation still remains one of the greatest challenges for teacher-leaders. (Liberman & Miller, 2004; Little, 2003; Neufeld & Roper, 2002; Smylie & Perry, 2005) As teaching is an isolated profession and autonomy is highly regarded. Many teachers are reluctant to allow their colleagues to get into their classrooms for fear that they will be evaluated or judged (Johnson & Donaldson, 2007). It is also true in the case of most college English teachers in China's higher education according to lots of the academic research papers concerning teachers' professional development published in recent years. In 2012, two university English teachers and I made a survey on college English teacher professional collaboration in three universities in Shan dong province. Shan dong province is an economically middle-level province in China, and the three universities we choose are respectively one nationally key university, one provincially key university and a common one. So the sample is of the representative significance. Among the 260 interviewees, about 90% of them show reluctance to allow other teachers to observe their teaching; 85% dislike to show the way of their teaching to their colleagues even though the teaching effect is good in their classroom, saying that it is quite another thing to get up in front of your coworkers and tell them they should teach

differently, which is especially true for some young teachers who think that they are not qualified to introduce their experience to the veterans; 80% are unwilling to share academic research with their colleagues because of peer competition in promotion. In the culture of isolation and competition, most interviewed teachers show they feel lonely and helpless in professional development.

What role the administrators of the university department play in supporting college English teachers' professional development? According to the survey, the professional development supporting activities of the administrators include giving teachers chance to attend academic conference or receive professional training during summer vacation, inviting experts to give lectures, holding academic saloon within the university department, veteran teachers coaching the fresh ones, encouraging teachers to be visiting scholars inland or abroad.

How about the effects of these professional development supporting activities? The following chart is the voting results of the interviewed teachers:
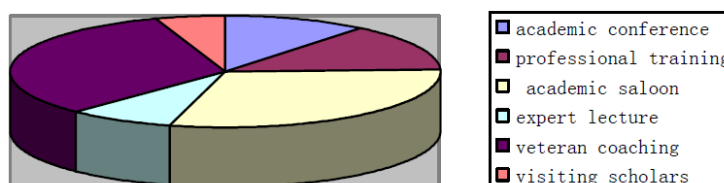
From the chart it can be seen the percentages of teachers choosing academic conferences, professional training sessions and being visiting scholars are respectively below 40%, more than 50% of the teachers choose academic saloon within the university department and veteran teachers coaching as more effective ways to get professional development. From further interviews we get to know most teachers admit the summer vacation conferences held by publishing companies in a large part are taken as the teachers' tour experience instead of a serious academic activity; as for professional training sessions, some teachers say they are usually unrelated to teachers' work; only 10% choose being visiting scholars, because at present most teachers cannot get the chance. The reason that more than 50% of the teachers choose academic saloon within the university department and veteran teachers coaching is that they are most approachable and related to their daily work.

In a conclusion, collaborative professional development mode is preferred by most college English teachers, as it is based on constructivism rather than the top-down training-oriented model. Teachers hope to be regarded as active learners, learning from each other collaboratively by engaging the concrete task of teaching, assessment, observing colleague teaching and reflecting their own teaching practice in the professional community.

B.   The Approaches to Introducing PLA into College English Teachers' Professional Development

1. Organizational Restructure

Organizational structure decides how power is exercised and how administrators provide their support to promote teachers' professional development. Research has demonstrated that traditional, hierarchical school structures put barriers to shared leadership (Forster, 1997), as it involves the concept of one leader, which is considered synonymous with the boss and supervisor, coupled with the traditional patterns of dependency relationships. Shared leadership is inhibited by the hierarchical structures isolating teachers, and that reinforce core professional norms such as autonomy and privacy.

In most higher education of china, the traditional, hierarchical structure is still the popular organizational form, with the dean as the sole leader in university department who deals with all the managerial affairs and designs the activities related to teachers' professional development, while teachers as the passive receiver of all kinds of training. The rare chances of active participation and the culture of isolation and competition make most teachers lack the impetus in professional development. So in order to turn the traditional teachers' group into a professional learning community, the hierarchical organization structure must be transformed first.

First introduced in the mid 1900's, distributed leadership has emerged as a tool to effectively fight against the frustrations of the traditional, hierarchical structure. In distributed leadership, leadership is spread over an organization, rather than resting in the hands of a few at the top of an organizational hierarchy (Bennett, et al., 2003; Lambert, 1998; Ogawa & Bossert, 1995; Pounder, Ogawa, &Adams, 1995; Spillane, et al., 2001). It encourages every teacher connected with school to be responsible for the progress of students and to take on leadership positions in the fields of their competence. Teacher leadership is no longer seen as a function of age, position, or job title. In fact, it is a characteristic of a community rather than an individual and is a responsibility taken on with the agreement of the community (Neuman & Simmons, 2000). Distributed leadership continuum reflects total decentralization of leadership authority, which results in a flatter organization structure and a more powered, effective organization, "where teachers can continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, where new and expansive patterns of thinking are nurtured, where collective aspiration is set free, and where people are continually learning to see the whole together" (Senge, 1990). In the case of China's higher education, the dean of the department should distribute leadership

by encouraging teachers with different specialties such as classroom teaching, linguistic study, literature study, cross-culture study, educational theory research to take on leadership duties in organizing different academic groups. In this way, teachers are provided with more opportunities to exercise their strengths within their organization. Besides the formal positions in different academic groups, teachers' informal leadership should also be encouraged, through which more teachers can involve themselves into sharing their successful experience or skills with peers. For example, a teacher may be asked to share some recent research at a staff meeting, or lead a kiosk on a specific topic of interest, or share a useful teaching strategy with each other. In this way, most college English teachers can change the former passive professional development mode into the active and self-driven one.   Teachers become the subject of their own professional development instead of the object of being changed.

2. The Change of Teachers' Mental Models

"Mental models" (Senge et al., 1994) determine the details each of us pays attention to and shapes our actions. The differences in mental models can be reflected in the innate levels of trust and how that shapes a person's behavior. For example, a person who believes others are basically trustworthy, may interact with new acquaintances more freely than those who don't trust other people.

In the case of college English teachers in China, because of long-time working in the isolating and competitive culture, most of them have the mental model of competition instead of the cooperation with others, they are not accustomed to the style of working together and team learning is a difficult way of being both intellectually and socially, which in fact, create barriers to teachers' professional development, as they waste the most valuable learning resource — their peers. So it is imperative for the administrators in the higher education of China to foster the culture of group development. Some measures must be taken, for example, dedicating professional time toward a collective understanding of group development and ways to intervene to foster group development; keeping the vision of collaborative practice as a genuine priority, rather than an add-on (Leonard & Leonard, 2003; Garmston & Wellman, 1999); changing the rewarding form from individual to collective etc..

3. Models of Teacher Professional Development Activities in a PLA

The characteristics of teacher development activities in a PLA reflect the developing trend of recent educational research in teachers' professional development which is changing from 'sit-and-get' workshops on general topics to teacher-driven efforts to identify and find solutions to teaching problems related to their teaching practice. The three examples below which focus on new teachers' professional development, doing academic research and learning cooperation show us some possible approaches to the problem respectively.

Mentoring New Teachers: guiding new teachers gives both the new and master teachers chances to learn from each other. It is especially effective on helping the new one learn how to cope with the daily teaching challenges. Supervising happens around practices like observing peer class, assisting preparing lessons, teaching feedback, and cooperative teaching. It directly influenced the teaching attitude, teachers' efficacy and expansion of their teaching strategies. (Smith, 2002).

Learning Collaboration: "Teacher learning is most likely when teachers collaborate with professional peers, both within and outside of their schools, and when they gain further expertise through access to external researchers and program developers" (King & Newmann, 2000, p. 576). Teachers' learning cooperation can encourage continual inquiry and reflection through active learning. It is a very significant form of professional development to teachers because they can wield the ownership of its content and process by engaging in peer discussions, cooperative planning and learning as parts of their professional development activities. For example, teachers can have a content-based collaborative inquiry about a new teaching method by posing questions about data collection and analysis, its effects on the learners' reflection. Then they can share the results with peers, and collaboratively create corresponding solutions. During this process, teachers deepen their knowledge of subject and educational theories which supplement student learning accordingly (Bray, Gause-Vega, Goldman, Secules, & Zech, 2000). Teachers can also develop teaching materials addressing students' learning requirements by creating models about how students think and solve problems.   This process provides possibilities for teachers to have a better understandings of their teaching subject and they work out ways to teach it more successfully (Carpenter, Fennema, Franke, & Levi, 2001).

Colleague Observation: observing peer's class practice is another model of utilizing colleague collaboration to support teachers' instructional advancement and professional development. It is a process of several steps in which teachers cooperatively prepare their lesson plan, learn together and advance their teaching skills. A member of the teaching community gives a lesson and the others observe in details. After class, teaching community members get together and have a discussion of their observation details and make efforts to provide strategies of further improving the lesson. After teaching the revised lesson again to a different class, the above steps such as detailed-observation, cooperatively analyzing data and revising lesson plan is made once again.

Collaborative Lesson Planning: the same teaching material and similarity in students' language levels make it possible for college English Teachers to cooperate with each other in lesson planning. Lesson planning can be a part of the staff meeting, in which teachers can talk about their lesson plans freely, exchange ideas about how to design a certain lesson, share adds-on teaching material and power points. In this way, teachers can not only save time in preparing lessons but also effectively enrich their lessons by adopting new strategies from their peers.

Academic Research Teams: teachers with different specialties such as classroom teaching, linguistic study, literature

study, cross-culture study, educational theory research can be organized into different academic groups. In this way, teachers are provided with more opportunities to exercise their strengths within their organization.

IV. Conclusion

Professional learning community is a new term to most college English teachers and administrators in China's higher education, though it has been taken by many western countries as an effective way to promote teacher professional development. It emphasizes the collaborative developing mode which offers teachers the opportunity to see themselves as part of a broader profession, where they are supported in broadening teachers' knowledge and skills and are encouraged to help each other in learning, which can reduce teachers' feeling of isolation in professional development due to the competitive culture. This paper only makes a brief introduction of the professional learning community and gives some suggestion of how to involve college English teachers' professional development into it. The author of this paper thus hopes this thesis would be valuable for further discussion in this area and more teachers and administrators would take efforts to put it into practice.

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The Effectiveness of Dictogloss in Developing General Writing Skill of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners

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Abstract—**Recent research has shown the need for activities that provide an environment for students to focus their attention on both form and meaning. Dictogloss, introduced by Wajnryb in1990, can be considered as a way for integrating form and meaning in the learning context. This study investigated the effect of dictogloss on Iranian EFL learners' general writing skill. The participants receiving a pre- test and post-test were divided into equal groups in the form of experimental and control group, but only the former received task-based instruction while the latter was exposed to the mainstream of controversial instruction. Going through rigorous and multiple statistical analyses such as data normality check, instrument validation and running mainly certain parametric statistics, the study revealed two distinctive manifestations: integrative and discrete. Integratively, the treatment affected positively the participants' general writing ability, however, discretely the effects on the organization and mechanics were positive, while content, usage and vocabulary dimensions of their writing were not much affected.**

Index Terms—**dictogloss, writing skill, writing component**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language teaching and learning have gone through a transient pass. It has reached to the point that more communicative approaches and techniques are used. However, Pica (2000) indicates that neither traditional methods nor more recent, communicative approaches, used alone, have been able to address the scope and level of English proficiency required for participation in today's global community. It seems plausible to integrate both. Moreover, as cited in Nassaji (2000,p.242) "many second language acquisition researchers now argue that exposure to language is not enough (DeKeyser, 1998; Doughty, 1991; Harley, 1998; Harley & Swain, 1984; Lightbown, 1991, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Robinson, 1996; Spada & Lightbown, 1993; Swain, 1985)". Advocating a more form-focused approach, these researchers argue that focusing solely on message is not enough so, some sort of form-focused activities in the communicative classroom contexts need to be included. Ellis (2001) believes that recent findings of classroom research also appear to demonstrate that form-focused instruction is beneficial to learners in modifying their interlanguage grammar, thereby leading to improved linguistic accuracy in language use .Moreover he states what is established in recent literature is the characterization of Focus on Form (FonF) as a pedagogical intervention that focuses primarily on meaning while attending to such linguistic elements as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation via communicative tasks. Shak mentions "FonF is different from Focus on Forms (FonFs) instruction in that its emphasis is mostly on discrete pre-selected form(s), and it typically involves intensive and systematic treatment of those linguistic elements. Moreover, there is usually a lack of correspondence between the forms practiced and their use in 'real' discourse" (2006, p.47).

Nassaji (2000) suggests that using collaborative tasks requiring learners to get involved in deliberate and cooperative comprehension and production of the language, e.g., through the use of dictogloss (DG) can be a way of integrating (FonF) and communication by process. "Dictogloss is defined as a classroom dictation activity where learners listen to a passage, note down key words and then work together to create a reconstructed version of the text. It was originally introduced by Ruth Wajnryb (1990) as an alternative method to teaching grammar" (Vasiljevic, 2010, p.41).

Shak (2006) considers dictogloss as a type of FonF task which proposes to provide a meaning-focused context to raise learners' awareness of the discoursal use of the target linguistic feature. Furthermore, Al-Sibai (2008) regards it as an integration of both traditional and communicative notions. According to Pica (1997), dictogloss is an effective way to integrate traditional concerns for grammar instruction with the communicative technique of pair-work or group-work.

Dictogloss (DG) works its way up in the research context by presenting several advantages. First, its discourse-oriented view of language has made DG popular in EFL methodology because it emphasizes on the meaning of a whole text (Mayo, 2002; Thornbury, 1997). Second, DG can provide multiple opportunities to draw L2 learners' attention to target linguistic forms in meaningful contexts (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985) holds that

learners' strife to produce comprehensible output would prompt internalization, and thus acquisition of target forms. Qin (2008) considers 'metatalk' or 'Language Related Episodes' (LREs) as the most empirically examined benefit of DG. During dialogues in collaborative tasks (e.g. reconstruction), learners can be prompted to notice linguistic problems and then engage in discussing language forms so that meaning can be made clearer (Al-Sibai, 2008). Therefore, providing meaningful contexts, a chance for L2 learners to both pay attention to and negotiate forms, is another important benefit of DG. Furthermore, Jacobs and Small (2003) believe that "among the reasons given for advocating the use of dictogloss are that students are encouraged to focus some of their attention on form and that all four language skills" (p.2). By and large, DG might be considered as an omnipotent task, shedding light on various aspects. Its effect on writing skill was investigated by Jacob and Small in 2003.

Till now many researchers (Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Storch, 1998; Nabei, 1996; Lim & Jacobs, 2001; Shak, 2006; Al-Sibai, 2008) have worked on dictogloss to discern its effects on language learning especially on listening, vocabulary and grammar skills. Nevertheless, a more fruitful avenue would be to be well-versed in its impact on writing skill. To this end, this study sought to explore the possible improvement of learners' writing achievement through dictogloss activity. More specifically, the study aimed at exploring the effect of dictogloss on learners' writing in general and its areas including content, organization, vocabulary, language usage, and mechanics in particular.

Research Null Hypotheses

Concretely speaking, the problem and purpose of the study are raised in the form of a major null hypothesis followed by five minor hypotheses, each addressing a separate area of writing skill.

H01: Dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' general writing ability accommodating five main areas including: writing content, organization, vocabulary, language usage, and mechanics areas.

II. Methodology

A. Participants

The participants of the study were 70 Iranian EFL learners from Tehran Institute of Technology with an age range of 21-48. Based on their position on the normal probability distribution table, 7 of them were discarded as outliers. Moreover, 3 learners were considered as missing participants since they did not answer the questionnaire completely. By and large, 60 learners composed the final sample of this research. Out of 60 participants, 35 of whom were female and 25 were male.

B. Instrumentation

To conduct this study, a number of instruments including material and tests were used.

Texts

For the purpose of this study the pre-intermediate level of "Let's Talk" by Leo Jones (2007) was chosen, following Read's advice (2006) that the text be comprehensible to the learners.

The length of the text was set based on synthesis of Read's (2009) and Nabei's ideas (1996). The length of the texts was not as short as Read's proposal to avoid both the memorization of the texts but to let learners get the general idea and rely on their creativity in text reconstruction phase. The topics were many argumentative to boost up conversation and let learners talk more for reaching a conclusion. For this particular purpose, eight dictogloss texts were prepared. All the while, parameters such as the topics of each text, their level of difficulty, and their length were taken into account. Moreover, in order to make sure of the consistency of reading speed, texts were read by a tape.

Key English Test (KET)

Before rendering the treatment, the researchers tried to make sure of the homogeneity of groups and since learners were pre-intermediate level, the Key English Test (KET) was utilized for the selection of homogenous sample.

Researcher-made Tests

Furthermore, argumentative composition was set as a post and pretest to diagnose participants' writing ability prior to the treatment and to measure the progress following the treatment.

C. Procedure

Initially, the KET was administered to select a homogeneous sample, whereby those who scored only two standard deviation below and above the mean represented the sample of this study. Then, to assess their writing proficiency, the participants were required as a pre-test to write an argumentative composition. On the basis of convenient sampling, they were assigned to two groups; one control group and one experimental group. The former was exposed to conventional teaching, but latter to dictogloss. Although a semester lasts for 11 sessions, only 9 sessions were dedicated to the experiment since the first and the last sessions were for administering the pre- and posttest.

The experimental group received instruction on the steps of dictogloss including preparation, dictation, note-taking, reconstruction. At the beginning of the activity, before reading the text for the first time, the participants were reminded not to write down but only to listen for general meaning. And before the second reading, they were asked to take note what they thought would be important for them to reconstruct the passage. Once the whole class grasped the steps on doing the dictogloss, they were told that this session was only a trial session and that they were required to go through

the same procedures for the next 8 sessions. Eventually, the posttest was administered during the 6th session to explore the extent to what the treatment benefited participants.

Using analytic scoring method (Heaton, 1988), two raters scored their writing performance both prior to and after the treatment.

III. RESULTS

Data analysis went through a sequential steps and procedures including normality check, instrument validation, and testing the hypotheses based on parametric statistics; t-test, ANCOVA and a paired-samples t-test.

Commonly, four assumptions of interval data, independence, normality check and homogeneity of variances should be met before running any parametric statistics (Field, 2009). Measured on an interval scale, the data enjoyed the assumptions of independence since none of the subjects participated in more than one group. The assumption of normality as measured through the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their respective standard errors (Field, 2009) is displayed in Table 1 in which the ratios of skewness and kurtosis over their standard errors are all within the ranges of plus and minus 1.96.

TABLE 1.
NORMALITY TESTS

	Skewness			Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Std. Error	Normality	Statistic	Std. Error	Normality
KET	-.236	.309	-0.76	-1.235	.608	-2.03
PRETESTWR	-.572	.309	-1.85	-.425	.608	-0.70
POSTESTWR	-.264	.309	-0.85	-.727	.608	-1.20

Furthermore, in order to ensure the homogeneity of groups at the very beginning of the term, a Mann-Whitney U test was used. Based on the results displayed in Table 2, it can be concluded that the experimental group (Mdn = 83) did not significantly differ from the control group (Mdn = 82) on the KET, U = 491, z = -0459, ns, r = −.059.

TABLE 2.
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST KET BY GROUP

	KET
Mann-Whitney U	419.000
Wilcoxon W	884.000
Z	-.459
Sig. (2-tailed)	.646
r	−.059

A. Instrument Validation

To make sure of the validity and reliability of the writing tests, in addition to content validity, reliability coefficient was also estimated. As Table 3 presents, both the inter-rater reliability index for the two raters who rated the writings on pretest and posttest are .96 (P = .000 < .05).

TABLE 3.
INTER-RATER RELIABILITY PRETEST AND POSTTEST

		Pretest Rater 2	Posttest Rater 2
Pretest Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	.961**	-
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	-
	N	60	-
Posttest Rater 1	Pearson Correlation	-	.962**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	.000
	N	-	60
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

B. Hypotheses Testing

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on pretest of writing in order to prove that the two groups enjoyed the same level of writing ability prior to the main study. As displayed in Table 4, the mean scores for experimental and control groups on pretest of writing are 78.53 and 78.85, respectively.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRETEST OF WRITING BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control	30	78.8500	8.209	1.4988
Experimental	30	78.5333	9.134	1.6678

The results of the independent t-test in Table 5 (t (58) = .14, P = .88> .05) indicate that there is not any significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the pretest of writing, because the t-observed (.14) is less than the t-critical (i.e. 2.02) at .05 level of significance.

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST PRETEST OF WRITING BY GROUPS

.1	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances			t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed		.75	.45	.14	58	.888	.316	2.24	-4.17	4.80
Equal variances not assumed				.14	57.3	.888	.316	2.24	-4.17	4.80

As also displayed in Graph 1, the mean of pretest of writing by groups (experimental vs. control) was 78.53 and 78.85 respectively. Obviously, the graphs were not statistically different prior to the treatment.
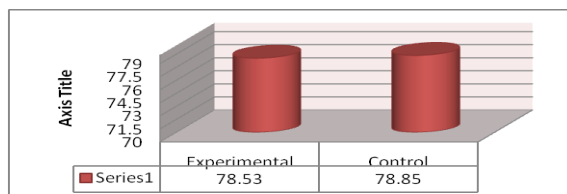
Graph *1*. Pretest of Writing by Groups

C. Testing the Major Hypothesis

The major hypothesis assuming "dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' general writing ability" was tested on the basis of ANCOVA.

As displayed in Table 6, the mean scores for experimental and control groups on posttest of writing are 86.46 and 84.31, respectively. The experimental group after receiving dictogloss treatment outperformed the control group on the posttest of writing.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS POSTTEST OF WRITING BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	86.466	9.21761	1.68290
Control	30	84.316	8.66571	1.58214

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on posttest of writing in order to probe that the effect of dictogloss on the improvement of the writing ability of the Iranian EFL learners while controlling for possible effects of their entry knowledge as measured through the pretest. Besides the four assumptions discussed above, ANCOVA is based on two more assumptions, i.e. homogeneity of regression slope and linear relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable. As displayed in Scatter Plot 2, the assumption of homogeneity of regression slope is met, in that both experimental (dotted line) and control groups (solid line) show the same regression slopes.
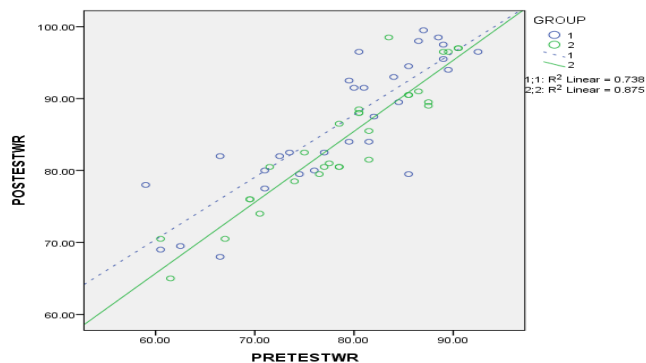
Scatter Plot 2. Homogeneity of Regression Slope

The second assumption, i.e. linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate was examined within the main table of ANCOVA results. The F-observed value for the covariate is significant (F (1, 57) = 226.61, P = .000 < .05). Since F-ratio is (226.61) larger than 1, it can be concluded that there is a linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate. Thus the second assumption is also met (Table 7).

TABLE 7.
ANCOVA POSTTEST WRITING BY GROUPS WITH PRETEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
PRETESTWR	3708.834	1	3708.83	226.615	.000
GROUP	89.389	1	89.389	5.46	.023
Error	932.874	57	16.366		
Total	442215.250	60			

Furthermore, based on Table 7 the F-observed value for the effect of the independent variable (dictogloss vs. control) is significant (F (1, 57) = 5.46, P = .023 < .05), because F-ratio is (5.46) larger than 1, therefore, it is claimed that the treatment has had a significant effect.

D. Testing the Minor Hypotheses

Content Factor

The first minor hypothesis entitled "dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' ability to develop appropriate contents when writing in English" was targeted by running t-test.

Since the assumption of homogeneity of regression slope was not met, an independent gained t-test was run instead of ANCOVA to investigate the effect dictogloss on the improvement of the Iranian EFL learners' ability in developing appropriate content when writing in English.

As displayed in Table 8, the mean gained scores for the experimental and control groups are 1.41 and 1.63.

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS CONTENT GAINED SCORE BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	1.416	4.27	.77980
Control	30	1.6333	1.71	31251

As presented in Table 9, the results of the independent t-test (t (58) = .258, P = .798 > .05) indicate that there is not any significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the gained score of the content. Since t-observed (i.e. .25) is less than the respective t-critical (i.e. 2.02) at 58 df and 0.5 level of significance, data failed to reject the first minor null-hypothesis as dictogloss does not significantly effect developing EFL learners' ability to develop appropriate content while writing in English.

TABLE 9.
INDEPENDENT GAINED T-TEST CONTENT GAINED SCORE BY GROUPS

|	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	4.976	.030	.258	58	.797	.21	.84	-1.46	1.89
Equal variances not assumed			.258	38.08	.798	.21	.84	-1.48	1.91

Organization Factor

The second minor hypothesis assuming "dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' ability to develop appropriate organization when writing in English" was tested on the basis of ANCOVA.

As displayed in Table 10, the mean scores for experimental and control groups on posttest of writing organization are 18.61 and 16.66, respectively.

TABLE 10.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS POSTTEST OF WRITING ORGANIZATION BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error of mean
Experimental	30	18.6167	1.7552	.32046
Control	30	16.6667	2.2488	.41059

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on posttest of writing organization in order to probe that the effect of dictogloss on the improvement of the writing organization of the Iranian EFL learners while controlling for possible effects of their entry knowledge as measured through pretest. As displayed in Scatter Plot 3, the assumption of homogeneity of regression slope is met. Both experimental (above) and control (below) show the same regression slopes.
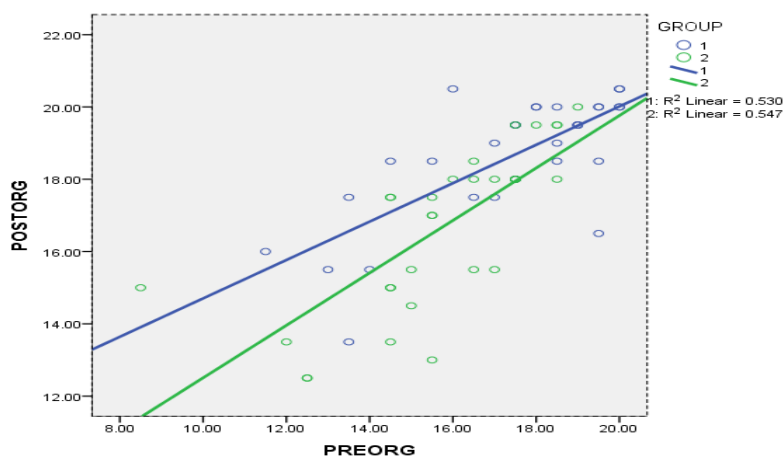
Scatter Plot 3. Homogeneity of Regression Slop

The second assumption, i.e. linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate is examined within the main table of ANCOVA results. The F-observed value for the covariate is significant ($F_{(1, 57)} = 63.77$, $P = .000 < .05$). Since F-ratio is (63.77) larger than 1, it can be concluded that there is a linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate. Thus the second assumption is also met (Table 11).

According Table 11, the F-observed value for the effect of the independent variable (dictogloss vs. control) is significant ($F_{(1, 57)} = 5.91$, $P = .018 < .05$). Since F-ratio is (5.91) larger than 4.01, the second minor null-hypothesis as dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' ability to develop appropriate organization when writing in English is rejected.

TABLE 11.
ANCOVA POSTTEST WRITING ORGANIZATION BY GROUPS WITH PRETEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PRETEST ORG	124.620	1	124.62	63.771	.000
GROUP	11.564	1	11.564	5.917	.018
Error	111.388	57	1.954		
Total	18966.750	60			

Graph 4 shows the mean of posttest of writing organization by groups (experimental vs. control) are 18.62 and 16.67, respectively.
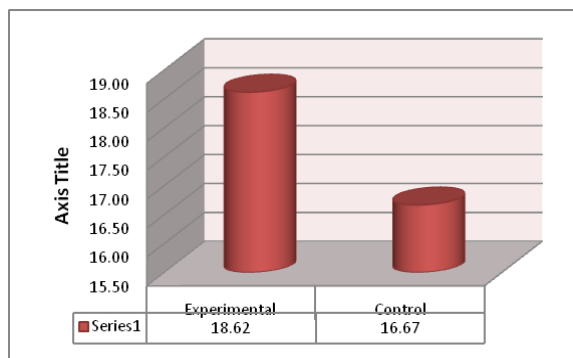
Graph 4. Posttest of Writing Organization by Groups

Vocabulary Factor

The third minor hypothesis entitled "dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' ability to use appropriate vocabulary when writing in English" was tested by running t-test. As displayed in Table 12 the mean gained scores for the experimental and control groups are 1.60 and 1.33.

TABLE 12.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS VOCABULARY GAINED SCORE BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	1.600	2.04434	.37324
Control	30	1.333	1.79719	.32812

Based on Table 13, the results of the independent t-test (t (58) = .537, P = .594> .05) indicate that there is not any significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores. Since t-observed (i.e. 0.53) is less than the respective t-critical (i.e. 2.02) at 58 df and 0.5 level of significance, the data failed to reject the third minor null-hypothesis as dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' ability to use appropriate vocabulary when writing in English.

TABLE 13.
INDEPENDENT GAINED T-TEST VOCABULARY GAINED SCORE BY GROUPS

	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	.003	.955		.53	58	.594	.26	.49	-.72	1.26
Equal variances not assumed				.53	57.06	.594	.26	.49	-.72	1.26

Usage Factor

The fourth minor hypothesis assuming "dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' ability to develop appropriate language usage when writing in English" was tested on the basis of ANCOVA.

As displayed in Table 14 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on posttest of writing content are 18.61 and 16.66 respectively.

TABLE14.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS POSTTEST OF WRITING ORGANIZATION BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	18.6167	1.75521	.32046
Control	30	16.6667	2.24888	.41059

An analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on posttest of language usage in order to probe that the effect of dictogloss on the improvement of the language use of the Iranian EFL learners while controlling for possible effects of their entry knowledge as measured through pretest. As displayed in Scatter Plot 5, the assumption of homogeneity of regression slope is met. Both experimental (above) and control (below) groups show the same regression slopes.
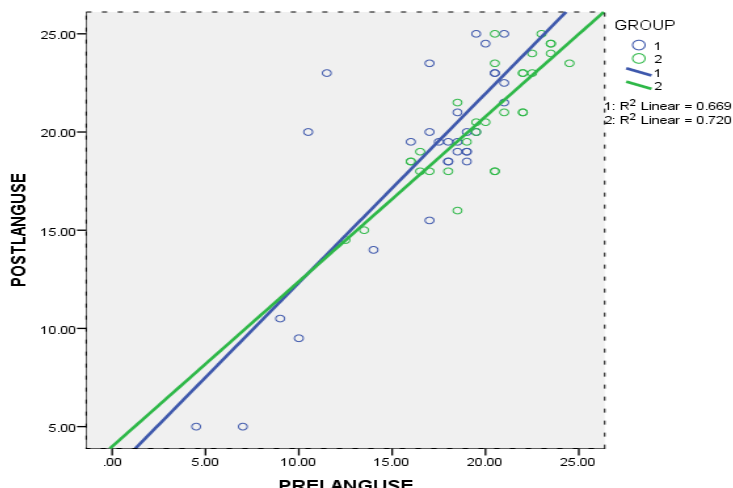
Scatter Plot 5. Homogeneity of Regression Slope

The second assumption, i.e. linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate is examined within the main table of ANCOVA results. As presented in Table 16 the F-observed value for the covariate is significant ($F_{(1, 57)} = 120.54$, P = .000 < .05). Since F-ratio (120.54) is larger than 1, it can be concluded that there is a linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate. Thus the second assumption is also met (Table 15).

TABLE 15.
ANCOVA POSTTEST LANGUAGE USAGE BY GROUPS WITH PRETEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
PRETEST ORG	714.554	1	714.554	120.54	.000
GROUP	13.295	1	13.295	2.24	.140
Error	337.888	57	5.928		
Total	24373.250	60			

The F-observed value for the effect of the independent variable (dictogloss vs. control) is not significant ($F_{(1, 57)} = 2.24$, P = .140 > .05). Since F-ratio (2.24) is less than 4.01, it can be concluded that there is not any significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the posttest of language usage after controlling for possible effect of their entry knowledge as measured through the pretest. Thus, the data failed to reject the fourth minor null-hypothesis as dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' ability to employ appropriate language usage when writing in English.

Mechanics Factor

The fifth minor hypothesis entitled "dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' ability to use appropriate mechanics when writing in English" was tested by running t-test.

As displayed in Table 16 the mean gained scores for the experimental and control groups are 1.16 and .53, respectively

TABLE 16.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS MECHANICS GAINED SCORE BY GROUPS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Group				
Experimental	30	1.1667	1.28206	.23407
Control	30	.5333	.71840	.13116

Based on Table 17 the results of the independent t-test ($t_{(45)} = 2.36$, P = .023 < .05) indicate that there is a significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the gained score of the mechanics because t-observed (i.e. 2.36) is more than the respective t-critical (i.e. 2.02) at 58 df and 0.5 level of significance. Thus the fifth minor null-hypothesis as dictogloss does not have any significant effect on developing EFL learners' ability to use appropriate mechanics when writing in English is rejected.

TABLE 17.
INDEPENDENT GAINED T-TEST MECHANICS GAINED SCORE BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	8.824	.004	2.36	58	.022	.63	.26	.09	1.17
Equal variances not assumed			2.36	45.5	.023	.63	.26	.09	1.17

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The primary goal of this study was to explore the effect of dictogloss on writing performance. In order to address the first research question, the data were collected to analyze through ANCOVA. The answer was statistically positive. The results suggest that there is a significant difference between the mean scores of experimental and control group. This finding is consistent with Jacobs and Small (2003) who reported the positive effect of dictogloss on writing performance.

Since the writing papers were scored analytically based on Heaton's five scales of measurement (1998), the researchers decided to compare each scale separately based on the participants' performance both prior and after the treatment.

The first scale was "content". These deals with how much learners write down relevantly regarding to topic. The result revealed no significant difference between experimental and control group's writing. It was found out both groups composed relevant; however, the experimental group could write more. While mostly learners nag about lack of idea in their compositions and also mention that they cannot write about this topic even in their mother tongues let alone English language, dictogloss provided them a great deal of ideas for each topic. So it shows that these ample of ideas during the 8 sessions of dictogloss widened the scope of their knowledge and helped them to write more for the post test. It might also be concluded that learners become more interested toward writing and this interest leads them to write more.

The second scale was "organization ". It concerns about how learners state their opinions and whether it is fluent or not. An analysis of covariance marked the effect of dictogloss on experimental group's writings regarding the organization. As indicated before, during dictogloss sessions learners were faced more ideas and opinions and their general knowledge started strengthening. Consequently, they had more supporting sentences and could link sentences better in their post writing.

As a third scale, Heaton mentions the "range of vocabulary" in writings. The result was statistically negative and contradicted the earlier study by Pishghadam (2011) who reported the effect of dictogloss on learning new vocabularies. Although during the semantic mapping learners were introduced new vocabularies and idioms, it seems that on one hand just facing new vocabularies is not enough for learning them and on the other hand writing through dictogloss is not long enough for learners to learn and practice new vocabularies. Furthermore, during the reconstruction stage learners were more integrated in propositional meaning of the text rather than in vocabulary learning.

The fourth scale was dedicated to "language usage" that is about language constructions. It focuses on whether learners have mastery of sentence construction rules or not. The finding was unexpected since a number of empirical studies (Storch, 1998; Nabei, 1996; Lim & Jacobs, 2001) investigating the effect of dictogloss on variance aspects of language performance, found the strong support for the efficacy of dictogloss. In fact, the result of this study seems to agree, to a large extent, with minority of studies (Kuiken &Vedder, 2002; Al-Siba, 2008) which found no significant difference in their participants' language performance especially in grammar. Kuiken and Vedder (2002) concluded that although the quantitative analysis does not show significant gains when learners are given the opportunity to interact, the results of the qualitative analysis seem to be promising. They further mentioned that the qualitative analysis, however, has revealed that interaction often stimulated noticing but not acquisition. Therefore there might be other factors like genre, subject, style and difficulty of the text that complicate the relationship between interaction, noticing and acquisition.

"Mechanics" was the fifth scale of the researcher's scoring rubric. It is concerned with spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and paragraphing. The result demonstrated that there was a significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the mechanics. Therefore, this finding confirms the previous study by Linden (1994) who considered dictogloss as a powerful technique for learning spelling and punctuations.

In conclusion, dictogloss has a positive effect on EFl learners' general writing. It can enhance their organization and mechanics but not content, language usage and vocabulary of EFL learners' writing.

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