Journal of Language Teaching and Research

ISSN 1798-4769

Volume 5, Number 1, January 2014

Contents

ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 1-11, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.1-11

How Does Focus on Form Affect the Revising Processes of ESL Writers?: Two Case Studies

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***Abstract*—This study considers the ongoing "grammar correction debate" in second language writing by examining how a focus on formal accuracy would affect the revising processes of ESL writers and the students' written products. A case study approach was used to find out how two ESL students would respond in the two different rewriting situations: (a) when there is no explicit expectation for them to produce grammatically correct text, and (b) when this expectation was clearly present. The protocol analysis and interviews with the participants showed that students' revision processes had not been affected by the kind of instruction and expectation given. In both tasks, students concentrated on building up their content, rather than attending to grammar and mechanics. The explicit instruction to work on the grammar did not result in a better written product in terms of formal accuracy, either. Based on these findings, this study claims that teaching and attending to grammar may not necessarily inhibit students from developing fluency and that ESL students do need guidance in developing skills in both rhetorical and formal aspects of English composition to be able to produce academically acceptable prose.**

***Index Terms*—focus on form, grammar correction, L2 writing**

I. Introduction

This study was launched to answer some of the critical questions involving the controversy about the efficacy of form-focused instruction in ESL composition classrooms. That is, does emphasis on formal correctness have a negative influence on ESL writers as they become skillful writers in English? Is emphasis on fluency more important and effective to help second language writers produce academically acceptable prose? Finally, in what methods can ESL composition teachers attend to grammar?

The process approach, originally developed by composition specialists in the field of first language (L1) writing, has also helped shape theoretical discussions on its efficacy with second language writers. Although second language writers are not a single definable entity as their needs vary as greatly as their diverse linguistic and educational backgrounds, major theoretical frameworks have been those laid by L1 composition scholars. However, it is imperative for ESL writing teachers to first understand what the various findings and arguments from the L1 writing research mean to *their* individual ESL students in their specific situations, and one of the best ways to come to the answers is by looking at the internal process of writing and revising through empirical research on the influence of grammar focus on the performance of ESL writers. Knowledge gained from such research will help close the gap between what the ESL writing teachers believe about teaching writing and what the students actually do when they write.

This study examines the internal processes of revision of the two ESL students using a "thinking-aloud" protocol technique. By analyzing the revising behaviors in two different revision tasks, which involve two different instruction conditions, this study examines how teachers' focus on grammar may affect the composing behaviors of their students. Although this study used a small sample, the insights gained from this research will contribute to ESL composition theory by raising important questions about common ESL pedagogical practices. First of all, this study will help teachers better understand the composing processes of ESL students in comparison with L1 composition processes, which will lead ESL writing teachers to question their own assumptions and classroom practices so that they can ultimately develop composition techniques which adequately reflect the unique needs of second language writers. In doing so, this study will help clear the confusion that many ESL composition teachers may have in choosing between the two seemingly opposing composition theories in planning their classroom instruction. Secondly, by analyzing the characteristics of the revision strategies of two selected ESL students, this study will also enable ESL teachers to understand what could be responsible for their own students' failure to produce successful writing.

II. Literature Review

Beginning in the late 1960s, L1 composition theorists presented criticism of the traditional approach that focused on acquiring formal accuracy, as they challenged the existing assumption that "writing is basically a matter of arrangement, of fitting sentences and paragraphs into prescribed patterns" (Kroll, 1990, p. 14). The revised perspective viewed writing as a product of a complex, recursive process, and therefore, the focus was placed on the process, rather than on the product. Growing out of this idea was that classroom instruction that focused on correctness was ineffective and studying grammar does not lead to improved writing (Hillocks, 1986, p. 138).

This new perspective reached the mainstream of ESL writing classroom by the late 1980s, as an increasing number of scholars argued that writing is not a linear process. Subsequently, terms such as "accuracy," "patterns," and "form" began to disappear in the composition texts during the 1980s and process-oriented terms such as "making meaning," "invention," "multiple drafts," and "peer review" began to appear. As L1 composition researchers such as Perl (1980), Sommers (1980), and Reither (1985) spoke strongly against the traditional, formulaic approach to teaching writing, many ESL composition professionals began to transport the major theoretical arguments seeded in L1 composition into the second language writing. This new approach gained general approval as studies done by ESL composition researchers such as Zamel (1983) and Raimes (1985) began to corroborate findings of L1 composition studies. Second language researchers such as Krashen (1984) and Raimes (1985) argued that techniques such as controlled composition and imitation were not compatible with the process approach, as composing means discovering meaning. Zamel (1983) reported that the writing processes of her advanced ESL writers showed recursiveness, like that of experienced L1 writers, and called for "a collaborate relationship with our students, drawing attention to problems, offering alternatives, and suggesting possibilities" (p. 97).

With this new emphasis upon the process and the writer, L2 writing practitioners began to omit grammar instruction, believing that it should be "delayed until writers have grappled with ideas and organization" (Raimes, 1991, p. 410). On a stronger, more definite note, Researchers such as Truscott (1996), Kepner (1991) and Sheppard (1992) argued that grammar correction is not only ineffective, but also harmful because focus on accuracy causes stress to students, and "students shorten and simplify their writing in order to avoid corrections" (Truscott, 1996, p. 355).

The debate is ongoing both in L1 and L2 writing classrooms as some L1 composition researchers, continued to claim that all students can benefit from grammar instruction, and that students need guidance in understanding and applying those aspects of grammar that are most relevant to writing. Einarsson (1999), for instance, asserted that grammar knowledge is essential because the knowledge heightens awareness of language, thereby leading to improved writing. Researchers such as Weaver (1996) and Noguchi (1991) also tried to show teachers how grammar can be effectively taught in the context of writing. Ferris (1999; 2002; 2004) presented various counterarguments to those made by Truscott and others who strongly believe that grammar correction does not work and is harmful, kindling a long lasting, inconclusive debate about whether or not teachers should attend to grammatical errors.

Various researchers in the past pointed out limited use of process-based instruction alone in L2 writing classrooms, arguing that rewarding students' fluency, at the expense of accuracy, may delay the development of writing skills needed to produce academically acceptable prose. Raimes (1985) called for reconsidering the place of formal instruction in ESL composition. Eskey (1983) similarly argued that even if students somehow learn to communicate, mastery of the forms does not take care of itself (p. 319), and therefore argued that formal instruction did have a critical place in L2 writing. The output theory in second language acquisition also provided a theoretical perspective for reconsidering the place of accuracy. As Terrel (1991) put it, "the learners' own output can become itself input to the acquisition process" (p. 61), signifying that grammar instruction has an important place for L2 writers (see Rutherford, 1987 and Van Patten, 1996).

Fathman and Whalley (1990) made an interesting observation about the role of grammar focus when they studied the revised products of their ESL writers. They discovered that when ESL students rewrote their papers with content feedback only, they tended to make more grammar mistakes, even though their content improved. Fathman and Whalley further pointed out that the identification of grammatical errors had a greater effect on the improvement of grammar accuracy than general feedback on content had on the improvement of content. In a study of 242 college-level ESL students which examined the role of grammar instruction in L2 writing, Yim (1998) also found that students' language proficiency improve significantly after formal grammar instruction. Based on her research findings, she argued that grammatical knowledge is an important element in gaining proficiency in all four skills areas including writing, reading, listening, and speaking. Horowitz (1986) also claimed that process-based instruction may mislead students by giving "a false impression of how university writing will be evaluated" (p. 143). He further charged that a process approach had an "almost exclusive concern with psycholinguistic, cognitive and affective variables" (1986, p. 446).

Regardless which position they take in this debate, researchers all agree that more research is needed (Ferris, 2004). Previous studies that center around this debate have mainly based their arguments on the product analysis to measure formal accuracy, and few studies have been conducted to reveal the internal process of writing. The goal of the current study is not to examine whether or not focus on form leads to more grammatically accurate written products, but rather to examine how the focus on formal accuracy affects the writing *process*, and to test some bold claims made by researchers and practitioners who have argued that attending to formal accuracy is counter-effective and harmful because it limits their capacity to produce more complex writing.

III. Method

Audiotaping or videotaping students while writing has been a common research tool for studies of the composing process. Although composition research literature has questioned the credibility and validity of protocol analysis (e.g., Cooper & Holzman 1983; Voss 1983), it has been found that L2 studies that have used the protocol analysis technique has produced more useful data than those that have not.

This study employed a thinking-aloud technique as a major research method and combined it with interviews and questionnaires. The protocol analysis not only made it possible to see where the students struggled most in the course of writing and what might best explain the students' difficulties, it also helped distinguish performance errors from competence errors.

Participants

I selected two ESL students who were enrolled in ESL English composition course that I previously taught. The course paralleled the freshman composition requirement for native speakers of English in its focus on analytical and research-oriented papers. The selection of the participants was done after reviewing in-class essays students wrote on the first day of class. All eight students in the class demonstrated their needs in grammar instruction to some extent, but I specifically considered two things when selecting the subjects: First, I wanted to exclude immigrants who had lived in the U.S. for several years because many, if not all, immigrant students' previous educational backgrounds would be similar to those of L1 students. Second, I wanted to select students whose writing contained frequent grammatical errors because this study involved a heavy focus on grammar. Based on these criteria, I chose two subjects—one female, the other male, who happened to be quite different in their backgrounds. Erlin (a pseudonym), the female student, had transferred from a university in Malaysia three months previously to study business as an undergraduate student. Hogyo (a pseudonym), the male student, had come from Indonesia five years previously and was a senior majoring in industrial engineering. In order to measure their grammatical skills demonstrated in the initial writing sample, I took the first twenty sentences and counted the number of grammatical and mechanical errors and averaged them. The number of grammar mistakes per sentence of the first participant's writing sample averaged 1.2 and that of the second participant averaged 1.5. Inferring that both students' writings could possibly contain at least one or more grammatical errors in every sentence, I considered the two students as qualified candidates for the study. Both students willingly agreed to participate in the study, which was generally described to them as "a study of the composing process of ESL students." The participants received 30 extra points for their daily work, equivalent to two daily assignments.

Data Collection

The data came from three sources: thinking-aloud protocols from four videotaped writing sessions; analysis of written products, including the originals and the revisions; and information gained from a number of audio-taped interview sessions with students. All of these sessions took place in the ESL writing lab when the lab was closed to other students.

The initial interview sessions provided information about the students' backgrounds related to writing and language learning. Information gained from the interviews provided a realistic perspective from which to analyze each student's overall process of writing. The initial interviews were followed by an orientation to the thinking-aloud technique. I met with each student individually at the ESL writing center to explain this technique and demonstrate it by completing a short writing task. The task modeled was unrelated to either of the two experimental tasks to be used in the study. I emphasized that continuous talking was the most important thing about providing a protocol for this study. Then I invited each student to practice giving a five-minute protocol while doing a practice writing task. To reduce distraction, I left the room and had each student talk into a tape-recorder while practicing the thinking-aloud technique. At the end of five minutes, I returned to the room and played back the tape to make sure the student had understood the thinking-aloud technique.

The participants performed two different writing tasks, and each task consisted of two videotaped sessions which lasted about fifty minutes each. Since lapse of time between drafts is important in the studies of revision processes, I planned the revision sessions to take place one day after the initial writing sessions. In the revision sessions, students were asked to rewrite their first drafts without having received any feedback, using their internalized standards. I hoped this approach would reveal whether students would recognize and correct grammar mistakes made during their initial effort to produce content.

Task 1

In the first session, the participants were invited to write to a real or an imaginary friend about American culture. The following instruction was given in task 1, session 1:

After arriving in the U.S., most international students experience problems adapting to the new culture. Suppose that one of your friends in your country is planning to study at an American university and has asked you to tell him/her what to expect in the new culture. Write an essay in which you describe what you have learned about American culture since you came to the U.S. Include any suggestions that may help your friend to adjust to American culture.

In the second session, they revised the preliminary draft produced in the first session. In asking the subjects to revise their writing, the instructions for the first task did not specify any areas to focus. Teacher expectation and intervention were zero to ensure that students applied their own knowledge and assumptions about writing and revision. The students were instructed to do as follows:

In a moment, I will hand back the paper you wrote last time, in the next forty-five minutes, please revise the paper as much as you can.

Task 2

The second writing task took place exactly one week after the first week. In this task, the students were invited to write about their own culture and were given the following instruction:

A group of American students are going to Malaysia/Indonesia to study as exchange students at a university. Before they leave the U.S., they want to get some information about your culture so that they know what to expect when they arrive there. Write an essay in which you introduce your culture and suggest ways to adjust to it.

Aside from the writing prompt, the second task differed from the first task primarily in the instruction given in the rewriting session. The instruction for the second revision was phrased in such a way that would reveal how grammar emphasis affected the outcome as well as the process of their revision. The students were directed to do the following:

In the next forty-five minutes, you are going to revise your paper in which you introduced your culture. Please try to make it as polished as possible, paying extra attention to grammar such as verb forms, tenses, articles, prepositions, sentence structures, word choice, etc.

Final interviews were held two weeks later after I had transcribed all the thinking-aloud protocols. This session allowed me to clarify any part of their verbalizations in the protocols that needed explanations, interpretations, or comments. Students were invited to reflect on the writing and rewriting sessions and address any difficulties or problems related to the writing tasks or to the thinking-aloud technique. Students were asked open-ended questions to prompt them to assess their own performance and to compare and contrast the two writing and rewriting sessions and explain whether, and how, the different instructions affected their writing.

Data Analysis

After incorporating the annotations the students provided in the final interview sessions, I completed a final version of each transcription. I divided the protocol transcripts into one-minute segments to be coded. Then I coded each segment using the final coding categories adapted from Perl (1978) and Johnson (1985). It was necessary to modify these coding systems because Perl's coding system, designed for a study of L1 writers, needed to be refined to aid in the identification of writing behaviors related specifically to revision strategies. Johnson's coding system, while useful in its modification of Perl's system to reflect L2 writing strategies, also needed to be adapted for this study because her coding system contains only two broad categories under rewriting strategies—Revising [R] and Editing [e]. I created a much more detailed coding scheme, which sub-categorizes several important types of revising strategies. The revised coding system is provided below along with a brief explanation of each behavior (see Appendix for full protocol charts):

1. **P**: General planning—discussing how one will proceed with the writing of the paper.
2. **p**: Local planning—talking about what idea will come next
3. **T**: Topic—repeating or rephrasing the topic or key words related to get a "handle" on it
4. **Ex**: Exploring—voicing ideas on the topic; tentatively finding one's way
5. **W**: Writing—composing aloud in such a way that what one is saying is actually being written at the same time
6. **WS**: Writing silently
7. **rd**: Reading related to the directions
8. **rp**: Reading related to one's written product
9. **R**: Revising; under the broad category of revising, the following sub-codes are used
    a. Revision in the content aspect
        i. **RC-add**: adding words, phrases, sentences, or syntactic markers
        ii. **RC-del**: deleting words, phrases, sentences, or syntactic markers
        iii. **RC-pg**: adding or deleting paragraphs
        iv. **RC-org**: making organizational changes
    b. Revision in the grammatical aspect
        i. **RG-v**: making or considering changes in verb form
        ii. **RG-pr**: adding or deleting prepositions
        iii. **RG-pun**: adding, deleting, or considering the use of punctuation
        iv. **RG-sp**: considering or changing spelling
        v. **RG-ss**: attempting to correct the sentence structure
        vi. **RG-art**: indicating concern for articles
        vii. **RG-etc**: other grammatical and mechanical aspects
10. **Reph**: Rephrasing the existing sentence(s) by recasting them, rather than correcting grammar
11. **wc**: Changes in word choice
12. **wf**: Trying to decide the word form
13. **voc**: Searching vocabulary
14. **C**: Conversing—voicing comments or questions about the task or about other matters
15. **A(+)/A(-)**: Assessing—making a judgment about one's writing; may be positive or negative
16. **s**: Periods of silence—very long pauses of ten seconds or more
17. **?**: Unintelligible segments

After each segment was coded, a chart was created to which all the category codes were transferred. This chart was used to analyze the general patterns in the writing and revising behaviors of each student (see Appendix for full protocol charts of revision process).

To ensure the inter-rater reliability of the process protocol and the product data, I had an outside verifier determine a measure of agreement with my judgment. A total of twenty one-minute segments were randomly selected from the transcriptions of the thinking-aloud protocols of each participant. An ESL teacher analyzed these segments and recoded the writing behaviors using the same criteria as the initial analysis. There was an 85 percent agreement.

IV. Results

Case Study 1

Erlin was a 23 year old female from Malaysia, majoring in business management. At the time of the study, she had been in the U.S. for only four months. She showed great enthusiasm for participating in the study. She expressed excitement by saying, "I am very much interested in my own writing process. I want to improve my writing skill!" She reported 16 years of instructions in English with a major emphasis on translation of written texts. She had a strong motivation for learning English. "I'd rather write in English than in Malay or Chinese. I like English so much," she said. In comparing her English composition classes in Malaysia and those in the U.S., Erlin said that her high school composition classes included grammar instruction and her teachers emphasized grammar and mechanics the most in high school. She felt that increasing her vocabulary would make her become a better writer in English.

Task 1, Session 1.

Erlin spent over an hour, producing a 13 paragraph essay. She spent the first three minutes brainstorming, rereading the topic a couple of times as she tried to come up with ideas to write about. Before she began writing, she wrote down a few points on scratch paper, even though she did not include all of them later in her writing.

Although most of her paragraphs were short and not sufficiently developed, her writing showed that her major focus was on generating as many ideas as possible. One reason that she could produce a relatively long paper (616 words) was that the topic was a real one for her. She said she was glad when she received the topic because she had "the same case." Another major characteristic in her writing process was rereading portions of her essay a number of times in the course of writing. Whenever she completed a paragraph, she went back to the beginning of her writing and reread all the segments.

In producing her essay, Erlin made only a couple of grammar corrections, and she spent most of her time finding suitable words and coming up with ideas for her description of America. What inhibited her the most in the process of writing was lack of vocabulary, not grammar.

The major part of the protocol reflects Erlin's vigorous effort to build up the content. Fifty-five minutes into the session, she began to write the conclusion. And then, she used the same strategy she had used when writing the introduction and body, reading the previous sentences and paragraphs over. One hour into the session, Erlin once again went back to the beginning of her paper and began to read the whole paper. One of the biggest changes she made during this time was to cross out three sentences about the weather. She further rephrased several sentences. She attempted to alter grammatical aspects twice as she changed "have made" to "had made", and "concern about" to "concern on".

Task 1, Session 2.

Erlin started her revision by reading the first paragraph she had written in the previous session. Then she rewrote the first paragraph, not by transferring each sentence from the draft, but by creating a whole new paragraph, without referring back to her pervious draft sentence by sentence. Her revised paragraphs were much longer than the ones in the previous draft. She developed her previous paragraphs by providing examples and further explanation. In her revision, she rearranged the paragraph order, as she re-organized her subtopics. For example, she decided to omit the paragraph on "job efficiency," and instead included freedom of speech. Furthermore, she deleted her previous discussion on road signs, traffic rules, and tax.

In this revision session, Erlin's major attempts were made to develop her previous paragraphs, rephrase some key words, and rearrange the topics. Her revision had 751 words, but the number of paragraphs decreased from 13 to 11. The number of RC (revision in the content aspect) was 26, whereas the number of RG (revision in the grammatical aspect) was only eight. Within the eight instances of RG are included a couple of verbal corrections which she did not transfer to her text. For example, in par. 3, she made a verbal correction of a grammatical mistake upon reading aloud, "They taught me and guided a lot when I just arrived in U.S." by inserting the pronoun *me* before *guide*, and yet failed to recognize it in writing. Nine times, she rephrased the existing sentences by recasting. In the protocol, the number of wc (indicating concern for word choice) was 16 and that of wf (indicating concern for word form) was only two.

She did try to correct grammatical errors a couple of times, although not always successful. For example, she changed "much more farer" to "much more far" in her concluding paragraph, which still showed an error. Most of her grammar errors did remain in the revised paper.

Task 2, Session 1.

For the second task, which asked her to introduce her home culture to American college students, Erlin produced a much shorter paper, containing five paragraphs, 437 words. Erlin's first response upon receiving the topic was, "What a difficult topic to write!" Overall, she seemed to have a hard time constructing sentences. In addition, she took a longer time to brainstorm, and of a dozen topics she came up with, she ended up using only four. Brainstorming took place as an ongoing process-she tended to stop after each paragraph to decide what to write next, instead of referring back to the

topics she had produced in the beginning. In this session, she had much more difficulty in finding the right words and did not provide an adequate conclusion.

However, she did demonstrate the same writing strategy—reading over the previous sentences and paragraphs when stuck. An example of performance error was also found as she self-corrected "angle" to "angel" when she read aloud her sentences, but failed to notice it in writing. And it is not clear whether she was aware of the difference between "bright" and "brightness" since she used them interchangeably in places where she needed the noun form, "brightness," indicating that the learner's still developing interlangauge system.

Task 2, Session 2.

In the revision session which was held the following day, Erlin produced a far more elaborate paper than her previous draft. First of all, she reconstructed her paragraphs by producing detailed information about some of her points and also by adding several new points. For example, she divided the second paragraph into two different paragraphs. She included a whole new topic of food, followed by another new paragraph on clothing, neither of which existed in the previous draft.

Throughout the writing process, Erlin used a revision strategy similar to the one she had used in the previous task; she frequently read over the previous sentences and paragraphs, rephrasing existing expressions and adding words. Although some grammatical aspects, such as tense markers, agreement and numbers, were changed in the revision, most of these changes seemed to be guesswork, rather than a knowledgeable decision. She did correct the pronoun (or spelling?) error in "It can say that" to "I can say that", but in most other cases, the changes she made counter-corrected her grammar. It seemed that she did not have systemic grammar knowledge to help self-monitor her writing. In the first paragraph of her previous draft, for instance, she used a correct preposition in "on August 31," but used a wrong preposition in the revised paper as she changed it to "at August 31." In the same way, her revised sentence "we also have different festival to celebrate," contains an error in number, which her previous sentence did not.

In sum, Erlin was not skillful in handling grammatical errors in her writing. In the follow-up interview, she said that she had to "make a guess" whenever she tried to correct grammar because she was not sure whether her decision was correct. In addition, her guesswork was not always consistent. For example, the verb form she used for "speak," was not the same as what she had used for the three race groups, "Malay," "Chinese," and "Indian." She used a third person singular for "Malay" and "Chinese," but used a plural form for "Indian." Later a later paragraph, the verb for "Chinese" switched back to the plural form as she wrote "Chinese celebrate a lot of festivals." In the same way, she used a plural form for "Indians" in the opening sentence of paragraph seven.

In terms of mechanics, she failed to catch her spelling errors. For instance, she failed to notice that she had written "angle" instead of "angel," but she read it as "angel" whenever she read it aloud. Also she corrected "in" to "is" as she read the sentence, "our national language is Malay," but she failed to notice that she had spelled it wrong. In par. 6, she self-corrected "new" to "now" when reading "and new every body wearing red clothes in all the fifteen days," but did not notice it in her writing.

Table 1 shows Erlin's different revising strategies under the two different instruction conditions. Although the table shows only five broad categories, her protocols include other behaviors that are not included in the table. There was a 9% increase in content revision in task 2, session 2 when she was instructed to focus on grammar and mechanics (from 44.8% in task 1, session 2, to 53% in task 2, session 2). On the other hand, the percentage of increase in grammar revision was 4.6%, from 13.8% in task 1, session 2, to 18.4% in task 2, session 2. The percentage of increase was greater by 4.4% in content revision than in grammar revision in task 2, session 2. Even when she was expected to work on grammar, Erlin's biggest concern was not grammar, but content. In the interview held after the revision session, she said that if she had had more time, she would have "put more content." When asked if she would have revised her paper differently if she had not been told to pay attention to grammar, she said, "No, because this is how I normally revise my paper."

TABLE 1
REVISING BEHAVIORS IN THE TWO INSTRUCTION CONDITIONS—PARTICIPANT 1

Task 1 Session 2		Task 2, Session 2	
Strategies	Number of Occurrences	Strategies	Number of occurrences
RC	26	RC	35
RG	8	RG	12
Reph	9	Reph	13
wf	2	wf	0
wc	16	wc	10

Case Study 2

Hogyo was a 25 year-old male Indonesian student, in his fourth year in industrial engineering. At the time of study, he had been in the United States for five years. He said he had started learning English when he was in the fifth grade and that he had never learned how to write essays in English in his country. The first time he ever learned writing was when he took ESL courses at a college in Chicago when he first came to the U.S.

He reported that his previous English classes in Indonesia had been centered mainly around grammar exercises and pattern drills, and there was little emphasis on oral skills. His previous ESL teachers in Chicago had emphasized how to

develop ideas and write correct sentences. He said he never enjoyed writing either in English or in Indonesian. He had become used to doing various kinds of writing through his past ESL classes but still considered writing very difficult.

Task 1, Session 1.

Compared to Erlin's, Hogyo's first paper was much shorter and so was the protocol. It took him only 40 minutes to write this paper. He composed steadily for 40 minutes, with very few pauses and almost no changes in the text he produced. Unlike Erlin, who repeated read over her previous sentences and paragraphs, Hogyo hardly revised or reread his sentences once they were written. When he completed writing, he spent the last three minutes correcting a couple of minor errors and adding a few words. He later said that he had found the writing task easy because he had previously written on a similar topic in his previous ESL class.

Hogyo made frequent grammatical and mechanical errors. Considering that he had already written a similar paper in the past, we may presume that he understood the topic and had thought about possible information to include, which theoretically gave him additional time for editing. However, throughout the writing session, he did not seem to consider it necessary to revise what he had once written. The frequent long pauses in the protocol were probably due to the difficulty he had with the thinking-aloud protocol technique, because he later commented, "I could not speak sometimes when I think."

Task 1, Session 2.

When asked to revise what he had written in the previous session, Hogyo produced an essay of similar length. Quite unlike the first session in which he plunged right into the first paragraph, this time, he spent about five minutes before writing the first sentence. He took time to review some parts of what he had written in the previous session, if not the entire paper. The revised essay still contains a number of grammar mistakes, including spelling errors in "loundry" and "prepaired," but he did make some significant changes in this revision session. He took care of almost all the sentence fragments. More importantly, he reworked his introduction. While he began with "I have…" in the previous draft, this time, he chose to start with an inclusive pronoun "Every foreigner," which may indicate his rhetorical concern for the audience. Plus, the revised introduction is quite different from the draft in that the first paragraph in the draft became two different ones in the revision. Moreover, his revised sentences are often more detailed. Even though the revised paper probably contains as many grammar errors as the previous draft, nowhere do we find any sentence to which he made only grammar correction. Rather, he rephrased entire sentences. For example, the fourth paragraph on making eye contact is much smoother and more polished, and yet none of the sentences were copied form the draft with only formal corrections.

In this session, Hogyo did not do much proofreading. When he finished his conclusion about forty minutes into the session, he read through his paper, making only a couple of minor changes as he went, such as adding sentence connectors or words to the existing sentences. And then he added the last two sentences in the conclusion and stopped writing. In his protocol, the number of content revision was 16, whereas the number of grammatical revision was four. Twice he agonized over the word choice, but never over the word form.

Task 2, Session 1.

In response to the second task, which asked him to introduce Indonesian culture to an American audience, hogyo produced an interesting essay. Not unlike the previous two sessions, Hogyo began with no brainstorming or planning. Although the number of words he wrote in each task did not significantly differ (391 words, compared to 383 words in task 1, session 1), he approached this task with more effort. Both the number and duration of pauses in the protocol were greater, possibly indicating the novelty of the writing prompt. Whereas the first paragraph was written quite spontaneously, the subsequent paragraphs did not come as quickly. When he couldn't think of an adequate point, he went to the very beginning of his paper and began to read the whole essay silently, a behavior that was not found in the last two sessions. One consistent observation that was made throughout his writing process was that Hogyo did not attend to any of the formal aspects of writing. Inconsistency in spelling and seeming carelessness in handling the mechanics suggested that he felt as far as his sentences "communicate," he needed not worry.

Task 2, Session 2.

Hogyo began by reviewing the previous draft silently for a couple of minutes. Three minutes into the session, he began to copy the first sentence from the draft without making any changes. For the rest of the session, his major focus was on rewriting the existing sentences and making his paragraph read smoothly, instead of attending to grammatical errors. This revised essay was not far superior to his previous essays in terms of formal aspects; sentence fragments as well as a number of other grammatical mechanical errors still remained. Plus, in some cases, he made more grammar mistakes as he modified original sentences. For example, as he changed the second sentence in the first paragraph, from "not so many people in America have heard about Indonesia," to "not so many people in America knows about it."

In this revision session, his major effort was made to improve the existing paragraphs by rephrasing sentences or by providing some additional explanations. The second paragraph in revision, for instance, shows much improvement in terms of clarity and coherence, if not in grammatical accuracy. According to the protocol, there were seven instances where he tried to work on the grammar of his sentences. But his effort did not bring improvement, as it resulted in more grammar errors. To illustrate, he ended up with a wrong tense as he changed the following sentence in par. 2: "I think that it is useful for you to learn the culture in the place that you *want* to say" was changed to "I think that it is useful for you to learn the culture of the place that you *wanted* to say." Examples of performance errors were shown in "spice" as

he correctly pronounced it as "spicy" but left it unchanged in writing, and "commond" was also left uncorrected although he said "common" when he read it out loud.

Although frequent and long pauses still existed in this session, Hogyo reported in the follow-up interview that this time he had found it much easier to think aloud. "I think I became used to the thinking-aloud technique after doing it so far," he said. In assessing his own writing, he said that he did not like what he had written in the previous session because he couldn't put down all the ideas he had. He said, "There was not enough time to get the ideas," but felt that the revised paper was much better.

When asked what he focused most on in this revision, he answered, "organizing points and getting ideas." Although he was instructed to pay careful attention to grammar and mechanics this time, Hogyo was obviously much more concerned about the content of his paper. He added that he found it difficult to correct grammar in his own writing, and that for him, finding the right words was a much more important necessary skill.

Table 2 shows how Hogyo's revising behaviors compare in the two different instruction conditions. The percentage of increase in content aspect was even bigger in task 2, session 2 than that of the previous participant. There was a 22% increase in content area revision. On the other hand, in the grammatical aspect, there was only an 8% increase. It was clear that for Hogyo, revision in content was clearly more important, or at least more focused on, than correcting grammar. In the follow-up interview, he said, "First I thought I was gonna focus on the grammar, but when I read my draft, I decided to change the whole thing." He added that he still wanted his instructor to correct his grammar because he felt that it was something that he could not do by himself.

TABLE 2
REVISING BEHAVIORS IN THE TWO INSTRUCTION CONDITIONS—PARTICIPANT 2

Task 1 Session 2		Task 2, Session 2	
Strategies	Number of Occurrences	Strategies	Number of occurrences
RC	16	RC	24
RG	4	RG	7
Reph	6	Reph	14
wf	0	wf	0
wc	2	wc	4

V. DISCUSSION

Previous studies on the writing processes of basic L1 writers have pointed out that less skilled writers tend to be prematurely distracted by concerns about grammar and mechanics. Therefore, it has been believed that having less skilled student writers focus on grammatical correctness during revision would only intensify their preoccupation with correctness and make them attend to less important aspects of writing and neglect more global problems in content and rhetoric. ESL composition researchers have also begun to take this approach, taking the position that the main focus on any ESL writing class should be on developing fluency, rather than accuracy, and that in the meantime, grammar will take care of itself.

The two case studies reported in this article challenges the notion that focus on correctness would negatively affect L2 students' writing and revising processes. The researcher's direction to focus on formal correctness did not have any influence on their revision processes. The written products, as well as the revising processes of the two different instruction circumstances—one that did not specify areas to focus on, and the other that did—showed no remarkable differences. In both revision sessions, the students chose to do what they considered was the most needed in revision, and for both of them, despite task-instruction differences, it meant attending to the content.

For both students, revision meant improving content by rewriting sentences and reconsidering ideas. They planned one paragraph at a time, and then after writing each paragraph, returned to their topics and decided what to write next. In most cases, the students chose to ignore such constraints as grammar or spelling so as to be able to get their ideas on paper. For Erlin, revision took place throughout the entire writing process. Most of the pauses that appeared in her protocols were related to vocabulary searching or to constructing sentences. She made quite a few significant changes in her revision in both tasks, such as combining two paragraphs and dividing one paragraph into two. She also deleted certain paragraphs and added new ones. Some of her revised paragraphs hardly resemble the original.

On the other hand, Hogyo did not make as many global changes as Erlin did. His focus was on writing clear sentences and achieving coherence between sentences by adding explanation or giving examples. Even though he lacked the ability to re-see what he had written from a fresh perspective, he did not let the grammar concerns get in the way of expressing his ideas. Nowhere did he consciously correct his own grammar or make only grammar changes.

One significant observation made throughout this study was that when the students were asked to revise their original draft, they often made wrong, inconsistent grammatical decisions. This shows that learners' interlanguage is often difficult to define even among advanced ESL students. Rather than systematic, the interlanguage system of these students exhibited inconsistencies and randomness. Also, students' competence often did not match their performance.

Another interesting pattern that emerged is that both students' writing and rewriting behaviors were apparently not influenced by what their previous teachers taught. Erlin very seldom attended to grammatical and mechanical aspects in her revision sessions even though she reported that her previous EFL classes in high school emphasized grammar rules.

She added that her previous English teachers seldom provided any comments on how to improve their compositions. "My high school teachers were quite lenient. They gave no response to our writing. They simply circled the wrong spelling, and I don't feel improvement." Hogyo also learned mostly grammar in his high school English classes and his ESL course in the U.S. also taught grammar in class.

Finally, both students struggled with vocabulary, and increasing their vocabulary was the greatest perceived need for both students. Coming up with the right word or right expressions was perhaps one of the most challenging aspects of writing. As Kim (2012) suggested,

ESL students need the lexical equipment to convey their thoughts. To do that, it is important for them to navigate through the writings of others and attend to the linguistic features and clusters of words used by native-English-speaking writers. Native speakers use prefabricated phrases, and ESL students need to increase the storage of such language chunks in order to express their thoughts freely. Without these, they will depend on circumlocution and nonnative-like patterns. (p. 38)

VI. Conclusion

One of the most important findings of this study was that explicit direction to focus on grammar in revision did not lead the two ESL writers to concentrate on formal aspects of writing. It did not inhibit their abilities to produce texts that are complex and rich in ideas. The protocol analysis and interviews with the participants indicated that focus on grammar is still necessary for helping these second language students to improve their writing. In addition, the findings of this study refute an assumption that unskilled ESL students are similar to basic L1 writers in that they tend to become distracted by editorial concerns. Instead, the revising processes of both students in this study did not resemble those of basic L1 writers, who mainly attend to lower-order concerns in their revision processes. As Long (1996) and Spada (1997) observed, we may hypothesize that it is not necessary for ESL writing teachers to purposefully refrain from emphasizing formal correctness for fear of inhibiting their students from developing fluency.

How then can ESL teachers provide both content and grammar instruction effectively? ESL writing teachers can address grammatical errors in students' writing by using students' real writing samples as much as possible. Teachers of ESL also should come up with syllabi which reflect emphasis on both the product and the process. Whereas it may be impossible for teachers to address all these skill areas effectively just by their *teaching*, they may achieve this goal by designing grading procedures that direct their students to both form and content. Teachers can provide students with certain grammar instruction right before students are engaged in a rewriting activity to allow the students to focus on one specific aspect of grammar at a time. This kind of specific, guided rewriting activity will prevent students from feeling "left alone" to do guesswork as they work on grammar in their writing.

Since the use of computers in composition classes has become prevalent, future researchers can examine whether or not the use of computers might affect ESL students' writing and rewriting behaviors in different way from what we have seen in this study in the handwriting research situation, and if so, how. In this study, the two students were asked to compose with pen and paper instead of a more popular method of writing on the computer because this study mainly examines how students would apply their own grammar knowledge to their revision without relying on computer tools such as a spell check and a grammar check. However, I believe that equally as important as additional case studies using longhand are studies that incorporate computers. With computers becoming a generalized tool for writers, our view of students' mechanical and grammatical errors may have to be revised because students' writing is affected not only by what the students know about writing and grammar, but by what the technology has to offer.

APPENDIX. FULL PROTOCOL CHARTS

	Participant 1		**Participant 2**	
Revising behaviors	**Number of occurrences**			
	Task 1 Session 1	Task 2 Session 2	Task 1 Session 1	Task 2 Session 2
RC	26	35	16	24
RG	8	12	4	7
reph	9	13	6	14
wf	2	0	0	0
wc	16	10	2	4
p	0	0	0	0
P	2	2	0	0
T	0	0	0	0
Ex	0	0	0	0
W	17	21	12	14
Ws	0	0	7	5
rd	1	1	0	0
rp	17	16	4	6
voc	3	2	0	0
C	1	0	1	0
A (+), A (-)	0	0	0	1
s	1	1	5	3
?	1	2	0	1

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 12-20, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.12-20

Immigrant Status as an Influential Factor in Additional Language Learning: A Comparison of French Language Achievement of Canadian-born Monolinguals, Bilinguals and Bilingual Immigrants

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***Abstract*—This study compares the French as a second language achievement of Canadian-born English-speaking students, Canadian-born bilingual students and bilingual immigrant students as gathered by means of a multi-skills FSL test. In addition, it seeks to explain the differences in performance by investigating the impact of a variety of influential factors that have been previously identified in the literature to date: L1 use and context of learning for bilingual groups, motivation, attitude, willingness to communicate, metalinguistic awareness and strategy use for all groups.**

***Index Terms*—second language teaching, additional language learning, multilingual language acquisition, second language acquisition**

I. Introduction

When comparing second and subsequent language acquisition, researchers have recognized that the same variables that influence second language (L2) acquisition also impact additional language (Ln) learning. Among numerous influential factors, proficiency in language (s) known (Cummins, 1979), context (s) of language acquisition (Gibson & Hufeisen, 2003), language distance (s)(De Angelis, 2007), perceived distance (Kellerman, 1978) and motivation and attitudes (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012) impact language learning. Although the factors above impact Ln learning, it is prior experience with two languages that is the unique, complex factor differentiating second from Ln learning. Although there are exceptions (e.g., Balke-Aurell & Lindblad, 1983), many studies have shown knowledge of an L2 to have a positive impact on Ln learning under certain conditions (e.g., Hart, Lapkin, & Swain, 1988; Cenoz & Valencia, 1994).

The underlying support for L2 knowledge enhancing Ln learning is grounded in Cummins (1979) interdependence hypothesis, which highlights the common underlying mental processes that accumulate with language learning experience. Similarly, Cook's (1995) more recent multicompetence model recognizes languages and interlanguage(s) as adding to the linguistic knowledge and skills of an individual. This model highlights the potential for all language knowledge to be accessed as a resource for further learning. More specifically, Cook underscores that the metalinguistic knowledge that comes with knowing two or more languages is advantageous for Ln learning. Learners can benefit from this underlying knowledge of the abstract structure of language regardless of the particular language being learned (Bialystok, 2001). Although Berthoud (2003) claims that Ln learning is in and of itself metalinguistic because it encourages a comparison of languages, researchers (e.g., Castelotti & Moore, 2005; Moore, 2006) argue that learners must pay explicit attention to such knowledge (i.e., activate their metalinguistic awareness), in order to reap the rewards.

The terms "metalinguistic knowledge" and "awareness" in Ln learning research often refer to the transfer of linguistic knowledge and/or skills across languages (Cazden, 1974). Such knowledge and the consciousness of such knowledge have been credited with benefitting bilinguals in Ln learning. In her description of the DST model of Multilingualism, Jessner (2008a) claims that metalinguistic awareness (which she defines as a set of skills and abilities that the multilingual user develops as a result of his/her own prior linguistic and metacognitive knowledge) is a key factor in bilingualism being an advantage in other language learning. At times, researchers hypothesize that advanced metalinguistic awareness is a positive factor in Ln learning (e.g., Peyer, Kaiser, Berthele, 2010), whereas in other studies, the impact of metalinguistic awareness has been directly tested and analysed through the research design. Cenoz and Valencia (1994), for example, compared English test results and hypothesized that the advantages of their Spanish/Basque bilingual group as compared to those of a monolingual group of university students was due to heightened metalinguistic awareness. In his study of 252 bilingual students studying English in Grades 5 and 8, Lasagabaster (1998) directly tested students' language proficiencies

and their metalinguistic knowledge to find that proficiency positively correlated to metalinguistic knowledge—the higher proficiency the higher level of metalinguistic knowledge. In a subsequent analysis of the same data set, Lasagabaster (2001) examined the role of metalinguistic awareness in the development of English reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. Through correlational analysis, he found metalinguistic awareness to be related to all language skills. In further analysis done with regression analysis, he found metalinguistic awareness to be positively linked to reading in both classes and writing for the Grade 8 group. In another explicit examination of the impact of metalinguistic awareness, Perales and Cenoz (2002) tested adult students' (n=441) proficiency in Basque and their metalinguistic awareness to discover, using regression analysis, that metalinguistic awareness was one of the best predictors of oral and written proficiency. Clyne, Hunt, & Isaakidis (2004), too, in their observations of 44 students learning an Ln—Greek or Spanish, found that bilingual students outperformed monolinguals in terms of grades and the frequency of oral participation observed. They also determined that the bilingual students were more proficient at explaining their metalinguistic knowledge.

Jessner (1999) includes language-learning strategies as part of the enhanced metalinguistic awareness of bilinguals learning an Ln. In her study of bilinguals learning an Ln, through think-aloud protocols, Jessner examined learners' strategy-use, highlighting the use of strategies as a compensatory skill. She suggests that perceived language distance influences the degree to which learners will access such metalinguistic knowledge and encourages teachers to make such knowledge explicit to learners. In a more recent publication, Jessner (2008a) purports that use of metalinguistic knowledge may also be enhanced with prior formal language learning experience. In support of this assertion, Ibarraran, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2008) go so far as to suggest including metalinguistic awareness training as part of the curriculum with a view to improving students' attitudes toward learning other languages. Similar to Jessner, in his examination of Ln reading, Bruno (2001) found that Ln learners to use strategies to compensate for limited Ln knowledge. Kemp (2007), by means of a questionnaire, also examined the strategy use of bilingual and multilingual participants (n=144), and discovered that the more languages the participants knew the greater number of strategies they use and the more frequently they use them. However, Geldersen, Schoonen, De Glopper, Hulstijn, Snellings, Simis, Stevenson (2003) found that strategy use was not able to compensate for low reading proficiency in their study of bilingual and multilingual Dutch students, which showed the bilinguals outperforming the multilingual students.

Even though, in general, the studies above highlight the potential for metalinguistic awareness to enhance Ln learning under certain linguistic conditions, others suggest that it is more likely that metalinguistic knowledge is used when it has been explicitly highlighted by a teacher for example. Singleton and Aronin (2007) agree that multilinguals have more affordances than bilinguals or monolinguals but that they must be aware of such affordances to be able to use them. For example, a multilingual needs to be aware of commonalities in order to transfer items from one language to another, indeed often choosing the language of transfer when more than one language is known. Similarly, in her investigation of children interpreting texts in unknown languages, Moore (2006) concludes that accessing language knowledge as a resource is context-dependent and happens more frequently in a school setting that acknowledges all languages as resources. Likewise, Castelotti & Moore (2005) suggest that the likelihood of learners benefitting from prior language knowledge is dependent upon the curriculum highlighting commonalities between languages, encouraging learners to reflect upon their learning and having frequent opportunities to use those skills within the class. In fact, Moore's work with Castelotti (2005) suggests that explicitly drawing learners' attention to strategies can also be beneficial to monolinguals. Europe has taken the lead in making these types of commonalities evident with its European Comprehension project (Eurocom Centre, 2003) whose goal is to give citizens of common language background (e.g., romance language) knowledge to understand each other through inferencing. They claim that making commonalities between languages evident heightens the learners' ability to access their prior language knowledge themselves.

II. Methodology

This study compares the French as a second language[i] (FSL) achievement of Canadian-born English-speaking students (CBE), Canadian-born bilingual students (CBB) and bilingual immigrant students (IMM) as gathered by means of a multi-skills FSL test. In addition, it seeks to explain the differences in performance by investigating the impact of a variety of influential factors that have been previously identified in the literature to date: L1 use and context of learning for bilingual groups, motivation, attitude, willingness to communicate, metalinguistic awareness and strategy use for all groups. For the purpose of this study, metalinguistic awareness is the set of skills or abilities multilingual users develop owing to their prior knowledge (Jessner, 2008a, p. 275). In particular, this study explores the explicit use of this awareness as identified by the use of strategies—production, reception and use of prior language knowledge.

Research questions and hypothesis

In general, this study sought to explore factors that influenced French test outcomes and in particular it examined if and how metalinguistic awareness impacted French achievement across the groups. Previous research, as cited above, led to the hypothesis that multilingual students would have heightened metalinguistic awareness and that would have a positive impact on test results.

Study Context

This study was conducted in Canada in the "English-dominant" province of Ontario. Ontario is the Canadian province that receives the most immigrants. The local context of this study is an urban area where the immigrants form approximately 48 per cent of the population (Statistics Canada, 2006). It would be extremely rare for students to be exposed to French in the community. The data were collected from two schools in the region. The language of instruction in the schools is English. The students, however, study French once a day for approximately forty minutes. The students in this study were in Grade 6 and in their second year of obligatory French study.

Participants

The participants for this study were eleven years of age and came from eight different classes in two different schools. Each school contributed participants to each of the three groups. This paper presents the results of a smaller data set from that of the larger study—a data set from three groups of participants of similar size (i.e., 23 CBEs, 23 CBBs and 22 IMM). The CBE and CBB groups were randomly selected from the larger group whereas all the IMMs were included. The IMM group in this study was comprised of students born in Southern Asia (60%), Africa (13%) Southeast Asia (4%), Southern Europe (4%), and Central Asia (4%) who had come to Canada during their elementary school years. The remaining participants' country of origin was unknown. The students' languages of origin were from a variety of language families-excluding romance languages. They self-assessed their English skills to be on par with the other two groups, although some students required English language support as determined by a board specialist. Similarly, the CBB group's L1/heritage language (s) were from a variety of language families other than romance (e.g., Indo-Aryan, Afro-Asiatic). None of the participants had previous experience with French before beginning its study in Grade 4.

Instruments

Questionnaire.

The questionnaire designed for this study was created to explore a variety of potential influencing factors on participants' Ln achievement. The first section contained Likert-scale items pertaining to language anxiety (6 items), willingness to communicate in class (17), attitudes toward the learning situation, integrative motivation (10), motivation to learn FSL (8) and languages in general (3) as well as items on metalinguistic awareness (9). The metalinguistic section was limited to prior language (e.g., using similarities between languages to guess word meanings) and strategy use (e.g., finding and correcting mistakes). The second section required students to self-assess their French, English and, where applicable, other language knowledge and use. The last section requested their demographic information. The questionnaire was divided into 3 sections all of which were completed online, during class time in one sitting, and under the supervision of the students' FSL teacher during a 40-minute class. The questionnaire was piloted with a Grade 6 class before use in the study.

Observations.

Each of the two classes was observed on five occasions for an approximate total of 200 minutes per class. Field notes were kept during each observation with attention to language use. In particular, observations were used to determine if teachers made explicit reference to use of prior language knowledge as a means of enhancing French learning.

FSL test.

A four-skills test—listening, speaking, reading and writing, was used to determine students' FSL proficiency. The test was comprised of sections of the Diplôme d'études en langue française (DELF, A1, primaire) (Centre international d'études pédagogiques, 2012), which were deemed to be appropriate through pilot testing with the same grade prior to use. Due to time constraints of the classes the listening, reading and speaking components were reduced to two parts per skill. A sub-group of randomly selected CBBs (n=23)completed the speaking component whereas, due to lesser numbers, all available IMMs and CBEs participated in the oral test. Both of the listening sections were too easy to determine group differences and are therefore not part of the findings reported below.

Data Reduction

The first set of variables condensed were those related to the FSL test variables, which were presented in raw data as two reading subtests, two writing subtests, and five speaking scores from two subtests. The second set of variables was items on the student questionnaire where multiple items were constructed to represent a single construct. Data reduction methods were adopted to create these composite variables. The data reduction method adopted was principal components analysis (PCA). As an element of construct identification was required for student questionnaire variables, factor analyses were also conducted as a secondary analysis in order to be sure findings were credible. Factor analyses (using principal axis factoring) produced similar results to the PCA analyses, and are not reported. When defining new variables, the process started with the author's initial theories about represented constructs, and then added and removed variables as the criteria supported or rejected items (i.e., items chosen to measure metalinguistic awareness were verified to determine whether they could remain as part of the final construct). In order to facilitate readability, the French composite scores were multiplied out using the following equation: Score = 50+10PCA. Therefore for French composite scores, the means are 50 and the standard deviations are 10.

Having determined acceptable correlations, composite variables were formed for the reading, writing and speaking test components. For the student questionnaire, the previously identified metalinguistic awareness variable showed two

factors: metalinguistic awareness and cognitive strategies. These factors were used as individual variables in the analyses. As these variables were predictor variables, they were not multiplied out and each variable has a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. The composite variables are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
COMPOSITE VARIABLES FOR USE IN ANALYSES

French measures	Student questionnaire
Reading	Integrative, motive
Writing	Integrativeness, climate
Speaking	Motivation to continue to learn French
	Attitude toward learning French
	Anxiety
	Willingness to communicate
	Metalinguistic awareness
	Cognitive strategies
	Language of origin: Speaking skills
	Language of origin: Literacy skills

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

One-way ANOVAs were conducted to identify whether statistically significant differences existed in FSL achievement among groups. Given the small size of the IMM group (n=23) and with the view of having equal groups, a random sample of 23 participants was selected from the other two groups: CBE and CBM.

Analysis of Variance

As can be seen from Table 2, significant differences were found on the writing and speaking scores. Significant differences among the groups were found on writing scores, F (2, 42) = 6.10, p <0,05, partial η^2 = .15 and speaking scores, F (2, 65) = 6.48, p < 0.05, partial η^2 = .17. Regarding effect sizes, η^2 values, small=.01, medium=.06 and large=.14. As per the effect sizes, the significant differences range from medium to large.

TABLE 2:
ANOVA RESULTS FOR LANGUAGE GROUPS

Score	df	F	partial η^2
Reading score	2, 65	2.86	.08
Writing score	2, 42	**6.10	.15
Speaking score	2, 65	**6.48	.17

***=p<.001; **=p<.01; *=p<.05

Dunnet's C was selected as the post-hoc test because it does not assume homogeneity of variance, and although Levene's test failed to report heterogeneity of variance, the relatively small sample sizes in this study may have rendered heterogeneity non-visible. Therefore post-hoc tests require a conservative estimate of significance.

As shown below in Table 3, the post hoc tests revealed the IMMs and CBBs (M = 51, SD = 10.06) and (M = 55.1, SD = 6.97) to outperform the CBE (M = 45.4, SD = 11.31) on the Writing domain. As it pertains to the speaking score, the IMMs (M = 57.5, SD = 9.00) significantly outperformed the CBE (M = 47.8, SD = 9.61) by nearly a full standard deviation.

TABLE 3:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND POST-HOC TESTS FOR EACH SCORE

Score	Language Group	Mean	sd	N	95% confidence interval	
					CBE	CBB
Reading score	CBE	50.4	9.60	23		
	CBB	49.7	9.45	23		
	IMM	55.8	9.20	22		
Writing score	CBE	45.4	11.31	23		
	CBB	51.0	10.06	23	*-9.86 to -.11	
	IMM	55.1	6.97	22	*-14.65 to -3.08	-8.17 to .41
Speaking score	CBE	47.8	9.61	23		
	CBB	50.7	9.32	23	-9.94 to 4.09	
	IMM	57.5	9.00	22	*-16.75 to -2.79	-13.72 to .09

*An asterix indicates that the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, and therefore the difference in means is significant at p<.05 using Dunnet's C procedure

Multiple Regression Analyses

In order to determine the impact of student grouping (i.e., CBB, CBE, and IMM) while controlling for other factors, multiple regression analyses were conducted on each FSL composite score while controlling for gender (Boy), class, identification of needing learning support (ILS) and identification of requiring English as a second language (ESL) support using the enter method. Each model explained a significant amount of the variance. The predictor variables in this model accounted for 22% of the variance in the Reading Scores, F (6, 139) = 7.73, p <0.001, 52% of the variance in

the Writing Scores, F (6, 1396 = 26.69, $p < 0.001$, and 45% of variance in the Speaking Scores F (6, 109) = 16.35, $p < 0.001$ (see Table 4).

TABLE 4:
MODEL SIGNIFICANCE TESTS

Dependent variable	R^2	Adjusted R^2	F	degrees of freedom
Reading***	.25	.22	7.73	6, 139
Writing***	.54	.52	26.69	6, 136
Speaking ***	.47	.45	16.35	6, 109

***=p<.001; **=p<.01; *=p<.05 (two-tailed test)

The regression coefficients are reported in Table 5 below. As it pertains to student groups, being in either the CBE or the CBB group did not prove to be a significant predictor of results. Being part of the IMM group, however, is significantly advantageous on the Reading and Speaking tests. IMMs were predicted to score an extra 5.37 points on Reading and an extra 5.83 points on Speaking. As the standard deviation for the composite scores is 10 points, these benefits equate to half a standard deviation of improvement, representing a substantial benefit. It is worth noting that being part of the IMM group remained advantageous when controlling for other variables whereas the other two groups were not shown to be predictors of FSL test scores. Given the focus of this paper, also deserving of attention, as it pertains to English proficiency, is the finding that although those students who required ESL support would experience a disadvantage with a reduction in scores, the advantage of being in the IMM group outweighed the disadvantage of requiring ESL support[ii].

TABLE 5:
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS FOR STUDENT GROUP MEMBERSHIP ON EACH MEASURE OF FRENCH ACHIEVEMENT

	Intercept	Boy	CBB	IMM	Class	ILS	ESL	N	Adjusted R^2
Reading pca	***51.16	***-6.30	0.08	*5.37	*4.33	*-5.07	-3.11	146	0.22
Writing pca	***45.60	***-5.43	0.05	1.98	***12.67	***-11.46	-2.4	143	0.52
Speaking pca	***45.91	*-3.45	0.64	*5.83	***11.52	***-9.28	-3.77	116	0.45

***=p<.001; **=p<.01; *=p<.05 (two-tailed test)
For pca composite scores, mean=50, standard deviation=10

Additional multiple linear regression analyses were conducted for each composite score on the FSL test to identify affective and linguistic factors that are statistically significant predictors of FSL test scores as communicated in responses to the questionnaire.

Table 6 reports the regression coefficients for each dependent variable that indicate the relative added value of each significant predictor variable for that dependent variable.

The strongest predictors for FSL achievement across measures were: (a) how often students speak French with friends outside class, (b) how often they speak French in class, (c) anxiety levels, (d) metalinguistic awareness, and (e) hearing French outside of class. For all the variables except metalinguistic awareness, higher values on the variables were associated with higher scores. That is to say, the greater the amount of French exposure and use in and outside of class, and the greater the anxiety the higher the scores. Metalinguistic awareness (i.e., use of prior language knowledge as determined by the questionnaire), however, was found to be associated with lower scores while cognitive learning strategies, diverse forms of motivation, and willingness to communicate were all not predictors of FSL achievement. In particular, metalinguistic awareness actually resulted in decreased levels of the speaking score by 1.69 points.

TABLE 6:
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS FOR STUDENT FRENCH LANGUAGE ATTITUDES AND EXPERIENCES ON EACH MEASURE OF FRENCH ACHIEVEMENT

	Reading pca	Writing pca	Speaking pca
Intercept	***40.54	***29.54	***46.39
French with friends	*1.74	**2.12	**2.14
French in class	*1.83	***2.55	-
Integrative motive	-	-	-
Integrative Canada	X	-	-
Motivation to continue	X	X	X
Attitude	X	X	X
Anxiety	-	-	***4.22
Willingness	X	X	X
Metalinguistic Awareness	X	-	*-1.69
Strategy use	-	-	-
French music	X	X	X
French website	-	-	-
Visited French country	X	X	X
Heard French outside	-	*3.99	-
N	132	130	102
Adjusted R^2	.10	.34	.42

***=p<.001; **=p<.01; *=p<.05 (two-tailed test)
For pca composite scores, mean=50, standard deviation=10

It is interesting to note that use of French in and outside of class were significant predictors of higher French achievement. This in combination with the fact that metalinguistic awareness— that focused exclusively on use of prior language knowledge, is associated with lower achievement hints at the importance placed on using the target language. In fact, the intergroup comparisons showed metalinguistic awareness to be associated with lower achievement and lower achieving groups relied on this awareness more often.

Comparison of Two Bilingual Groups' Language Experiences

Given that use of metalinguistic knowledge can be enhanced by previous formal language learning (Moore, 2006), in addition to the fact that it was the two bilingual groups that, at times, outperformed the CBE group, I conducted Wilcoxon-Mann Whitney tests to investigate whether frequency of use of L1/heritage language, of English or the contexts of learning their L1s/heritage language or English impacted results. No significant results were found when the Wilcoxon-Mann Whitney tests were carried out, indicating that no significant differences between the bilingual groups were related to scores on L1/heritage language or English use nor context (s) of their acquisition (see Table 7).

TABLE 7:
SIGNIFICANCE TEST RESULTS FOR WILCOXON-MANN WHITNEY TESTS

Variable	N	z score	Effect size (mean ranks)	
			CBB	IMM
Use of L1	103	-.38	52.31	50.63
Use of English	104	-.10	52.63	51.92
Context of English learning	104	-.65	51.53	56.39
Use of L1 at home	104	-.30	52.19	53.87
Context of L1 acquisition	104	-1.12	51.03	59.08

***p=<.001; **p=<.01; *p=<.05

In summary, as it pertains to comparing the FSL scores among the three groups, the IMMs outperformed the CBEs on writing and speaking and the CBB group outperformed the CBE group on writing. In the subsequent analyses taken to better understand those results, regarding the impact of various groups, among other variables (i.e., being in one class over another) being part of the IMM group advantaged reading and speaking scores. Examination of the linguistic and affective variables as gathered through the questionnaire, suggested use of French and anxiety (linked to speaking) as advantageous, whereas metalinguistic awareness was disadvantageous to writing. Upon exploration of additional factors as they pertained to the two bilingual groups, the Wilcoxon Mann Whitney tests did not identify use or context of acquisition of L1/heritage language (s) as being influential factors.

Observations

Field notes kept during the observed classes-five per school, indicate an almost exclusive use of French in one school and a frequent use of English in the other on the part of both students and teachers. It is worth noting that while French and English were languages shared by the students and the teachers, in one school the teacher also shared a common heritage language with the students, but did not make reference to other languages in the observed period. No explicit reference to English was not made with the view to encouraging students to use their language knowledge to improve their French learning.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Congruent with other research, the bilingual groups in this study outperformed the monolingual group on certain test components. However, contrary to other research (De Angelis, 2007), superior results were not due to enhanced metalinguistic awareness, cognitive strategy use, prior language-learning experience or increased motivation.

Demonstrating metalinguistic awareness as having a neutral to negative impact on writing may be illuminated by important details related to the educational context. Support for the influence of context on language choice is explicit in Herdina & Jessner's (2002) dynamic model of multilingualism that indicates that (a) learners adapt their language choices to the environment and (b) make choices between languages based on perceived communicative needs. As it pertains to the broader educational context in this study, at the school and board levels, the only languages of instruction are French and English, with any maintenance of L1s and language (s) of origin remaining the responsibility of the parents outside of school hours. This limited focus is also evident in the FSL curriculum document that states that French must be the language of communication (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1998, p. 4) and reference to other languages is limited to English (p. 5). Similarly as it pertains to the classroom contexts, the teachers' language use or reference to languages in this study during the restricted observations was limited to French and English. The participants may have therefore adapted to the classroom environment and limited their language use to French and English leaving their language of origin for outside of the school context.

This limited view of languages as resources may also shed light on the positive impact of use of French (see Table 6) and the negative influence of metalinguistic awareness on writing as shown by the test results. Students may have chosen to adopt the focus of the surrounding educational context and limit their focus to French without

knowingly drawing on their awareness of language (s) other than French to positively impact their FSL acquisition. Support for students' reliance on French without recognition of other language knowledge can be found in Jessner (2008a) who suggests that reliance on language awareness may be connected to need; therefore, if learners deem themselves to meeting with success learning FSL then they may not require the additional support of their other languages even in these early (A1) stages of language development. Having judged themselves as capable of meeting the perceived communicative needs of their FSL classes (Herdina & Jessner, 2002), the learners may have chosen to limit their language of choice to French with limited use of English.

In addition to limiting their language use to French as being a possible factor influencing students' recognition of the potential for other language knowledge to prove beneficial, previous research suggests that students' use of prior language knowledge is dependent on its use being made explicit (e.g., Castelotti & Moore, 2005; Singleton & Aronin, 2007). In addition to making students aware of such knowledge, awareness of the potential for all prior language knowledge to impact Ln learning needs to be extended to teachers. In this case, although one teacher shared a common language (Punjabi) with her students in addition to French and English, she did not explicitly use that knowledge or make its potential usefulness explicit to her students during the observations. In this case, the absence of reference to languages, other than English and French, minimizes the potential for teacher multilingualism to be an advantage (Aronin & Ó Laoire, 2003). In fact, Skuttnabb-Kangas (2000) goes so far as to suggest that teachers need to experience using their languages as resources prior to being able to encouraging their students to do so. That being the case, as Aronin & Ó Laoire (2003) argue, teacher candidates would also benefit from explicit instruction to this effect during their teacher preparation programs. Applying these lessons to this context, it is possible that the multilingual teacher was unaware of the potential for Punjabi to positively impact her own and her students' Ln learning and thus, may have benefitted from explicit instruction on how to use her language knowledge to the benefit of her students.

Further to educational contexts, the broader provincial and Canadian context may have an influential role to play in students not automatically using their whole language repertoire as a resource in Ln learning. Provincial recognition and national status is limited to two languages—English and French. In Ontario and in the vast majority of Canada, official use of languages at elementary school is limited to those two languages. The formal valuing of two languages seen in this study, to the neglect of others, provides an example of the classroom replicating the broader society by limiting language use to those with official status. This Canadian context stands in contrast to the European context where the learning of Lns is commonplace. In fact, Jessner (2008b) claims that recognizing multilingualism across the curriculum has become a general trend in language teaching. This trend is supported by many European projects (i.e., European Centre for Modern Languages, Eurocom) that encourage raising language awareness. As noted in the Canadian contexts described above, attention to languages as resources has yet to extend to the Canadian context to the same degree. Canada in general and Ontario specifically, like other "English-dominant" regions (e.g., Australia as per Clyne, 2011; England as per Coyle, 2010), remains committed to supporting the development of English to the detriment of students learning other languages and/or maintaining their language (s) or origin/heritage language. Therefore as the rest of the world becomes increasing multilingual, with superior skills in English, there is potential for Canadian residents to become disadvantaged.

Findings from the ANOVAs and multiple regression analysis not only showed advantages for the IMM group, but also that the IMMs were the only group to be judged to have yielded positive predictive value. However, these advantages were not determined to be dependent on linguistic issues (L1s are not typologically close to French, proficiency) or cognitive factors (metalinguistic awareness and strategy use) or the socio-psychological factors of motivation nor the motivation to learn French to gain a Canadian identity for example, which suggests that the IMM group may have had unique qualities that remain unaccounted for. Aronin's (2004) research, however, offers some direction. Like Aronin (2004), who associated the positive attitudes of the immigrants in her study to their voluntary immigration to Israel, it is plausible that the IMM group in this study is positioned for success due to their families' choice to come to Canada. The context of immigration may also explain the finding that higher anxiety was associated with higher results for the IMM group. The IMM group may be less sure of their future potential in Canada and thus, strive to excel.

The above findings and subsequent discussion, however, need to be interpreted with caution. The questionnaire may not have been sensitive or detailed enough, which limits the applicability of the results. More research with carefully identified immigrant participant groups is required to better determine the impact of their metalinguistic awareness.

The aim of this research was to compare CBE, CBB and IMMs' FSL achievement and to investigate the possible influencing factors. The findings showed that the IMMs outperformed the CBEs on two measures and the CBB group outperformed the CBEs on one. The positive influencing factors were IMM group membership and use of French in and out of class. Given that other factors traditionally associated with superior performance did not correspond to FSL achievement, I looked to the context for other influential factors to uncover an educational and political context that limits language value to-at best, English and French. I suggest that such a context—subtractive where English is concerned and additive for French as it pertains to IMMs, creates pressure for immigrants that they use to their benefit to advance their FSL learning. Unfortunately, where that pressure-

filled context may prove beneficial in the context of beginner FSL learning, it may prove detrimental to the maintenance of L1s and thus the multicompetence of the IMM group specifically as well as the potential for Canada to support the development of multilingual citizens more broadly.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to thank Stephanie Arnott, a research assistant on this project, for her comments on an earlier version of this paper.

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[i] In Canada, French is referred to as a second language in "English-dominant" regions due to its status as the second official language of Canada. In this study, FSL is used with the knowledge that it is an Ln for many learners.
[ii] While it was not the explicit focus of this paper, I would be remised if I did not acknowledge the disadvantage identified for boys and students in need of learning support, and the highly substantial advantage of being in one school rather than the other.

ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 21-27, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.21-27

EFL Learners' Verbal Interaction during Cooperative Learning and Traditional Learning (Small Group)

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***Abstract*—In order to identify the impact of cooperative learning method (CL) on verbal interactions of EFL learners, a 3-months research was conducted in four government secondary schools in EFL context. The participants in this study were 139 tenth grade male students, aged 14-15 years, in four boys' secondary schools in Al-Baha city. Schools were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions, either experimental or control groups. The researcher videotaped eight classes—four classes in the experimental condition who have trained with cooperative learning skills, and four classes in the comparison groups without this training— for a 12-week period. In the experiment classes, eight students were chosen randomly from each class and divided into two CL groups (four students in each group). Each of the groups was video-recorded one time for 30 minutes. Then two CL groups were chosen randomly from the pool of the students in each class. Two video cameras were used to cover two groups each week. In the control classes, eight students were chosen randomly from each class and divided into two small groups (four students in each group). The results showed that there was a significant difference between the conditions in making basic statements during discussion, responding to others' requests for basic information with brief statements, explanations with giving examples, Positive interruption, negative interruption, and supporting others in the group. In contrast, there were not significant differences in other verbal interactions such as requesting clarification from others, direct actions of the group (Gives directions, organize responsibility) and asking open-ended questions.**

***Index Terms*—applied linguistic, teaching English as foreign language, verbal interaction, cooperative learning, and small groups processes**

I. Introduction

Previous research has shown that when cooperative learning is compared to individual learning, students who learn cooperatively obtain better academic results. Similarly, when it is compared to lecture-directed learning, students also obtain better academic results (Johnson & Johnson, 2002). The other benefits of cooperative learning include enhanced thinking skills, more self-motivation to learn, higher self-esteem, greater respect for others and improved attitudes towards learning (Slavin, 1995), as cited in (Alghamdi& Gillies, 2013). While there are many benefits that accrue to students when they work cooperatively together, some researchers question and some disagree as to how cooperative learning methods can help students to achieve such positive results (Slavin, 1995; Johnson & Johnson, 2004). They also question the type of classroom conditions required to achieve successful cooperative learning. For example, some believe that there is a need to undertake further research at different grade levels and in different subject areas in different socio-educational contexts to verify the positive outcomes associated with cooperative learning reported in the literature (Slavin, 1995).

Many of the previous studies on cooperative learning have relied on achievement test data only to determine whether cooperative learning is helpful or not. It might be that the students' behaviors and interactions were not cooperative and the students' achievement increased because of the traditional learning rather than what happened in the groups as the students worked together. Moreover, while some researchers have identified the factors that mediate and moderate learning in small cooperative groups, this has not been done before in the context of learning English as a foreign language.

Researchers who have studied peer interactions and learning have used different methods. Fall, Webb, & Chudowsky (2000) preferred classifying accurate information in a helping behaviour into a detailed coding scheme that differentiated high and poor quality communication helping behaviour when seeking, providing and implementing help. Vedder (1985) pointed out a very important factor in cooperative group learning with helping behaviour. He proposed that helpers should be aware of the information they are transferring and have implemented the information themselves. If this is not taken care of, then the students seeking help would be misguided, which would result in poor learning and weakened accomplishments. Fall et al. (2000) said that there is a difference between executive help- seeking and instrumental help- seeking. Executive help- seeking refers to asking for an answer, whereas instrumental help- seeking is asking for an explanation.

II. Background

Many studies have been conducted on interactions of students when they work cooperatively (Gillies, 2004; Noreen M. Webb, 1991, 1994, 2009; N. M. Webb & A. Mastergeorge, 2003). Webb (1991) stated that constructive learning outcomes were the result of explanations given from one student to another. Inaccurate or complicated explanations, which do not remove the queries of help seekers, do not result in positive accomplishments as the learners do not understand anything and fail to perform their tasks efficiently. Gillies (2004) compared cooperative groups with unstructured groups and came up with the conclusion that cooperative groups provided more help to the group members than uncooperative ones. Webb (2009) stated that the children acquiring help want help with specific questions and the help providers explain them with featured explanations. The help seekers then use the explanations and use them in their tasks and future projects. This way, their understanding is improved and the result is better work output. Such behaviours of helping can be seen in the Piagetian and Vygotskian theories on learning.

Terwel, Gillies, Van and Hoek (2001) stated that teamwork and accurate information provided by the team mates are interrelated and improve learning tactics, whereas inaccurate information being shared in a group of students results in poor learning. Mastergeorge et al.'s (2000) and (Webb & Mastergeorge, 2003) study proposed that students asking for help with specific questions were the ones who got the best explanations and benefited from them. Specific questions such as, why is the answer 31 or what is 29 times 2, get a more detailed explanation than a general question, such as "I do not understand it or how come that resulted in this?".

The effect of efficient communication has an important effect on learning (Gillies & Ashman, 1995; Webb & Mastergeorge, 2003; Webb & Palincsar, 1996). Efficient communication behaviour includes providing information for the peers, acquiring explanation and implementation of the explanation (Webb and Mastergeorge, 2003). Children who help each other by giving explanations can give benefit to the other children if they have experienced working in cooperative groups. Ross (1995) stated that helping behaviours can be improved if the children are advised and guided on how to ask for help and how to help others.

III. Purpose of the Study

There is still not much known about what students actually do in a CL class and how their interactions contribute to academic and other outcomes. There has been relatively less research on the processes during a cooperative learning environment. This is the case largely because the majority of studies have used quasi-experimental design in which post-test outcomes were compared to pre-test performance. In the context of EFL classrooms, where the present study is located, although there have been a handful of studies on CL (e.g., Alanazy, 2011; Alharbi, 2008; Alhaidari, 2006), none of these studies have used observation methods to understand student verbal interactions in a CL class.

IV. Methodology

A. Background to the Research

The study was situated in Saudi Arabia, which has a total area of 2,149,690 square kilometres, and a population of 27 million. The official language is Arabic. The study was conducted in Al-Baha city, which is located in the south-western part of Saudi Arabia. This is a small city with approximately 400,000 people. There are no co-educational schools in Saudi Arabia. The number of students in each secondary school is approximately 200 and in each class the numbers range from 15 to 20 students. All students are from similar middle-class socio-economic backgrounds.

B. Participants

The participants in this study were 139 tenth-grade male students, aged 14-15 years in four boys' secondary schools in Al-Baha city. Four English teachers located in four secondary schools were invited to participate in the study. Schools were randomly assigned to one of two conditions: Four tenth-grade classes were randomly selected from two schools to form the experimental groups and four classes were randomly selected from another two schools as control groups. All schools are government boys' schools located in Al-Baha city. There were 70 students in the experimental conditions and 69 students in the control conditions. The EFL schools selected for the research have a similar socio-demographic profile and the student population of each school ranges from 180 to 200 students. All students are from a similar middle-class socio-economic Saudi background. Four English teachers from the four schools were invited to participate in the study. All teachers have bachelor degrees in teaching English with similar experiences at teaching English. Furthermore, they have obtained a teacher performance rating of 90% or more. The teachers who were invited to participate in the research are competent and all had opportunities to participate in the training for the different conditions (i.e. training in CL for the experimental teachers and training in EFL resources for the control teachers) discussed later in the chapter, as cited in (Alghamdi & Gillies, 2013).

C. Instrument and Data Collection

Only quantitative data was collected in this study. The instrument that was used to collect data was an observation schedule used to observe students working together, both in a cooperative learning environment and in small groups. This instrument is discussed below.

Observations

The researcher videotaped eight classes—four classes in the experimental condition who have trained with cooperative learning skills and four classes in the comparison groups without this training— for a 12-week period. In the experiment classes, eight students were chosen randomly from each class and divided into two CL groups (four students in each group). Each of the groups was video-recorded one time for 30 minutes. Then two CL groups were chosen randomly from the pool of the students in each class. Two video cameras were used to cover two groups each week. In the control classes, eight students were chosen randomly from each class and divided into two small groups (four students in each group). Each of the groups was videotaped for one time for 30 minutes during their English grammar lessons.

The schedule designed by Gillies (2003) and modified by the researcher was used to collect information during videotape sessions on Saudi students' verbal interactions while they are learning English as a foreign language. The researcher used the following table as a guide to identify new codes that emerge during the videotapes when students learn English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia. The researcher added five new variables to the table that was designed by Gillies (2003). These are: make statements during discussions, respond to others' requests with a brief statement, explanation with giving examples, request clarification from others and support others in the group; whereas the other five variables were originally from Gillies' work. The schedule has ten interaction variables that are clarified in the following table (2)

TABLE 2:
INTERACTION VARIABLES

Interaction variables	Frequency
1-Makes basic statement during discussion.	
2-Responds to others's requests for basic information with brief statement.	
3-Explanation with giving example.	
4-Asks open-ended questions (how, why…)	
5-Requests clarification from others.	
6-Positive interruption	
7-Negative interruption	
8-Direct actions of the group. (Gives directions, organizes responsibility)	
9-Supports or encourages others in the group.	
10-Non-specific verbal interaction	

D. Intervention

The researcher organized a workshop: for teachers of the experimental groups who trained in cooperative learning skills. In this study, the researcher compared cooperative learning groups and small groups who were not trained in cooperative learning skills.

Cooperative learning Groups (training program)

The researcher organized a workshop for five weeks to train both the teachers and the students in the experimental condition group in the basic skills of cooperative learning. Johnson and Johnson (1999) maintain that teachers have to be familiar with the basic skills to implement cooperative learning properly. For example, the teacher should be able to form cooperative groups, monitor the process and outcomes of the group experience, and explain the expectations for the group as well as individual members. The researcher invited the teachers to attend the workshop to clarify the basic skills that needed to be developed to ensure that the cooperative learning intervention was correctly implemented.

A cooperative learning intervention-training program developed by Gillies and Ashman (1995), Gillies (2003, 2007) and Yamanashi (2008) was modified and used by the researcher to train the teachers who taught the experimental groups in this study (see appendix for full program…). Johnson and Johnson (2003) pointed out that the use of cooperative training programs assists group members to be more proficient in providing learning experiences. Particular benefits to group training include: The group members are able to explain new experiences to each other, Group feedback, Motivation that enhances group members, Encouragement to learn, Professional Development identity. The use of training assists group members to become more proficient in implementing learning experiences (Johnson & Johnson, 2003). An overview of the intervention-training program is outlined below:

1- Discussion of CL five principals: positive interdependence, small group skills, and group processing, face-to-face interaction and individual accountability. These are basic skills of the cooperative learning method; students have to be trained to use them otherwise they cannot work cooperatively in groups.

2- "We instead of me" positive interdependence. It exists when group members are linked together in such a way that one cannot succeed unless others do also (Gillies, 2007).

3- "No hitchhiking on the work of others" individual accountability. Every student in the group should identify his role and he has to do it. Individual accountability exists when each group member understands that they are responsible for completing the assigned tasks and assisting others to complete their assigned tasks as well (Holliday, 2005). It means students have different activities in one group.

4- Understanding group social skills: students need to be familiar with social skills such as listening politely, disagreeing and taking turns to work in groups properly.

5- Sharing of experiences: what were the benefits of CL? What were the disadvantages? How could the approach be sustained? And in addition there should be video clips about cooperative learning, as cited in (Alghamdi & Gillies, 2013).

E. Procedures

The researcher videotaped eight classes at four secondary schools, two schools in the experimental condition who have trained with cooperative learning skills and two schools in the control groups without this training; this occurred over a 12-week period from the beginning of August to the end of November 2013. In each school, there were two classes from the tenth-grade. In the control classes, the researcher requested the teacher to form two small groups and each of the groups was videotaped for one class time of 30 minutes. However, in the experiment classes, students were divided into two CL groups and each of the groups was video-recorded one time for 30 minutes.

The English teachers of participants in the experimental condition group participated in a workshop that developed their knowledge in how to implement CL in their classroom. The other two EFL English teachers of the students in the control conditions did not take this training, however the researcher spent the same amount of time to introduce them books about teaching English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia.

The students in both the control and the experimental conditions studied the same English lessons in their groups four times a week, one hour per session. The English teachers taught their students by following the techniques that were outlined by Gillies (2007) and Webb (1995) for introducing many different activities, providing follow-up practice and demonstrating procedures for working on it.

F. Coding Verbal Interactions

The researcher observed all video clips and he identified ten verbal interactions that were highlighted during students' discussions groups who learn English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia. The verbal interactions that were identified are: Makes basic statement during discussion; Responds to others' request for basic information with brief statement; Explanation with giving examples; Asks open-ended questions (how, why…); Requests clarification from others; Positive interruption; Negative interruption; Direct actions of the group (Gives directions, organize responsibility); Supports or encourages others in the group and non-specific verbal interaction. Two video cameras were used to cover two groups each week. Both the control classes and the experimental classes were videotaped for three English lessons.

Because students undertook English lessons in a cooperative learning environment throughout the research, the analysis of video clips should have done using the group members rather than each student alone. The researcher followed Gillis's work (1998) that investigated the impacts of the group experience on individuals. However, the researcher decided to analyze the behaviour states data individually. Furthermore, the researcher analyzed the verbal interactions data at the group level, to evaluate the quantity of interaction characteristics of all groups.

Inter-observer reliability

Two-research assistants coded all the videotapes .The research assistants were trained to code students' verbal interactions. Inter-rater reliability on students' verbal interactions was greater than 90%, which is a satisfactory level of inter-rater agreement (Gay & Airasian, 2010).

In total, 12 hours of students' verbal interactions were coded. Inter-rater reliability was 95% across verbal interaction states (Makes basic statement during discussion; Responds to others' requests for basic information with brief statement; Explanation with giving example; Asks open-ended questions (how, why…); Requests clarification from others; Positive interruption; Negative interruption; Direct actions of the group (Gives directions, organizes responsibility); Supports or encourages others in the group and non-specific verbal interaction.

Statical analysis

The overall impact of the intervention on the students' verbal interaction and behaviour states over two conditions at the three times was calculated by using Krushal-Wallis Test .The Kruskal–Wallis Test which is used when the data sets are small allows for between-groups effects to be identified**.**

V. Results and Analysis

Verbal interaction outcomes

In order to determine if there were differences in the students' verbal interaction between the conditions, ten Kruskal–Wallis Tests were conducted on the frequency of recorded verbal interactions for the students in the different conditions.

TABLE (3)
TESTS OF BETWEEN GROUP EFFECTS FOR 10 INTERACTION VARIABLES

Interaction variables	N	X^2	*P*
1-Makes basic statement during discussion.	**8**	11.463	.001
2-Responds to others's requests for basic information with brief statement.	**8**	9.216	.002
3-Explanation with giving example.	**8**	8.284	.004
4-Asks open-ended questions (how, why…)	**8**	1.996	.158
5-Requests clarification from others.	**8**	2.119	.145
6-Positive interruption	**8**	7.836	.005
7-Negative interruption	**8**	9.485	.002
8-Direct actions of the group. (Gives directions, organizes responsibility)	**8**	.373	.542
9-Supports or encourages others in the group.	**8**	4.314	.038
10-Non-specific verbal interaction	**8**	10.970	.001

In order to determine if there were differences in the students' verbal interaction between the conditions, ten Kruskal–Wallis Tests were conducted on the frequency of recorded verbal interactions for the EFL learners in the experimental and control conditions. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between the conditions in making basic statements during discussion, X^2 (1, N = 8) =11.463, p =. 001; Responds to others' requests for basic information with brief statement, X^2 (1, N = 8) = 9.216, p = .002; Explanation with giving example X^2 (1, N = 8) =8.284, p = .004; Positive interruption, X^2 (1, N = 8) = 7.836, p =. 005;

Negative interruption, X^2 (1, N = 8) =9.485, p = .002; Supports or encourages others in the group, X^2 (1, N = 8) = 4.314, p = .038; Nonspecific verbal interaction, X2 (1, N = 8) = 10.970, p = .001. In contrast, there were not significant differences in other verbal interaction such as Request clarification from others, X^2 (1, N = 8) =2.119, p =. 145; Direct actions of the group (Gives directions, organizes responsibility), X^2 (1, N = 8) = .373, p = .542; Asks open-ended questions (how, why…), X^2 (1, N = 8) = 1.996, p = 158.

An examination of the above table showed that the students in the experimental conditions provided more help in the form of making basic statements during discussions (Md=12, n= 8); responds to others' requests for basic information with brief statement (Md= 10, n =8); explanation with giving examples (Md=8, n= 8); positive interruption (Md=6.50, n=8); direct actions of the group (Gives directions, organize responsibility) (Md=, n =), supports or encourages others in the group (Md=5.50, n=8) than the students in the control conditions; In contrast, the students in the control conditions made more negative interruptions (Md=4, n=8); and non-specific verbal interaction (Md=3, n= 8) than their peers in the experimental condition.

VI. DISCUSSION

As indicated in the above table, the results showed that students gain more cooperative learning skills over time, particularly students in experimental conditions who gain more cooperative learning skills than their peers in the control conditions. The reason for this is that the students in experimental conditions trained how to apply cooperative learning skills, whereas students in the control conditions did not learn or train in these skills. It is clear from table 3, that there were four verbal interactions, which were significant at time 1, but during the time of the experiment, students gained more skills and there were six to seven verbal interactions, which were significant at both time 2 and time 3. It means that students in the experimental conditions develop their cooperative learning skills through time.

Moreover, the results showed that the students in the experimental groups communicate and interact more with each other than their classmates in the control groups. The different lessons presented to the students required them to interact and discuss the process, and this was very important to the members in terms of keeping involved in the task, identifying differences, and obtaining agreements. However, the students in the experimental conditions rather than their classmates in the control conditions demonstrated a good understanding of the need to interact with each other, ask for clarification, respect others' opinions, discuss ideas, and share information as they learned together on different problem-solving tasks (Gillies, 2004).Cohen (1994) pointed out that when the learners in a group have to deal with a problem with no definitive answer, productivity will depend on the frequency of task-related interactions.

Gillies (2004) compared cooperative groups with unstructured groups and came up with the conclusion that cooperative groups provided more help to the group members than uncooperative ones. Webb (1991) stated that constructive learning outcomes were the result of explanations given from one student to another. Inaccurate or complicated explanations, which do not remove the queries of help-seekers, do not result in positive accomplishments as the learners do not understand anything and fail to perform their tasks efficiently. Webb (2009) stated that the children acquiring help want help with specific questions and the help-providers explain them with featured explanations. The help-seekers then use the explanations and use them in their tasks and future projects. This way, their understanding is improved and the result is better work output.

The effect of efficient communication has an important effect on learning (Gillies & Ashman, 1995; N. M. Webb & A. Mastergeorge, 2003; N. M Webb & Palincsar, 1996). Efficient communication behaviour includes providing information for the peers, acquiring explanation and implementation of the explanation (Webb and Mastergeorge, 2003). Children who help each other by giving explanations can give benefit to other children if they have experienced working in cooperative groups.

Researchers who have studied peer interactions and learning, have used different methods. Fall, Webb, and Chudowsky (2000) preferred classifying accurate information in a helping behaviour into a detailed coding scheme that differentiated high and poor quality communication helping behaviour when seeking, providing and implementing help. Vedder (1985) pointed out a very important factor in cooperative group learning with helping behaviour. He proposed that helpers should be aware of the information they are transferring and have implemented the information themselves. If this is not taken care of, then the students seeking help would be misguided which would result in poor learning and weakened accomplishments. Fall et al. (2000) said that there is a difference between executive help- seeking and instrumental help- seeking. Executive help- seeking refers to asking for an answer, whereas instrumental help- seeking is asking for an explanation.

VII. Conclusion

To sum up, to identify the impact of cooperative learning method (CL) on verbal interactions of EFL learners, a research was conducted in EFL classrooms context. The data indicated that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control condition in making basic statements during discussion, responding to others' requests for basic information with brief statements, explanations with giving examples, Positive interruption, negative interruption, and supporting others in the group. In contrast, there were not significant differences in other verbal interactions such as requesting clarification from others, direct actions of the group (Gives directions, organize responsibility) and asking open-ended questions.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 28-36, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.28-36

The Impact of Free-time Reading on Foreign Language Vocabulary Development

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***Abstract*—The study reported in this article was conducted to investigate the influence of free-time reading on foreign language vocabulary development. The subjects were sixth and ninth graders in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and in regular mainstream classes, with Finnish as their L1 and English as their L2. The vocabulary sizes of the learners were measured with the Vocabulary Levels Test and the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test. Students who reported reading in English in their free time turned out to have larger vocabularies, both receptive and productive, than those who did not. The influence of reading on L2 vocabulary skills was particularly strong in the case of learners who read on a daily basis. Participants in the CLIL programmes had larger vocabularies than their mainstream peers, which can be seen as a result of the effective learning environment but also of the fact that they read substantially more than pupils in regular classes.**

***Index Terms*—vocabulary size, free-time reading, L2 English, CLIL, language learning**

I. Introduction

The relationship between foreign language vocabulary knowledge and reading is at least twofold and reciprocal: on the one hand, vocabulary knowledge has an effect on reading comprehension, and on the other hand, reading undoubtedly influences vocabulary knowledge and growth. It has been established (e.g. Laufer, 1997) that vocabulary is the most important factor in reading comprehension in general, far more important than syntax or general reading strategies. The influence of reading on lexical knowledge, the focus of this research report, has also been demonstrated in several studies (e.g. Coady, 1997; Wesche & Paribakht, 1999). As Gass (1999) states, there are still a number of unsettled questions related to vocabulary acquisition, although there is general consensus about the fact that at least some vocabulary is acquired *incidentally*, i.e. as a by-product of some other cognitive activity, especially reading.

Studies examining the influence of reading on the acquisition of vocabulary have mainly concentrated on finding out whether such an influence exists in the first place (e.g. Coady, 1997), or contemplating how many exposures to a word are necessary for successful acquisition (see Nation's 1990 survey of this issue). Some studies (e.g. Waring & Takaki, 2003; Pellicer-Sánchez & Schmitt, 2010; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006) have also considered the incremental nature of vocabulary learning and investigated the emergence of different aspects of lexical knowledge. It seems unquestionable that there are a great number of variables involved in the acquisition process, including various features of the word itself, not to mention individual characteristics of the learner. The study presented in this article differs from those conducted earlier in that it sets out to investigate the impact of the amount of free-time reading on foreign language vocabulary, measured in terms of productive and receptive vocabulary size. The subjects of the study represent learners from two different learning environments, the general mainstream education (GEN) and CLIL (content and language integrated learning).

II. Learning Through Reading

Nation and Coady (1988) explain that learning words by reading requires, first, that a sufficient number of the vocabulary in a text are familiar in order for understanding and contextual guessing to be possible and, second, that there are at least some unfamiliar words to be learnt. Unsurprisingly, if the contextual cues are unusable or non-existent, a reader cannot guess the meanings of unfamiliar items, and misunderstandings are probable (cf. Laufer, 1997). If, on the contrary, the context is too rich, the reader does not have to dwell on the meanings as he can nevertheless reach a satisfying level of understanding when it comes to the whole text. That is to say, the proportion of both unfamiliar items and cues needs to be adequate but not excessive for acquisition to occur. According to Nation (2001), a very high ratio of familiar words in a text, i.e. 99 to 100%, strengthens the existing vocabulary, whereas growth is still possible at lower levels of coverage, i.e. 95 to 98%.

It is not settled how much exposure to adequate texts is needed for learning to take place (cf. Huckin & Coady, 1999) but, basically, acquisition through reading is considered fragile and slow. Each meeting with a word typically involves only small gains: the estimates of the proportion of unfamiliar words learnt when encountered in a text vary between

20% and 5% (Nagy, 1997; Horst, Cobb & Meara, 1998), which means that only one unfamiliar item in every five to one unfamiliar item in every twenty may be learnt to some extent when reading. Nation (2001) explains that, for instance, the initial exposure to a new word may only give rise to a vague knowledge of its form and awareness of its novelty. Moreover, if the knowledge is not reinforced soon enough by another meeting, the learning will in all likelihood be lost.

Advanced learners are, nonetheless, indisputably found to profit from meaning focused reading (see e.g. Krashen, 1989; N. Ellis, 1994; Coady, 1997; Wesche & Paribakht, 1999) in that their vocabulary becomes wider. It appears that small gains may become large gains if a learner does a multitude of reading. Nagy's (1997) train of thought is very interesting: if one encountered a million tokens a year, and if at least two per cent of these tokens were unfamiliar, it would mean meeting 20 000 unfamiliar words per year. Moreover, if at least one in twenty of them is acquired (cf. above), the annual gain would be 1000 more or less learnt words, which corresponds to a native-like rate. One million running words is roughly equivalent to ten to twelve novels (Kennedy, 1987), or approximately 65 graded readers (Nation & Waring, 1999), or three to four undergraduate textbooks (Sutarsyah, Nation & Kennedy, 1994).

As pointed out earlier, the processes of lexical learning in general are as yet rather ill-understood. Consequently, it is not fully known how learning through extensive reading takes place either (cf. Gass, 1999). The presumption of furthering vocabulary growth through rich exposure to written texts is essentially based on input-oriented language acquisition theories which assume that development occurs when learners are processing meaningful input and involve themselves in inferring word meanings from context (e.g. Lee & VanPatten, 2003). Learning of this kind is often referred to as incidental or implicit because it appears to take place while learners are focused on something other than word acquisition itself, that is, a new item seems be learnt without intent to do so.

Krashen (1989) is one of the firmest advocates of extensive reading, for he states that the majority of vocabulary knowledge is learnt automatically simply by receiving enough comprehensible input in the form of printed materials, entailing that reading a great deal of adequate texts is both crucial and sufficient for acquiring a rich lexicon. However, as R. Ellis (1994) remarks, it may not be comprehensible input but rather comprehended input that is central. Lawson and Hogben (1996) take a yet more radical stand in arguing that even successful understanding may not be the same as successful acquisition, i.e. comprehension alone only seldom appears to translate into learning.

Research conducted by Paribakht and Wesche (1993; 1997; 1999) provides evidence for the above position. They found that many learners simply ignored unrecognised words if they could grasp the message of the whole text without understanding them. In other words, it seems that learners do not necessarily pick up new vocabulary automatically when engaged in reading activities. More recently, similar findings have been achieved by Waring and Takaki (2003), whose subjects learned some new words by reading a graded reader but forgot most of them, as shown in a post-test one week later and especially in a second post-test administered three months after the reading experiment. This led the researchers to conclude that the number of occurrences required for a word to be retained may well be much higher than estimated so far: even after more than 18 encounters, there was only a 10 to 15% chance of the word meaning to be remembered. Waring and Takaki (2003) used different tests to tap different aspects of word knowledge (word-form recognition, prompted recognition of meaning, and unprompted recognition of meaning). According to their results, recognition of word-forms was the easiest part of word knowledge, whereas meaning appeared to be more difficult. Pellicer-Sánchez and Schmitt (2010), in contrast, found meaning recognition to be the best learned aspect of word knowledge in a study where the subjects read an authentic novel and were tested immediately afterwards. However, these two studies are not easily comparable, as they had very few similarities. What is more, the words tested were rather unusual in both: Waring and Takaki (2003) had substituted each test word with a non-existing but English-looking word, whereas Pellicer-Sánchez and Schmitt (2010) used only African words from their otherwise English novel.

A number of studies have indeed shown that second language learners do learn vocabulary, albeit slowly and in small quantities, incidentally, through extensive reading. It has also been proposed (e.g. by Sonbul and Schmitt, 2009) that the most effective method is a combination of incidental and explicit learning. Incidental learning may occur as a by-product of any language-related activity, for example reading, but learning would be enhanced by explicit vocabulary instruction. In summary, it seems evident that vocabulary knowledge comprises countless features and that learners do not immediately learn all of them but, rather, may incrementally add new properties until a mature entry is achieved, if it ever is achieved. Extended reading of adequate texts has been found to promote lexical learning particularly well, although the acquisition process itself is not clear as yet. Contrary to input-oriented learning theories, both conscious and unconscious procedures may be present and enhance all L2 word acquisition, whether incidental or intentional.

III. Vocabulary Size

The question of *vocabulary size* is directly linked to the ability of a language learner to read and understand different types of texts. It has been estimated that a text cannot be comprehended even for gist if less than 80% of the running words are familiar (Nation, 2001; Milton, 2006). According to Takala (1989), 90% familiarity is required to understand the main ideas (one unfamiliar word in every ten words), and 95 % familiarity to comprehend the details of a text (one unfamiliar word in every twenty words). Laufer (1989) also sets the limit of adequate comprehension at 95%. However, Hu and Nation (2000) estimate that even one unknown token in every twenty is too much. They compared the effect of different densities of unfamiliar items and measured comprehension. At the 95% coverage level, some of the partici-

pants gained adequate understanding but most did not. For sufficient comprehension to be likely to occur, they arrived at suggesting a density as low as one unknown token in every fifty, meaning that learners would need to know around 98% of the running words in a text. This is in line with Nation and Coady (1988), who approximate that unfamiliar words should not cover more than 2 % of any text for the reader to be able to reach sufficient understanding.

The relationship between vocabulary size and text coverage (or the proportion of familiar words in a text) is affected by text type. With the 98% familiarity condition, youth novels would require the knowledge of around 5000 words (Hirsch & Nation, 1992), adult fiction as many as 8000 to 9000 word families, and newspaper articles around 8000 word families (Nation, 2006), to be understood. If, however, the 95% coverage reported by Laufer is adequate, substantially smaller lexicons are sufficient for comprehension. A vocabulary of the 2000 most frequent words would be enough for reading youth fiction and 4 000 for comprehending newspapers and adult fiction. As a rule of thumb, Laufer (1997) reports that one needs a minimum vocabulary of around 3000 word families to gain 90 to 95% coverage of any text, which she considers a general threshold for reading unsimplified texts.

As for vocabulary sizes of language learners, they are generally substantially smaller than those of native speakers. According to Nation & Waring (1997), native speakers of English typically learn about 1000 word families a year until they reach about 20000 word families as young adults. At the ages of thirteen and sixteen, the ages of the subjects in the present study, they would presumably know well over 10000 and round 15000 to 16000 word families, respectively. After six years of study, learners of English, however, have been found to know receptively about 3500-4000 words and productively about 2600 words (Schmitt & Meara, 1997; Laufer, 1998).

IV. CLIL vs. Mainstream

Teaching and learning through a foreign or second language is not a novel phenomenon; on the contrary, it has occurred throughout the history of education. Interest in the matter has recently increased considerably, which may at least partly be explained by the current societal situation. The on-going European integration and internationalisation in general continuously lay more and more demanding objectives on learning and teaching additional languages. Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) attracts educators and researchers, for it may be an ideal environment for achieving good proficiency in an L2.

CLIL programmes vary a great deal but nonetheless they share a number of key features. CLIL invariably involves dual focus in that the basic objective of any type of CLIL is to integrate the learning of a non-language subject matter with the acquisition of a language other than the learners' L1. Further, all CLIL programmes explicitly focus on the development of learners' thinking skills (Räsänen, 1994; Sjöholm, 1999), entailing the development of the learning strategies and cognitive skills necessary for academic progress on all levels of education. In the light of the latter point, CLIL and GEN education do not differ much in the Finnish context, as objectives of a similar kind are written down in the mainstream curriculum as well (Finnish National Board of Education, 2004).

As for learning results in CLIL, compared with mainstream classes, studies that have investigated the effects of CLIL on the learners' mother tongue skills (a severe concern for some parents and educators) have shown that CLIL does not have a negative impact on the development of L1, some actually suggesting that the situation may be quite the opposite. As an example, Merisuo-Storm (2002) examined pupils' L1 skills in reading and writing in elementary instruction and found that CLIL learners generally outperformed their peers attending the monolingual stream. Another concern has been related to the acquisition of content knowledge. According to the results of Seikkula-Leino (2007), there were no marked differences between classes taught in their L1 Finnish and those taught in L2 English. Similarly, Xanthou (2011) found that both groups, CLIL (with English as the language of instruction) and mainstream (Cypriot Greek), gained equal amounts of content knowledge in science classes, in addition to which the CLIL pupils demonstrated a marked increase in L2 vocabulary.

Also research concentrating on the development of L2 skills in CLIL has produced encouraging results. Järvinen (2005; see also 1999) tracked the syntactic development of relativisation, as measured by elicited imitation and grammaticality judgements, in CLIL and mainstream education during elementary school in Finland. Her results suggest that foreign language acquisition is substantially faster and more versatile in CLIL than in general classes in that the CLIL group could produce sentences significantly longer, more complex and more accurate than the control group, in the elicited imitation task. Valtanen (2001) investigated overall English proficiency at the end of lower secondary school and measured English skills in reading, listening, writing, speaking, and grammar. CLIL learners scored on average higher than their mainstream peers in each section of the test. The results imply that CLIL has a clear positive effect on the development of English competence as a whole. In fact, the CLIL learners were so advanced that a ceiling effect was found in most of the tasks, that is, the level of their proficiency could not actually be discovered with the national test battery aimed at the regular ninth-graders.

Karonen's (2003) study is one of the few aimed at investigating vocabulary learning in CLIL. She explored lexical organisation by conducting a word association test on both CLIL students and students following the mainstream curriculum. She hypothesised that CLIL learners' lexicons would be more organised in nature and that they would give more paradigmatic responses typical of native speaker adults, whereas the learners in formal language instruction were expected to give more syntagmatic responses typical of native speaker children. However, no marked differences were found between the classes in this respect. That is to say, no developmental syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift was found in

either of the groups. One reason might be that the learners were simply too young (5th, 7th, and 9th graders) for the organisation dimension of their lexicons to have developed sufficiently. The case might be different with more advanced learners.

Another small-scale study on CLIL pupils' vocabulary knowledge in the Finnish comprehensive school is Viinikkala (2006). In that study, the development of passive and active vocabularies was investigated with Nation's Levels Tests (see the subchapter on Methods and Procedures) and lexical richness in the students' free writing was evaluated. As with previous research on reception and production, the two vocabulary systems turned out to be strongly related to one another, i.e. learners with wider passive vocabularies had also wider active vocabularies. Receptive knowledge also appeared to develop the fastest and lexical richness the slowest.

In conclusion, research has indicated that learning in a CLIL environment does not typically prevent students from learning content, nor does it influence negatively the development of their mother tongue proficiency. As for TL development, CLIL seems to have a more favourable effect on pupils' L2 skills than the monolingual stream, although it is not yet clear exactly how and why this is. As for vocabulary acquisition, CLIL may in fact be ideal, as it combines explicit and implicit learning conditions (see e.g. R. Ellis, 1990). In addition to formal instruction, the pupils are constantly exposed to authentic input and have a multitude of opportunities to communicate in the target language.

V. The Study

A. The Aim of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the impact of free-time reading on foreign language (L2 English) vocabulary development. As the subjects came from two different learning environments, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and general mainstream education (GEN), the study was also intended to compare the learning outcomes of these two groups of learners and thus shed light on the effectiveness of these two learning contexts.

B. Subjects

The subjects of the study were Finnish comprehensive school pupils, aged 13 to 16. At the onset, 367 pupils took the vocabulary tests, but the number was reduced to 330 on the basis of a background questionnaire. To ensure the homogeneity of the subjects, only those whose native language was Finnish, who did not speak English at home, and who had not lived in an English-speaking country for more than two weeks, were chosen. 150 of the subjects were in 6th grade and thus finishing primary school, and the rest, 180, were in 9th grade, i.e. finishing lower secondary school. Of the 6th-graders, 75 were in CLIL classes (CLIL6) and 74 in mainstream instruction (GEN6), whereas the 9th-graders consisted of 88 CLIL students (CLIL9) and 93 mainstream students (GEN9). The subjects came from altogether 17 classes from 11 different schools in southwest Finland.

It is worth noting that in Finland, pupils start a CLIL programme without any knowledge of the foreign language. They take an aptitude test which measures school readiness and skills in their native language, so in a sense the CLIL students may represent a group with certain academic propensities, but this does not automatically mean that they have an upper hand compared with their mainstream peers, most of whom were never tested and might well have obtained similar results if they had taken the test. We are aware that studies involving CLIL classes are often criticised because of the allegedly unfair initial situation of the mainstream groups, but we would like to emphasise the fact that many pupils opt for non-CLIL education, not because they feel they would not be able to follow a bilingual programme but simply because they want to follow the regular curriculum.

Attending a CLIL class nevertheless inevitably differentiates pupils from their mainstream peers in various ways. The sheer amount of foreign language input is, by definition, greater in CLIL instruction, and, at least in Finland, CLIL pupils start being exposed to the foreign language, albeit in small doses, from the beginning of the first grade, whereas formal foreign language teaching in regular classes does not start until the third grade. Therefore, the CLIL subjects of the present study had been exposed to English at school two years longer than the mainstream subjects.

C. Methods and Procedures

Two vocabulary tests were used to investigate the vocabulary size of the subjects. Receptive vocabulary knowledge was measured with the Vocabulary Levels Test, originally designed by Nation (1983). The initial test has later been replaced by improved versions 1 and 2 by Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham (2001). This study used Version 1 (see Schmitt, 2000). Productive vocabulary knowledge was measured with the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test developed by Laufer & Nation (1999). The test has two parallel versions; this study exploited Version 2. Both tests have been widely used and validated by various scholars (e.g. Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001; Laufer & Nation, 1999; Beglar & Hunt, 1999).

The scores obtained in the vocabulary tests do not directly correspond to a certain vocabulary size; rather, they indicate the proportion of words a learner knows at the various frequency levels. Therefore, the size of the learner's lexicon had to be calculated separately. Our formula was largely the same as that used by Laufer (1998).

A questionnaire was used to find out about the subjects' use of English during their free time, the main focus being on whether or not they read English language texts outside school hours. The participants were asked to announce, first of all, if they read English language books, magazines or other texts outside class time at all. Furthermore, they were

asked to specify how often they were involved in these activities in English, the options being *monthly, a few times per week, many times per week* and *daily*.

A self-report is not necessarily the most reliable way to collect data as, for instance, the subjects may give disinformation and as there is always room for understanding the questions differently from the intended aim. However, the participants were encouraged to answer as truthfully as they possibly could. The testing was carried out under normal classroom circumstances during schooldays on two different occasions, both lasting 45 minutes. On the first occasion, the participants filled in the questionnaire and took the receptive test, and on the second occasion they took the productive test.

VI. Results and Discussion

The participants' receptive and productive vocabulary sizes were measured using the Vocabulary Levels Test and the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test, as stated above. A more thorough account of the vocabularies, in terms of sizes, the productive-receptive ratios, and lexical frequency levels can be found in another, forthcoming, article by the same authors. The subjects' receptive and productive vocabulary sizes can be seen in Table 1 (sixth-graders) and Table 2 (ninth-graders). The figures represent word families.

TABLE 1.
SIXTH-GRADERS' RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZES

	GEN6 (N=74)	CLIL6 (N=75)	t	df	p
Receptive voc.	1853	4505	11.39	116	<0.001
Productive voc.	788	2271	9.22	102	<0.001

As Table 1 indicates, the CLIL6 pupils had statistically larger vocabularies, both receptive and productive, than the GEN6 group. In other words, the CLIL environment seems to have produced better learning results than general education.

TABLE 2.
NINTH-GRADERS' RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZES

	GEN9 (N=93)	CLIL9 (N=88)	t	df	p
Receptive voc.	5161	6379	4.82	179	<0.001
Productive voc.	2565	3742	5.26	179	<0.001

Similarly to the 6th-graders, significant differences were found in the receptive and productive vocabulary sizes of the 9th-graders, with the CLIL learners outperforming the mainstream group. Taken as a whole, the vocabulary sizes apparent in this study are in line with earlier studies on vocabulary sizes of language learners (cf. Nation & Waring, 1997; Laufer, 1998). However, the passive vocabularies elicited in this study are larger than those discovered in the above-mentioned studies, i.e. the active-passive ratio is lower. This would seem to suggest that the Finnish educational system strongly encourages passive vocabulary learning but fails to activate items as effectively, an observation supported by Järvinen's (1999) findings.

As regards the differences between the CLIL and GEN groups, these results are also in accordance with many earlier studies, implying that CLIL as a learning environment is more effective and gives better opportunities also for lexical development than the traditional classroom. However, children and young people of today, at least in countries like Finland, are in constant contact with the English language also outside the classroom. It is therefore likely that they also acquire English vocabulary incidentally when engaged in free-time activities. The rest of the results reported here are based on the information gathered with the questionnaire that the subjects filled in regarding their encounters with English in their free-time activities, particularly reading. The question the subjects had to answer about their reading habits in general was the following:

In your free time, do you read English books, magazines or other texts?

If the answer was positive, the testees were asked to specify how often they read in English on their own, the options being *monthly, a few times per week, many times per week* and *daily*. When analysing the results, the option *many times per week* was combined with *a few times per week* to constitute *weekly*, for it was selected only rarely.

About 60% (N=196) of the participants reported that they read English texts outside class time and about 40% (N=134) stated that they do not. The CLIL9 learners announced reading the most (70% of them) and the GEN6 learners the least (40% of them). CLIL6 and GEN9 groups were identical to one another in that the proportion of readers was sixty per cent in both of them. Both readers' and non-readers' receptive and productive vocabulary sizes and the ratios between the vocabularies are displayed in Table 3. The differences between the two groups of learners are presented in terms of t-test results.

TABLE 3.
DIFFERENCE BETWEEN READERS AND NON-READERS IN RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE AND IN PRODUCTIVE-RECEPTIVE RATIO

	Readers (N = 196)	Non-readers (N = 134)	Difference		
	Vocabulary size		t	df	p
Receptive	5275	3601	7.07	328	<0.001
Productive	2923	1659	7.83	326	<0.001
Ratio (%)	52.9	44.4	5.04	328	<0.001

Table 3 shows that pupils who reported reading in English in their free time scored significantly better in the vocabulary tests than those pupils who reported not reading. Also the active-passive ratio is higher for them, suggesting that they could use a larger proportion of their passively known words in production.

Of those 196 participants who read English texts in their free time, 34% announced reading a few times a month (N=67; 20% of the entire sample), 40% a few times a week (N=78; 24% of the entire sample), and 26% every day (N=51; 16% of the entire sample). These three options were chosen surprisingly evenly within the CLIL6, GEN9 and CLIL9 groups, i.e. each option was selected by around 30 per cent of the readers. Of the GEN6 readers, on the other hand, approximately 10 per cent reported reading daily, 50 per cent weekly and 40 per cent monthly. Table 4 presents the readers' passive and active vocabulary sizes as well as the proportion of actively known items, according to the reported frequency of reading.

TABLE 4.
RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE AND PRODUCTIVE –RECEPTIVE RATIO BY FREQUENCY OF READING

Frequency of reading	N	Receptive vocabulary	Productive vocabulary	Ratio (%)
Monthly	67 (34 %)	4613	2390	49
Weekly	78 (40 %)	5023	2717	53
Daily	51 (26 %)	6527	3965	58

Table 4 implies that vocabulary knowledge is the greater the more often one reads in the target language. Moreover, the proportion of active words seems to increase the more often one reads. The possible significance of these differences was investigated by a one-way ANOVA, which indicated that the frequency of reading activity significantly affected receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge ($F=13.8$, $p<0.001$ and $F=15.5$, $p<0.001$, respectively) and the relationship between the vocabularies ($F=5.7$, $p=0.004$). The post hoc Scheffe test results are displayed in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
DIFFERENCE IN RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE AND IN PRODUCTIVE-RECEPTIVE RATIO BY FREQUENCY OF READING

	Receptive vocabulary		Productive vocabulary		Ratio	
Frequency of reading	Mean difference	p	Mean difference	p	Mean difference	p
Monthly – Weekly	-410	0.482	-327	0.465	-3.8	0.275
Weekly – Daily	-1504	<0.001	-1248	<0.001	-5.2	0.137
Monthly – Daily	-1914	<0.001	-1574	<0.001	-9	0.004

Table 5 indicates that the frequency of reading has a significant effect on vocabulary size especially if one reads on a daily basis. The same is true for the active-passive ratio, i.e. among those who read, vocabulary seems to become active significantly better if one reads every day. Reading weekly or monthly does not seem to be as beneficial.

In sum, what learners do in their free time appears to have a significant effect on their target language word proficiency, as those pupils who read in English on their own scored significantly higher than those who reported not to read. Moreover, the more often they reported reading in English outside class time, the more vocabulary they knew both receptively and productively. More precisely, those who read on a daily basis turned out to be lexically stronger than those who read more infrequently.

The observation about the benefits of reading large quantities of text is in line with previous research stating that learning from reading is extremely fragile and slow (see e.g. Nagy, 1997; Horst, Cobb & Meara, 1998). As discussed in Section II, each meeting with a word may typically involve only small gains and the learning will in all likelihood be lost if not reinforced soon enough by another meeting (cf. Nation, 2001), which is probably why the frequency of exposure was found to make such a decisive difference in the results of our participants also. On the other hand, as some researchers (see e.g. N. Ellis, 1997; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Carter, 2001) suggest, lexical learning could probably be advanced by deeper cognition, that is to say, by learners paying attention to individual items and investing conscious effort into concluding their meaning. In addition to reading more and more, learners may profit from being taught different inferring and memorising strategies, as well as other explicit ways to commit word knowledge into memory while reading.

It appears, then, that learners who receive English input in the form of written texts outside school are those who acquire the largest lexicons. Then again, the streams were not equal in that the CLIL pupils reported reading to a larger extent than their GEN peers, possibly suggesting that a CLIL context itself may encourage different reading habits than

the general context. By the end of elementary school, sixty per cent of the CLIL pupils and forty per cent of the GEN pupils had started to read in English on their own, which is a striking difference. By the end of lower secondary school, the corresponding proportions are seventy per cent for CLIL and sixty per cent for GEN, the CLIL pupils thus taking to reading English texts outside of school more frequently than the GEN pupils during the comprehensive school. Taken the evidence in support of the power of reading, we believe that the clear difference in the reading habits between the two learning environments may be one of the main reasons for CLIL having yielded greater vocabulary sizes (cf. Sylvén, 2010). Of course, our conclusions would be based on more solid grounds if we had been able to compare the subgroups in more detail and control for the differences in type and amount of input and in some other factors which differentiate CLIL and GEN classes.

Finally, as the majority of the participants claimed to read outside the school environment, it is interesting to view how well their vocabularies support the reading of distinct types of English language texts. Based on the idea that one needs to know 98 per cent of the vocabulary in a text to be able to comprehend it and to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words from context, Nation (2006) estimates that understanding newspapers and adult fiction would require a vocabulary of 8000 to 9000 words. In the present study, only around twenty CLIL9 pupils and a handful of GEN9 pupils knew this much vocabulary, suggesting that most of the readers would have considerable difficulties in trying to comprehend newspapers or novels. On the other hand, Hirsh and Nation (1992) report that comprehending youth novels necessitates a lexicon of only 5 000 items, meaning that the average ninth-grader would be able to read them without major difficulty. The average CLIL6 pupil was familiar with some 4500 word families, which provides fairly good readiness for reading youth fiction.

On the other hand, Laufer (1989) concludes that knowing 95 per cent of the running words in a text suffices for adequate understanding, entailing that a vocabulary of 4 000 words would be enough for reading newspapers as well as adult fiction (cf. Nation, 2006) and a vocabulary of only 2 000 words for reading youth novels (cf. Hirsh & Nation, 1992). This holds that the three strongest groups would be able to read all of these text types, provided they can tolerate a level of ambiguity. As regards the weakest group, GEN6 learners' knowledge does not directly suffice to read any of the above-mentioned text types, although they knew almost enough vocabulary to read youth fiction. As forty per cent of them nonetheless reported reading, they are probably able to comprehend the simplest texts to a satisfying degree. Free-time reading does not necessarily require the same level of understanding as, for instance, reading for studying, free-time readers conceivably standing relatively well the disturbance that arises from not being able to infer the meaning of each and every unfamiliar item.

To conclude, what the pupils do in their spare time appears to be crucial as regards their success rate in mastering vocabulary. Frequent target language use in general and reading target language texts outside of schoolwork in particular may be decisive in that the pupils who announced reading on their own were those who scored the best, regardless of group. That being said, the CLIL learners reported reading to a larger extent than their control peers, the CLIL context conceivably encouraging different reading habits than the monolingual environment.

VII. Conclusion

Our results implied that the Finnish comprehensive school can provide a good setting for foreign language vocabulary acquisition in that the pupils were shown to learn receptively an average of around 700 word families and productively about 400 word families per year during their comprehensive education, estimations which are in line with previous research on English vocabulary learning in a foreign language context. It does, however, seem to matter whether a pupil attends a CLIL class or a traditional class as far as the overall size of his/her English lexicon is concerned. In the sixth grade, the average CLIL participant knew receptively some 4500 and productively around 2300 word families, the corresponding figures for the mainstream participants being only 1800 and 800, respectively. In the ninth grade, the CLIL pupils could on average comprehend about 6400 and produce around 3700 word families, the GEN pupils understanding approximately 5200 and being able to produce around 2600 words.

It was not possible to attribute the positive receptive results of the CLIL participants to the CLIL method alone as, in the light of our findings, the CLIL learners may have understood more words partly because they had started their English education two years earlier than the mainstream learners, giving them more time to accumulate lexical knowledge. On the other hand, the extra English input to which all of the learners had been exposed outside school hours had possibly ironed out the probable differences in the word learning opportunities the GEN and CLIL pupils have at school. Reading target language texts, especially, was proven to be decisive and the participants who announced reading on their own were those who scored the best, regardless of group. That being said, the CLIL learners reported reading to a larger extent than their control peers, the CLIL context conceivably encouraging different reading habits than the monolingual environment.

Acknowledgement

The authors wish to thank the anonymous reviewers for their precise and insightful comments.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 37-45, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.37-45

Pre-service English Teachers' Vocabulary Learning Strategy Use and Vocabulary Size: A Cross-sectional Evaluation

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***Abstract*—After years of neglect, vocabulary has now been accepted as crucial to be able to interact in the target language. However, it may also become a challenge for learners to master a sufficient amount of vocabulary. It is argued that the use of vocabulary learning strategies leads to effective vocabulary learning. Addressing this relationship, different studies have focused on probing the dynamics of vocabulary learning. In this sense, the current study attempts to examine this issue for EFL university students who are also pre-service English teachers. It aims to investigate the relationship between their vocabulary learning strategy use and vocabulary size. For this purpose, a cross-sectional and mixed research design was adapted and 80 ELT majors from 1st to 4th year participated in the study. In the three-week data gathering process, three instruments were used to measure the participants' vocabulary size and vocabulary learning strategy use. The results demonstrated that the most frequently used strategy category was determination strategies although it did not have any effect on the participants' vocabulary size. Multiple regression analysis revealed that the participants' vocabulary learning strategy use, in general, significantly explained 17.8% of the variation in their vocabulary size.**

***Index Terms*—vocabulary learning, vocabulary size, vocabulary learning strategies, Turkish EFL learners**

I. Introduction

Vocabulary is an important issue in language learning and an essential component of second language (L2) proficiency. After a period during which grammar was perceived as center to language learning, many researchers and educators have now recognized the essential role of vocabulary in second language learning process. In his widely referred quotation, Wilkins (1972) emphasizes the importance of vocabulary as "without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed" (p.111). Grammar is undoubtedly vital for successful and native-like language use, but not as much as vocabulary knowledge since it is the words that help learners deliver the overall meaning. As a matter of fact, learners are also aware of the importance of vocabulary and, as Schmitt (2010) says, they don't carry around grammar books but dictionaries. Besides, for the research part, many studies (e.g. Laufer, 1992; Laufer & Goldstein, 2004; Alderson, 2005) have been conducted to probe the dynamics of vocabulary in the second language learning process. Laufer (1992) found a close relationship between vocabulary size and reading while Laufer and Goldstein (2004) found that vocabulary accounted for 42.6% of the variance in learners' foreign language class grades. Similarly, Albrechtsen, Haastrup, and Henriksen's study (2008) revealed a high correlation between L2 vocabulary size and L2 reading ability. In a more systematic study addressing this interrelationship, vocabulary was found to have a strong relationship with reading, writing, listening and grammar (Alderson, 2005). Therefore, it can be argued that "language ability is, to quite a large extent, a function of vocabulary size" (ibid p.88).

Despite its importance in L2 performance, vocabulary has been problematic for EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners since they need to acquire a large amount of vocabulary to be able to communicate successfully. This process is not only tricky for learners but also for EFL teachers who need to develop or adapt materials for their students to acquire a certain level of vocabulary. Although, with the advent of technology, teachers have a number of options to provide authentic materials increasing the target language exposure, the consolidation of newly encountered vocabulary by the students is still a troublesome and everlasting process. At this point, what comes forth as part of the recent movement from a predominantly teaching-oriented view to a more learner-centered one (Schmitt, 2010) is vocabulary learning strategies. Different researchers surveyed and defined learning and vocabulary learning strategies in the last decades. Rubin (1987, p.29) presented a definition of learning strategies in which learning is "the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used". Schmitt (1997) defined 'use' as vocabulary practice rather than interactional communication and therefore, according to him, "vocabulary learning strategies could be any which affect this practice rather than broadly defined process" (Schmitt, 1997, p. 203).

To date, the literature has proffered various vocabulary learning strategy taxonomies (Gu & Johnson, 1996; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 1997). Gu and Johnson (1996) formed a taxonomy with two main dimensions: metacognitive regulation and cognitive strategies, which covered six subcategories: guessing strategies, dictionary strategies, note-taking strategies, rehearsal strategies, encoding strategies and activating strategies. All of these strategies were further subcategorized, so there were 74 strategies in total. Nation (2001) shaped a general classification of vocabulary learning strategies by separating the facets of vocabulary knowledge from the sources of vocabulary knowledge and learning processes. Vocabulary learning strategies were categorized into three general groups: planning, sources and processes. On the other hand, in a more comprehensive study of vocabulary learning strategies, Schmitt (1997) organized its taxonomy according to both Oxford's (1990) classification and the Discovery/Consolidation distinction. This taxonomy was developed based on the research conducted with Japanese EFL learners and teachers' recommendations. It embodies 58 strategies that were categorized under two main headings, which were discovery strategies and consolidation strategies.

Discovery strategies are the ones related to the discovery of a new word's meaning, which has two sub-categories: social strategies and determination strategies. In this category of strategies, if learners do not know a word, they discover its meaning by guessing from their structural knowledge of the language, guessing from an L1 cognate, guessing from context, using reference materials, or asking someone else. Determination strategies facilitate gaining knowledge of a new word from the first four options. Social strategies are employed to get the meaning of a word by cooperating with others. In contrast, consolidation strategies are the ones used for remembering words once they have been encountered. This group is divided into four sub-categories such as social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Memory strategies consist of "approaches which relate new materials to existing knowledge" while cognitive strategies are defined as "manipulation or transformation of the target language by the learner" (Schmitt, 1997; p. 205). Lastly, metacognitive strategies are characterized as "a conscious overview of the learning process and making decisions about planning, monitoring or evaluating the best way of study" (ibid p. 205). Figure 1 represents the categorization in Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy.

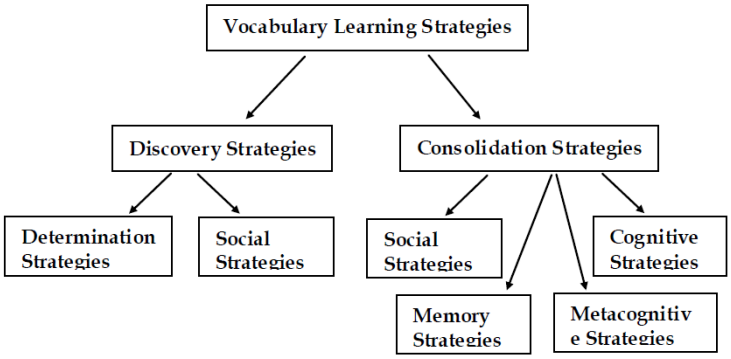

Figure 1. Schmitt's Taxonomy of Vocabulary Learning Strategies (1997, pp. 205-210)

The literature has reported on the relationship between vocabulary size and learners' strategy use. In addition to various research designs in the past (Lawson and Hogben, 1996; Schmitt, 1997; and Fan, 2003) inquiring what kind of vocabulary learning strategies language learners use, a present study of Lip (2009), with a group of Chinese EFL postsecondary students, has questioned the most frequently used and most useful vocabulary learning strategies. Some recent studies (Hamzah, et all, 2009; Kafipour, et al, 2011; Komol & Sripetpun, 2011; Kalajahi & Pourshahian, 2012) have intended to identify the relationship between vocabulary learning strategy use and vocabulary size. All the recent studies mentioned above found that vocabulary learning strategies contributed to the overall vocabulary learning of the learners.

A number of studies, such as Şener (2009) and Alemdari (2010), have examined the relationship between the use of vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary size in the Turkish context. Firstly, in Şener (2009), it was revealed that Turkish students used many different strategies but they did not use *mnemonic devices* and *semantic mapping* and social strategies. It was also observed that students using vocabulary learning strategies more frequently did better in the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT). Having a similar research design, Alemdari (2010) has concluded that students mostly preferred to use cognitive, determination and social strategies and found a relationship between successful vocabulary learning and use of cognitive and social strategies which were the categories favored most frequently by the successful learners in that population.

Recognizing the importance of strategy use in vocabulary learning, a number of researchers also focused on vocabulary learning strategy training. Alptekin (2007), in his study on foreign language learning strategy choice, investigated whether there were differences in language learning strategy preferences in tutored and in non-tutored conditions. The study of Aktekin and Güven (2007) on raising learners' and teachers' awareness on vocabulary learning strategy revealed that giving vocabulary learning strategy instruction to the study group had significant positive effect

on the vocabulary learning of students. Atay & Ozbulgan (2007) in their study on memory strategy instruction, contextual learning and ESP vocabulary recall, claimed that "the instruction seemed to help them to self-diagnose their learning difficulties, experiment with both familiar and unfamiliar strategies, and self-evaluate their performance" (p.47). Further, Kök and Canbay (2011) attempted to determine the effects of strategy training on vocabulary learning and use of vocabulary consolidation strategies in which a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups in favor of the experimental group at the vocabulary levels 1000B and 2000 was found; however, there was no statistically significant difference between the groups at vocabulary level 1000A.

Heretofore, various studies have concentrated on identifying the strategies employed by EFL learners with reference to the variables such as age, gender, year of study, proficiency level and vocabulary size. In the current study, the issue of vocabulary learning and strategy use is investigated more elaborately using an additional data-gathering tool to get into the learners' vocabulary learning strategy use unlike most of the studies in the literature purely basing their findings on a questionnaire. Furthermore, this research demonstrates the presumable relationship between vocabulary learning and strategy use by measuring the vocabulary size of learners. Thus, the current study aims to investigate pre-service English teachers vocabulary learning strategy use and to determine whether it has an effect on their vocabulary size. A cross-sectional research design incorporating both quantitative and qualitative data gathering tools have been employed in the study guided by two research questions: (1) What are the least and most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies by pre-service English teachers? (2) Is there a relationship between pre-service English teachers' vocabulary size and vocabulary learning strategy use?

II. Method

To conduct an in-depth investigation, a cross-sectional research design was used in the study. Participants were 80 English Language Teaching (ELT) majors from 1st to 4th year at the Education Faculty of Anadolu University. Their experience as EFL learners ranged from nearly 10 to 14 years and their proficiency level was assumed to be advanced. In the study, each participant completed three instruments to be described below. As for the context of the study, the ELT program is consisted of four years and a prep year at the beginning of the program which can be exempted by passing a placement test. While the first year courses heavily focus on language skills, the rest of the program is mainly concerned with language teaching pedagogy and methodology. The program does not include a course focusing on vocabulary learning strategies, however, reading strategies are studied in the critical reading course.

Three different instruments were used in the study to investigate the relationship between pre-service English teachers' vocabulary size and vocabulary learning strategy use. Each was administered in a class hour in one-week interval. All the three instruments were in the target language, i.e. English. To measure the participants' vocabulary size, Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) (Schmitt et al, 2001) was used in the study. The test is consisted of five sections consisted of four frequency bands, 2.000, 3.000, 5.000 and 10.000 word levels, and academic vocabulary that is not frequency-based. Each section includes ten clusters in which the participants are provided six target words and three meanings and they are asked to choose right target words to go with each meaning. Having thirty in each section, the test has one hundred fifty correct answers. Each correct answer is given one point. In the data analysis, the participants' overall scores are used. Rather than measuring a person's overall vocabulary knowledge, the test provides an estimate of vocabulary size at each of the frequency bands and an estimate of the size of academic vocabulary (Schmitt et al, 2001). The reason for preferring this test among alternative vocabulary size tests is the coverage of this test as involving all four word frequency levels as well as academic vocabulary.

As for examining the participants' vocabulary learning strategy use, based on Schmitt's taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies (Schmitt, 1997), a 58-item Vocabulary Learning Strategy Questionnaire (VLSQ) was employed. It was administered one week later than the VLT since the VLT took half an hour for the participants to complete and it was not possible to administer the questionnaire just after the VLT because of the limited time. Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy was preferred in the study because it is a comprehensive taxonomy as well as it is the most widely used one in the literature on vocabulary learning strategies. However, some of the strategies in the taxonomy were adapted in terms of their wordings to make it more comprehensible for the target context. For example, the strategy "interacting with native speakers" was supplied with another expression in brackets "chatting online, face to face conversation etc.". The justification for this adaptation was that since the context was an EFL environment, the participants were less likely to interact with native speakers in person but on an online platform. Another adaptation was done for the strategy "asking the teacher for L1 translation" which was adapted as "asking someone (teacher, friend etc.) for L1 translation". The reason for this was that the participants were EFL teacher candidates and accepted as both proficient and autonomous learners which make it less likely for them to ask the teacher for L1 translation of a specific word. A few similar changes were also done in the questionnaire. Lastly, the Cronbach Alpha internal reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was calculated as .914, which can be accepted as highly reliable. The questionnaire is consisted of five strategy categories based on Schmitt's (1997) taxonomy as described above. The first nine questions were related to determination strategies, the following eight questions to social strategies, the next twenty-seven questions to memory strategies, nine questions to cognitive strategies, and the last five questions were addressed to metacognitive strategies.

Besides the VLSQ, a Vocabulary Learning Strategy Survey (VLSS) (Appendix I) containing five situations that are likely to be encountered in real life was developed by the researchers both to support the data gathered through the

VLSQ and to identify whether there would be some strategies employed by the participants which were not involved in the VLSQ. Being developed based on expert opinions, situations were designed considering different contexts that the participants may encounter such as reading something at home, listening to a lecture at school, watching TV, or interacting in a conversation, which can bring out unknown vocabulary. However, one of the situations had a general sense, asking participants whether they had a sufficient vocabulary and what they did to expand it, aiming to reveal any strategies used by the participants which were more systematic and used in long term. The participants were asked what they would do in the given situations to find out the meaning of the new word, and then to learn it. The reason for this two-fold question is that the taxonomy used in VLSQ contained strategies in two groups in general, i.e. strategies for discovering meaning and strategies for strengthening or reinforcing. The VLSS was administered one week later than the VLSQ. It was thought that the items in the VLSQ could affect the participants' responses and since the aim was to gather data on their own accounts of strategy use, a one-week interval would be more suitable rather than administering them one after another.

After the data were gathered, the analysis procedure was two-fold. Firstly, through descriptive statistics, most and least frequently used strategies in the VLSQ were identified and the participants' level of strategy use was determined, that is low (1.00-2.40), moderate (2.50-3.40) and high (3.50-5.00) based on Schmitt (1997) and Oxford (1990, 2001). Then, a repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to see whether there was a significant difference among the categories of strategies employed by the participants, which was followed by the participants' own accounts of strategy use gathered through the VLSS. Secondly, a hierarchical multiple regression test was conducted to identify whether the participants' scores in the VLT were affected by their reported strategy use in the VLSQ.

III. Results

The most frequently used ten strategies in the VLSQ are identified using descriptive statistics and presented in Table 1. As seen on the Table 1, the most frequently used strategy is 'guessing from textual context' (X=4.10, SD=0.794), which is followed by 'imaging word form' (X=3.93, SD=1.003), 'connecting word to a personal experience' (X=3.91, SD=0.969), and 'analyzing any available pictures or gestures' (X=3.88, SD=0.877). Thus, the importance of contextual clues is realized by the participants to a large extent.

TABLE 1.
VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES MOST FREQUENTLY EMPLOYED BY PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS IN VLSQ

	X	SD
Guess from textual context	4.10	0.794
Image word form	3.93	1.003
Connect word to a personal experience	3.91	0.969
Analyze any available pictures or gestures	3.88	0.877
Say new word aloud when studying	3.87	0.946
Verbal repetition	3.86	1.076
Image word's meaning	3.84	1.037
Use English-language media (songs, movies, newscasts, etc)	3.78	1.136
Analyze part of speech	3.77	0.993
Take notes in class	3.67	1.106

On the other hand, as presented in Table 2, the least frequently used vocabulary learning strategy is 'asking someone to check flashcards or word lists for accuracy' (X=2.24, SD=1.1), which is followed by 'flashcards' (X=2.33, SD=1.003), and 'listening to tape/CD etc. of word lists (X=2.36, SD=1.003). These results show that the participants are quite autonomous in learning vocabulary and their use of word lists or flashcards less frequently can be explained by their proficiency level, which is also supported by their frequent use of contextual clues.

TABLE 2.
VOCABULARY LEARNING STRATEGIES LEAST FREQUENTLY EMPLOYED BY PRE-SERVICE ENGLISH TEACHERS IN VLSQ

	X	SD
Ask someone to check flashcards or word lists for accuracy	2.24	1.1
Flashcards	2.33	1.003
Listen to tape/CD etc. of word lists	2.36	1.105
Flashcards to study word meaning	2.45	1.231
Underline initial letter of the word	2.48	1.331
Put English labels on physical objects	2.55	1.124
Word lists	2.56	1.077
Interact with native speakers (chatting online, face to face conversation etc.)	2.65	1.092
Group words together spatially on a page	2.67	1.095
Use Keyword Method	2.71	1.434

As for the categories of strategies in the taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies, the results are presented in Table 3. The participants most frequently employed determination strategies (X=3.353, SD=0.4875). It is followed by memory (X=3.241, SD=0.5212) and metacognitive strategies (X=3.18, SD=0.5751). On the other hand, the least

frequently employed strategies were cognitive (X=3.016, SD=0.7509) and social strategies (X=2.858, SD=0.635). So, the results demonstrated a moderate level of strategy use among participants.

TABLE 3.
THE MOST AND THE LEAST USED CATEGORIES OF STRATEGIES

	X	SD	Level
Determination Strategies	3.3533	0.48753	Moderate
Memory Strategies	3.2414	0.52124	Moderate
Metacognitive Strategies	3.18	0.57509	Moderate
Cognitive Strategies	3.0158	0.75087	Moderate
Social Strategies	2.8576	0.63495	Moderate
Overall	3.1658	0.43776	Moderate

A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to identify whether there was a significant difference among the strategy categories. The result of Mauchly's test of sphericity was found to be significant (Muchly's W(9)=.715, p < .01), which means that sphericity assumption of ANOVA was not met in this analysis. Therefore, Greenhouse-Geisser values are reported. The results of the repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant difference among the strategy categories used by the participants, $F(3.488)=13.537$, $p < .001$. So, a paired samples t-test was conducted as a follow-up to identify which strategy categories significantly differed from others. The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between determination strategies and all the other strategy categories: social strategies ($t(79)= 6.178$, $p < .001$), memory strategies ($t(79)= 2.000$, $p < .05$), cognitive strategies ($t(79)= 4.079$, $p < .001$), metacognitive strategies ($t(79)= 2.506$, $p < .05$). Moreover, there was also a statistically significant difference between social and memory strategies ($t(79)= -5.307$, $p < .001$), social and metacognitive strategies ($t(79)= -3.636$, $p < .001$), cognitive and metacognitive strategies ($t(79)= -2.217$, $p < .05$), and lastly memory and cognitive strategies ($t(79)= 3.158$, $p < .05$). However, there was a non-significant difference between social and cognitive strategies ($t(79)= -1.912$, $p > .05$), and memory and metacognitive strategies ($t(79)= .924$, $p > .05$). The analysis revealed that besides being the most frequently used category, the use of determination strategies were also found to be statistically significant compared to all the other four categories in the taxonomy.

As described above, another data gathering tool, the VLSS, was used to both support the data collected through the VLSQ and to reveal any different strategies. After the content analysis process during which the main themes in the participants' responses were identified in negotiation of the two researchers, the frequency and percentages of these themes, or in other words, the participants' own accounts of strategy use were presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGES OF THE MAIN THEMES FROM THE VLSS

	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Percentage
Guessing from context	99	21.47	21.47
Dictionary use	91	19.73	41.20
Ask someone for meaning	72	15.61	56.81
Online dictionary/web search	54	11.71	68.52
Taking notes	35	7.59	76.11
Using the word in a sentence/different sentences	26	5.63	81.74
Reading books/novels/newspaper	20	4.33	86.07
Repetition	18	3.90	89.97
Skipping	14	3.03	93.00
Watching TV series/movies	13	2.82	95.82
Listening to English songs	8	1.73	97.55
Interacting with friends in English (native/non-native speaker)	3	0.65	98.20
Phone Dictionary	2	0.43	98.63
Vocabulary notebook	2	0.43	99.06
Analyzing root/affix/suffix of the word	2	0.43	99.49
Sticking cards on the wall	1	0.21	99.70
Make up a story	1	0.21	100
Total	461	100	

As seen in Table 4, the most frequent theme or strategy in the participants responses was 'guessing from context', also supporting the VLSQ in which it was the most frequent one, as well. Furthermore, the second most frequent strategy was dictionary use and some participants specifically addressed to online tools to look up words which was the forth frequent strategy. But this was not the case in the VLSQ in which 'dictionary use' was reported to be used at a moderate level. 'Repetition' and 'English language media' which refers to watching movies, listening to songs, was also found in both data sources along with 'taking notes' and 'ask someone for meaning'. Despite of being very frequent, 'dictionary use' was not the first strategy that the participants preferred to employ. As seen in the quotations of two participants below, they mostly use dictionary only if they don't guess the new word from context or contextual clues such as gesture or mimics.

"I try to understand the meaning from context. If I can't understand, I check meaning from dictionary." (P1).

"If I can't find it from the context, I jot it down first, then check its meaning from the dictionary. (P2).

As a frequently mentioned strategy, 'using the word in a sentence/different sentences' was not involved in the VLSQ. But obviously, it is, or believed to be, an effective way to learn a word.

"I try to guess the meaning first. Then I look it up in dictionary. And then, I use it in sentences." (P3).

There were also some individual strategies mentioned by only one or a few participants. Two of which are 'making up a story' and 'sticking cards on the wall':

"I use the word in my own sentences, or if it is possible, I try to make up a story related to the word." (P4).

"I look up the word from the dictionary and write it down on a post-it, and stick it on my wall." (P5).

Most of the participants thought that they had had a larger vocabulary size before they started at the department. However, the results of the VLT do not support this since the vocabulary size showed a developmental pattern among the year of study at the department. Furthermore, one of the participants stated that the VLT made her think that she didn't have a sufficient vocabulary size:

"Before the vocabulary test I took two weeks ago, I thought my vocabulary knowledge was sufficient. However, I noticed that it is not enough. Therefore, I've started to study a set of words I come across." (P6).

The results of the participants' performance in the VLT can be found in Table 5. Their overall mean score was 112.08, the maximum score of the test being 150. Figure 2 shows which sections of the VLT contributed to the participants' overall mean score, revealing their general performance in terms of vocabulary size.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE VLT IN TERMS OF OVERALL AND FREQUENCY WORD LEVELS

	N	Min.	Max.	X	SD
2.000 level	80	21	30	27.66	2.134
3.000 level	80	16	30	24.61	3.267
Academic Vocabulary	80	15	30	25.65	3.284
5.000 level	80	3	28	19.25	5.269
10.000 level	80	0	18	5.08	4.015
Overall Size	80	73	132	102.07	14.122

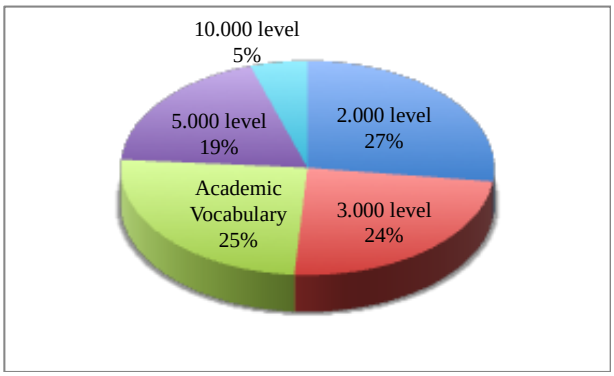

Figure 2. The distribution of the scores from each frequency band in the VLT

To identify whether a relationship exists between the participants' vocabulary size and vocabulary learning strategy use, a hierarchical multiple regression test was conducted. The dependent variable of the test was the participants' scores from the VLT and the dependent variables were the mean values of the strategy categories in the VLSQ. The results are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6.
HIERARCHICAL MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS (DEPENDENT VARIABLE: SCORES FROM THE VLT)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Standard Error	F Model	R Square Change	F Change
1. Determination	.091	.008	-.004	14.15	.652	.008	.652
2. Social	.271	.073	.049	13.77	3.048	.065	5.407*
3. Memory	.271	.074	.037	13.86	2.015	.000	.027
4. Cognitive	.356	.127	.08	13.54	2.721*	.053	4.556*
5. Metacognitive	.422	.178	.123	13.23	3.212*	.052	4.647*

* F is significant at the .05 level

The results revealed that vocabulary learning strategy use significantly explained 17.8% of the variation in vocabulary size. Controlling for all the other strategies, determination strategies did not explain any of the variation in vocabulary size although it was the most frequently used category of strategies. However, in spite of being the least frequently used category of strategies, social strategies were responsible for 6.5% of the variation in vocabulary size, which was statistically significant. Above and beyond other strategies, memory strategies did not explain any of the variation in vocabulary size. Yet, the unique contribution of cognitive strategies to vocabulary size was 5.3%, and for metacognitive strategies, it is 5.2%, which are again statistically significant. To sum up, controlling for memory and

determination strategies having the least effect on the dependent variable, social, cognitive and metacognitive strategies explained 17% of the variation in vocabulary size.

IV. Discussion

As for the research question one focusing on what the least and most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies by Turkish EFL learners are, it was found that the participants reported 'guessing from textual context' as the most frequently used, which was also supported with the results of the Vocabulary Learning Strategy Survey (VLSS) and 'asking someone to check flashcards or word lists for accuracy' as the least frequently used strategy. If the major and proficiency levels of the participants are taken into consideration, it is self-evident that contextual clues have priority over accuracy and explicit learning for Turkish EFL teacher candidates. As for the categories in the taxonomy, the vocabulary learning strategies in all five categories are at a moderate level and the most frequently used one is determination strategies.

Although they mostly supported each other, the results of VLSS and the VLSQ in the present research have differed in some aspects. Unlike the VLSQ, in the VLSS, the second most frequently used strategy was dictionary use, which was also found in Hulstijin's (1993) study that good learners are more likely to consults dictionary to confirm their guesses about the meaning of words. Some participants specifically indicated that they use online tools to look up words as the forth-frequent strategy in VLSS. However, these results do not overlap with Schmitt's (1997) results as he had claimed that guessing often used without consulting a dictionary; yet the results of present study demonstrated that there is not a considerable difference between dictionary use and contextual guessing, because both strategies were used more often by students, which was found same in the study of Alamdari (2010), as well.

The most frequently used strategies by all subjects belonged to determination strategies that was statistically significant compared to all the other four categories in the taxonomy, while the social strategies were the least used ones by all subjects, which was consistent with the results of some previous studies (Hamzah et al , 2009; Şener, 2009; Komol & Sripetpunn, 2011). However, the findings of some researchers, such as Kafipour, et al. (2011) and Heidari, et al. (2012) , indicated that memory strategy was the most frequently used strategy and cognitive strategy was the least frequently used one for Iranian EFL learners. Based on these results, it can be concluded that in different contexts strategy preferences of the learners may change. While the high use of determination strategies demonstrate the tendency of the pre-service English teachers in this study to discover the meaning by guessing from their structural knowledge of the language, from an L1 cognate, from context etc., the high use of memory strategies of Iranian EFL learners show that they have preferred vocabulary learning strategies which were simple with less need for mental activities and processing.

To answer the research question two regarding the relationship between the participants' vocabulary size and vocabulary learning strategy use, a hierarchical multiple regression test was conducted. The results revealed that vocabulary learning strategy use significantly explain 17.8% of the variation in vocabulary size. Although determination strategies are the most frequently used category, controlling for all the other strategies, it does not explain any of the variation in vocabulary size. However, the least used social strategies are responsible for 6.5% of the variation in vocabulary size, which is statistically significant. According to McComish (1990), if the learners exchange their ideas such as discussing how they remember words, giving some example sentences containing target word and so on with each other, it can improve their lexical knowledge. So, the students may need a push from the teacher by arranging suitable group work activities to enhance these interactions and exchange of ideas in learning new vocabulary (Komol & Sripetpunn, 2011).

V. Conclusion

The current study indicated that Turkish teacher candidates of EFL demonstrate a moderate level of strategy use. Most of them adequately operated the determination strategies, whereas somewhat adequately the social strategies. Besides being the most frequently used category, the use of determination strategies was also found to be statistically significant compared to all the other four categories in the taxonomy. Moreover, it was proved that additional tools, such as the VLSS in the present study, have a role to support the data collection positively and reveal different strategies since the most frequent theme in the participants responses for the VLSS was 'guessing from context', also supporting the VLSQ in which it was the most frequent, as well. Furthermore, while 'using the word in a sentence/different sentences' was a frequently mentioned strategy in the VLSS, it was not involved in the VLSQ.

As for the vocabulary size of the learners, in VLSS, most of the participants stated that they had had a larger vocabulary size before they started at the department, yet the results of the VLT does not support this, since the scores showed a developmental pattern among as the year of study at the department increase. As a result, it can be concluded that the academic study of learners in university has a consistent effect on the vocabulary size of them. With regard to the relationship between vocabulary strategy use and vocabulary size, controlling for memory and determination strategies having the least effect, social, cognitive and metacognitive strategies explain 17% of the variation in vocabulary size. It means that the learners may need to operate a variety of strategies rather than certain ones. In other words, the participants of the current study may need more training on vocabulary learning strategies to become more

familiar with all types as Oxford (2001) regard a good learner as the one applying all strategies in his/her learning at a high level.

In conclusion, it is remarkably essential to explore the vocabulary learning strategies, vocabulary size of the learners, and the relationship between them. They may help students, teachers, and administrators to become aware of vocabulary learning strategy profiles, vocabulary knowledge, and competency in order to design and deliver vocabulary instruction and training accordingly (Kalajahi & Pourshahian, 2012) since, as Nation (2001) notes, strategy training has been proved to be very useful in broadening students' strategic knowledge. Therefore, especially the teachers have a vital role while helping learners to become aware of their own styles, preferences and habits for practicing their effective strategies. As a teacher, we should be able to get the learners to practice good strategies, and make them take charge of their own learning.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 46-55, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.46-55

Investigating the Use of Student Portfolios to Develop Students' Metacognition in English as a Foreign Language Learning

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***Abstract*—In this research, it is proposed that student portfolios should be used as a mediated tool in English as a foreign language (EFL) education. It aimed to study to what extend student portfolios could assess and develop students' metacognition in language learning. A total of 53 Thai secondary students of English were divided into a control and an experimental group. Their attitudes toward language learning were assessed through pre- and post-intervention questionnaires. The students in the experimental group were asked to participate in keeping reflective portfolios, and some of them were chosen to participate in an open-ended interview. The data reveal that the student's metacognitive beliefs and strategies can be accessed through a written portfolio, though evidence of change in their beliefs and strategies is only limited. The results contribute to the understanding of metacognition development through a mediated tool in language learning, and suggest EFL teachers and language educators to be aware of the importance of metacognition and reflective skills training in order to reach the full potential of the portfolio approach in language learning to be realized.**

***Index Terms*—metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive strategies, learner autonomy, portfolio**

I. Introduction

Metacognition in English as a foreign language (EFL) encompasses the learner's *metacognitive knowledge*, or beliefs about the cognition and learning, and the use of this knowledge to regulate his/her learning behaviors. The latter skill is called *metacognitive strategies*. There have been a number of studies which suggest that metacognition, as same as other kinds of knowledge and skill can be enhanced through a well-planned education. As a result of metacognition development, the learners are expected to acquire positive beliefs about English language and its learning process; and to gradually develop autonomy or the readiness to take care of their own learning inside and outside the language classroom.

Developing metacognition, and also learner autonomy, is believed to be especially significant to the context where the opportunities to learn and to use English language are scarce. This is because it is difficult for the learner in such context to acknowledge values of a foreign language since they rarely use it in daily life. This theory applies to the EFL learning in Thailand where the learners tend to learn English for the sake of external forces rather than to serve their own interests.

Most students only learn English to succeed in a structural-based examination which is the most widely used method to assess language learning achievement in Thailand. This leads to the other limitation which is the traditional way of language teaching that emphasizes explanation of grammar rules and rote learning, which is still believed to be effective in helping learners to achieve good scores in the examinations.

That is to say, Thai learners of English seem to be embedded with false beliefs (or false metacognitive knowledge) about language learning, and thus they seem to show ineffective behaviors (or ineffective learning strategies) towards language learning. From the report of Jantrasakul (2004), most English learners in Thailand, from the kindergarten to the university level, are preoccupied with examinations and scores. They tend to believe that the teacher is the one who knows best about how to achieve this aim. As a consequence, it is believed that the Thai EFL learners prefer to act as receivers, rather than providers, of information in the classroom.

The negative or limited beliefs about language learning, which the Thai learners tend to have, are potentially impeding their learning and their potential for skills development. In order to uncover these impeded beliefs and to replace them with productive beliefs, this research proposes a systematic use of student portfolios to assess and develop metacognition in English language learning among the Thai learners.

Student portfolios are generally designed as a collection of learners' choices of their own work, attached with their reflections on the learning process and their attitudes or beliefs about language learning. It is a tool which was proven to effectively prepare the learners who have had teacher-centered experiences, to accept the new role as owners of their learning processes in a more learner-centered approach to learning. Therefore, this research attempts to explore the

implementation of student portfolios, with regard to the assessment and development of metacognition among the Thai EFL learners.

The present research is developed based on sociocultural theories when seeking to explore the benefits of social, self, and artifact mediations for metacognition development. The portfolio, as an artifact mediator, is planned to be used as an awareness raising task. The learners, as self-mediators, are expected to reflect on and gradually develop their metacognition. The teacher, as a social mediator, will be asked to provide feedback based on the information in the portfolios. The learners will have opportunities to share beliefs and learning strategies with their teacher. The learners are expected to develop the knowledge about language learning and the use of metacognitive strategies through these mediated activities. The research results will contribute to: (1) understanding the use of student portfolios to assess metacognition of the Thai EFL learners; and (2) an alternative approach to develop the learners' attitudes and behaviors toward EFL learning.

II. Literature Review

A. Metacognition

There are many authors who define the term *metacogniton* in slightly different ways. In education psychology, Schraw and Moshman (1995) describe metacognition as learners' theories of their own cognition. This theoretical knowledge about cognition is believed to affect learners' cognitive and social performances, and develop slowly through personal experience.

In language learning, however, Wenden (1998) conceptualizes metacognition as knowledge about: (1) self as a learner; (2) learning task; and (3) learning strategies. He also believes that this knowledge is statable. In other words, it can be articulated. In the contrary, Schraw and Moshman (1995) argue that metacognition is not always statable, yet it can only be made statable through the kind of consciousness raising activities.

Numerous authors in the field of second and foreign language learning also refer to the term metacognitve knowledge as one component of metacognition. Metacognitive knowledge is learners' beliefs about their own cognition or mental processes, and language learning processes. This knowledge can be acquired through formal instructions or learning experiences. Metacognitve knowledge includes, for example, recognizing which kinds of learning tasks cause difficulty, which approaches to remembering information work better than others, and how to solve different kinds of problems (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992). It is also thought to influence the kinds of learning strategies that learners choose.

Metacognitive strategies in language learning, as the other component of metacognition, involve planning and monitoring the learning process while it is taking place, and evaluating the learning after it has occurred (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992). In summary, metacognition is an integration of metacognitve knowledge and metacognitve strategies into a systematic framework of cognitive learning and learning behaviors. It is the learners' knowledge or beliefs about cognition and learning, and the ability to use this knowledge to plan, monitor, and evaluate their language learning. The learners' metacogniton influences the degree of autonomous behaviors toward learning.

B. Approaches to Metacogniton Development

Previous studies propose three different theoretical approaches to develop metacognition, which are: (1) the cognitive theory of instruction (Chamot, & O'Malley, 1994); (2) the humanistic theory of self-directed language learning (Wenden, 2001); and (3) the sociocultural theory of social-interaction and mediation (Donato, & McCormick, 1994; Lantolf, 2000; 2006).

According to the cognitive theories, learners are active participants and their cognition can be restructured. Instruction, based on cognitive theories, is an explicit instruction of learning strategies of the successful language learners to the less successful language learners. The self-directed language learning, according to humanistic theories, emphasizes the importance of human thought, feeling, and emotion. The main aim of the instruction is to develop learner autonomy through self-directed language learning and metacognitive strategies training. The context of language learning is a self-access center where learners take full responsibilities for their learning and the teacher has the role as a counselor.

Both approaches of metacognition development have an emphasis on individual learner development. However, they overlook the significance of social environment in language learning where metacognition development could occur. The other disadvantage of the two approaches is that they neglect the importance of metacognitive knowledge development. Improved metacognitive knowledge seems to be a consequence of learning strategies and metacognitve strategies training.

Sociocultural perspectives on second language learning, on the other hand, aim to develop both metacognitve knowledge and strategies at the same time. Sociocultural theories encompass cognitive views of active learners and cognitive reconstruction, and humanistic views of developing the whole person in language learning. However, sociocutural theorists argue that learners construct and re-construct knowledge within a social interactional framework. In other words, they believe that learning occurs through interactions in the sociocultural activities. Therefore, "the focus of study and development is shifted from individual to activities and settings, and the learning that inevitably accompanies social practices" (Norton, & Toohey, 2001).

Metacognition, according to sociocultural theories, should be developed in a learning supportive context through collaborative works. The teacher has a role as mediator who helps mediate learners' learning attitudes and skills within their *zone of proximal development*. The teacher, as mediator, can provide learners with mediated learning experiences through the use of either symbolic or physical tools. Portfolio is believed to be one of the tools that help develop metacognition in second language learning through social, self, and artifact mediations.

C. Portfolios and Second Language Learning

Danielson and Abrutyn (1997; as cited in Ikeda, & Takeuchi, 2006), based on their review of various definitions of portfolios, find that most definitions share the following three characteristics: (1) they are purposeful; (2) they are collections of learner's work; and (3) they include learner's reflections on each work. However, teachers should be aware that student portfolios are not a mere collection of random pieces of work, but they require a systematic plan.

Sa Chares (1997; as cited in Nunes, 2004) suggests that "the portfolio may be conceived as a long letter written to one's self and to others, and always returned. However, when it gets back to the student, it is enriched by a new perspectives, new information, new insights, advice and support". Hence, Nunes (2004) adds the other principle of portfolios, that they should facilitate ongoing interaction between teachers and learners. The portfolios to develop students' metacognition tend to follow Nunes' (ibid) principles of developing portfolios: (1) it should document reflective thought of the learner; and (2) it should facilitate on-going interaction between the teacher and the student.

There are several advantages of using portfolios in language learning as mentioned by Ioannou and Pavlou (2003). Firstly, portfolios offer a way of individualizing the learning and assessment process, as they are not uniform for the whole class. Secondly, portfolios enhance children's overall involvement both in the learning and assessment processes. Thirdly, the children are also empowered, and thus they develop a feeling of trust and respect for their teachers. The main disadvantage of using portfolios in the classroom is that it requires training for both the teacher and learner on the reflection and assessment processes, and it requires time for them to become familiar with this non-traditional approach.

D. Research Studies on Metacognition and Application of Portfolios in Language Learning

There have been many research studies conducted on metacognitive knowledge in second language learning (Howitz, 1985; Cotterall, 1995; 1999; Kern, 1995; Sakui & Gaies, 1999; Yang, 1999). Recently, there have been an increasing number of research studies which use portfolios either as a research tool, or a tool for learner development in second language learning. Ikeda and Takeuchi (2006) use the portfolio as a research tool in analyzing and comparing reading strategies used by high-proficiency and low-proficiency students. They found the portfolio was useful for revealing the processes of learning and using reading strategies.

Rea (2001) studies the implementation of the portfolio as a tool for reflection in a process writing course. The results show that, for students who have not been trained to reflect on their learning, the activities like writing reformulation, journal writing, and portfolios can encourage them to reflect on learning process and to see their own strengths and weaknesses. Nunes (2004) also studies portfolios as a tool to develop reflective learning among the high-school students and lists two major benefits of portfolios which are: portfolios as a dialogic interactional tool; and portfolios as a basis for reflection.

Cotterall (1995) studies learner beliefs and readiness for autonomy in language learning. These studies provide insights into EFL learners' metacognitve knowledge and its influences on learners' regulation of language learning. They also provide useful tools to investigate metacognitve knowledge and learning strategies. However, they did not show in detail how metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive strategies, or metacognition in short, could be enhanced among the language learners.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Objectives

Three main research aims are: (1) to explore how the students reveal their metacognition in language learning through the portfolios; (2) to examine, through the portfolios-based interview, the usefulness and practicality of the portfolio for EFL learning/teaching from the students' point of view; and (3) to study how the portfolios help develop metacognition of the Thai EFL learner.

B. Research Design

1) Experimental methodology

This research was conducted as an experiment and questionnaires were used to provide quantitative results. The experiment involves, first, having the participants divided into two groups of: (1) control group; and (2) experimental group. On the first day of the English class, the students in both groups were asked to complete the questionnaire adapted from Cotterall's (1995) assessment of the learners' beliefs about language learning. The questionnaire composed of 40 questions which assess the learners' level of metacognition or their awareness of issues related to language learning (Appendix 1).

Then, the researcher made an experimental treatment to the experimental group. Throughout the whole term, the experimental group was assigned to complete the portfolios in addition to their homework, whereas the control group

only had to complete their homework. Following the experiment, the questionnaires were administered with both groups. Comparing differences between the pre- and the post-test scores of the experimental and the control groups helps determine whether change in the test scores was effected significantly by the experimental treatment.

2) Student Portfolio

Students in the experimental group were required to keep reflective record of their learning in the portfolio on a weekly basis. The design of the portfolio activities follows the guidelines and principles of developing portfolios proposed by Ioannou and Parlou (2003), and Nunes (2004). The portfolio was divided into two main parts, which are: My English Biography; and My English Dossier. The teacher was asked to provide general guidelines for keeping the student portfolio on the first week of the English lesson. The teacher was also asked to provide feedback on the students' record.

3) Interview

The semi-structured interview was conducted to investigate specific issues related to some of their answers in the questionnaire and comments about the portfolios. Four students, whose portfolios showed more detailed information of their ideas compared to the other students, were chosen from the experimental group. The main aim of using the interview is to probe further into some points in order to find clarification in detail and to be able to answer the research questions more accurately. The questions are opened-ended in their design.

C. Participants

The students were high school students at the public school selected on the basis of purposive sampling and availability. Class 1 served as an experimental group, and class 2 as a control group. In total, there are 53 male and female students; all around 14-15 years old (Table 1). These students can be assumed to have an equal level of English proficiency. Although the students had been learning English since they were five years old, their English proficiency was still very low. The students in both classes have the same English teacher. The teacher is a female Thai teacher of English. She has continually modified her teaching methods to meet the needs of the national curriculum and at the same time to develop communicative skills and also thinking and learning skills.

TABLE 1
NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS

Participants		STAGE	
		Pre Test	Post Test
Class 1: (Experimental Group)	Number of Student	29	29
Class 2: (Control Group)	Number of Student	24	24
Total	Number of Student	53	53

IV. RESULTS

The independent samples *t*-tests were used to find the statistical significance of the students' perceptions of each question item. *f*-tests were then carried out to determine the outcome of the intervention and to test whether the use of student portfolio significantly differentiate metacogniton of students in the experimental group from those of students in the control group.

A. Questionnaires Results

1) Comparison of Pre-test and Post-test Scores of Experimental Group Students

Tables 2-4 show the statistical analysis results which provide descriptive data to determine metacognition factors with significant difference comparing pre- and the post-intervention within the experimental group.

TABLE 2
LEVEL OF ATTITUDE OF THE STUDENTS TOWARD APPROACH TO LANGUAGE LEARNING

		Mean	**SD**	**F**	**Sig.**
Positive praises from the teacher are among most important rewards in successful language learning	Pre Test	3.6207	0.7277	6.4112	0.0142
	Post Test	4.1034	0.7243		
I believe feedback on my language learning from the teacher helps me most	Pre Test	4.1724	0.6017	7.2518	0.0093
	Post Test	4.5862	0.5680		

TABLE 3
LEVEL OF ATTITUDE OF THE STUDENTS TOWARD THE ROLE OF TEACHER IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

		Mean	**SD**	**F**	**Sig.**
I believe that the role of the teacher is to give me regular tests	Pre Test	4.1724	0.7106	5.0118	0.0292
	Post Test	4.5517	0.5724		

TABLE 4
LEVEL OF ATTITUDE OF THE STUDENTS TOWARD THE LEARNER CONFIDENCE IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

		Mean	SD	F	Sig.
I believe that I should find my own opportunities to use the language	Pre Test	3.3448	0.6695	10.5981	0.0019
	Post Test	3.9655	0.7784		

There is no significant difference within the experimental group between pre- and post-intervention in terms of attitude of the students toward the role of learner in language learning.

2) Comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores of Control Group Students

Tables 5-6 illustrate the metacognition factors with significant difference of the student in the control group.

TABLE 5
LEVEL OF ATTITUDE OF THE STUDENTS TOWARD APPROACH TO LANGAUGE LEARNING

		Mean	SD	F	Sig.
I believe that opportunities to use the language should be provided by the teacher	Pre Test	2.2917	0.6903	4.0636	0.0497
	Post Test	1.8750	0.7409		

TABLE 6
LEVEL OF ATTITUDE OF THE STUDENTS TOWARD THE ROLE OF LEARNER IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

		Mean	SD	F	Sig.
I believe that the role of the learner is to know what difficulties he/she has when learning English	Pre Test	4.1250	0.5367	4.0636	0.0497
	Post Test	3.7083	0.8587		

While the experimental group significantly agrees more that "the role of the teacher is to give regular tests" and "I should find my own opportunities to use the language", there is no significant difference within the control group between pre- and post-test in terms of attitude of the students toward the role of teacher in language learning, and toward the learner confidence in language learning.

B. Portfolios Results

The analysis of the student portfolios uncovers metacognition of the Thai EFL learners. The first section of the student portfolio results shows metacognitive knowledge with regard to the language teaching and learning, and the second section describes the current use and development of metacognitive strategies in EFL learning.

1) Metacognitive Knowledge

The results reveal that the students' opinions related to language teaching and learning can be accessed through the portfolios. The opinion can be categorized into four main groups of factors, which are: the teacher and teacher's role; learners' role; English language learning; and learner confidence.

(1.1) Attitude toward the teacher and teacher's role

The students show their high respect for the teacher and her advice on how to learn English. The example of this respective attitude is shown in S2 and S12's portfolios.

S2: "The teacher always say that if you want to be good at English you have to work hard on studying and practice vocabulary recitation, and I believe her and try to do what she said"

S12: "I used to hate vocabulary recitation when I was young because the teacher punished by beating if we could not do, but the teacher in high school is so kind and understanding so I started to think English is important and we should learn and be able to use it"

Regarding the teacher's role, most students are able to comment on what the teacher should and should not do in the classroom in relation to language teaching. The results, some of which are shown below, also indicate that the students are teacher-dependent.

S35: "I want the teacher to speak slowly and explain in detail"

S34: "The teacher should give me more practices, lead me to read more again and again"

S20: "I want the teacher to tell 5 new vocabularies every day so we can recite and memorize" and "The teacher should review after the class whether the students understand or not"

In addition to the teacher's role in the aspect of language teaching and learning, the students also record their attitude toward the role from the humanistic perspective that the teacher plays an important role in making the classroom atmosphere become an encouraging and comfort place to learn the language. Examples are shown in S31 and S30's portfolios.

S31: "I want the teacher to smile more often, because her smile comfort the students"

S30: "I like the teacher to say more jokes so students will not get bored"

(1.2) Attitude toward learner's role

The only role that the students seem to believe they have in relation to language learning is 'learner as follower'. Examples of this attitude are shown as follows:

S34: "I will take advices from the teacher to improve my learning"

S15: "If students want to learn best they should pay attention to what the teacher teach. If we don't try to understand we don't have chance in the society"

The students' attitude toward the learner role as follower correlates with the attitude toward the teacher as controller who holds the most responsibilities in language learning.

(1.3) Attitude toward English language learning

The students only have a few ideas on what learning the language should be. The common goals in studying English that the students understand are: (1) to use in daily life; (2) to progress in future career; and (3) to speak English with foreigners. Some students, as shown below, reveal how they see the native speaker as a role model.

S33: "Learning with the native speaker of English gives me courage to speak English in daily life"

S30: "Learning with the native speaker help we know how to pronounce correctly"

S21: "I want to have the native speaker to teach us so we can have courage to speak to foreigners"

These ideas also show how they value the importance of pronunciation in addition to vocabulary knowledge. The results also reveal the students' ideas toward the learning activities which should be variety and interesting to them. However, the goal of these activities is vocabulary learning, which show the belief of these students that learning English is mainly to learn vocabulary.

(1.4) Learner confidence in language learning

Almost all think English is difficult and that is why they do not like learning English.

S35: "I am not good at English, though I have tried to remember I often forgot but I am trying and trying"

S32: "English is difficult so I don't like learning it, I can't remember vocabularies"

S10: "I want to be good at English and know many words but no matter I have tried I can't remember vocabularies and I can only remember some easy words"

2). Metacognitive Strategies

The data from the portfolios also show how the students develop their skills in reflecting on learning; setting their learning goals; planning their own learning; and assessing their own learning.

(2.1) Reflecting on learning

The student can reflect on what they have learnt and what activity they have undertaken in the class more fluently than describing their attitude toward the usefulness and difficulties of the content they have learnt.

(2.2) Setting learning goals

The results show learning goals set by the students when they were asked to do in the "homework" section in the portfolio. The students seem to set the goals in accordance with what the teacher taught in the class and told them to do for homework in that week. For example, for the week that they learn informative and interrogative sentences, the goal is "To learn telling and questioning about things" and "To achieve what the teacher taught". This strategy or skill to set learning goals, did not change from the first to the last week of the research.

(2.3) Planning for learning

The data, as shown below through some examples, reveal that the students are unable to make a plan for their own learning. The results prove that the students can not differentiate how to describe their ways of learning, planning for learning, or process of learning without help from the teacher. The results show the students lack ability to plan their learning from the first to the last week of the research.

(2.4) Assessing learning

Similar to the way they set their learning goal, the students seem to only see the result of their practicing in accordance with the objective that the teacher told them to do the homework. For example, for the week that they learn 'how much' and 'how many', they assess their learning that "I get to know more about using how much and how many".

C. Interview Results

Four students from the experimental group were interviewed and the results reveal two main categories of the perception toward the portfolios from the students' point of view, which are: (1) The Usefulness and Limitation of the Student Portfolios; and (2) The Design of the Portfolio.

Every respondent agrees that doing portfolios gives them chances to express ideas to the teacher. However, while students write their suggestions about teaching to the teacher, the teacher only responds very generally for a few times.

Most students also agree that the portfolios are also useful in terms of: (1) helping them memorize what they studied; (2) helping them review and reflect on things they have studied in the class; (3) helping them see their progress. However, the answers show they do not think their attitudes toward the teacher and learner's roles have changed although the results from the pre- and post-test show that some particular attitudes in language learning of these students have changed after doing the portfolios.

The second issue is the design of the portfolio. As seen from their portfolios, the students prefer drawing much more than writing about English learning. The Thai students are used to asking to choose from the provided choice rather than writing, although they think they can write to explain their opinion related to the class work. Finally, the students agree on one part that they dislike which is 'homework'. They do not like this part because they have to do it by themselves at home while not understanding how to do it.

V. Discussion

These findings with reference to the extent to which the Thai learners' level of metacogniton could be revealed through the use of student portfolio show that the portfolios are a good mediated tool to uncover the students' metacognitive knowledge especially the attitude toward the teacher and the teacher's role. Since the students prefer to write their ideas down in the portfolios more than telling the teacher directly, the portfolios helps the teacher to understand what the students actually think about the teacher herself and the teaching.

The portfolios also help revealing the students' current level of metacognitive strategies. However, for the ability to reflect on learning process and learning task, the students can only reflect on facts of things they have learnt but not their feeling toward those things. Wenden (1998) differentiates knowledge about fact of the task (domain knowledge) from knowledge about feeling toward the task (task knowledge), and points out that when the students reflect on their feelings, it is more useful for both the students and teacher than reflection on facts.

Furthermore, the students cannot differentiate how to describe their ways of learning, planning for learning, and process of learning without help from the teacher. Tudor (1992) noted that "learners with a dependent attitude are likely to feel less at ease in assuming an active and contributory role in planning their learning". The portfolios in this research, therefore, reveal that the students need supportive training on learning skills and metacognitve strategies.

For the use of student portfolio to develop the Thai learner's level of metacognition, the findings from the questionnaires reveal that the mean scores of attitude toward teacher roles from the students in the control group do not change as much as those of the students in the experimental group. However, the experimental group changes their attitude to depend more on the teacher's feedback. This may be because using portfolios without teacher feedback increases teacher-dependency on the students and triggers the acknowledgment of their potential as active learners at the same time.

Among usefulness of the portfolios, the most important advantage perceived by the students is that it provides a space to express their views to the teacher. However, the results show that though the students see value in expressing their ideas in the portfolios, the teacher did not pay enough attention to the portfolios. These incongruent attitudes toward values of ideas cause the portfolios to be ineffectively used, especially in this classroom where the students depend so much on the teacher. The teacher and the students both need training in reflecting and thinking processes.

DeSautel (2009) suggests that reflection practices and training can only exist in the classroom with support from the school system, for example: (1) the curricula should contain explicit aim of developing learners' self-awareness; and (2) explicit time allotting for developing reflection practices for both teachers and learners should be provided. In addition, the institutional and national examinations should have more orientation on aspects of performance, attitude, and proficiency-based examination. These issues are important for fostering development of multiple skills in language learning including language and metacognitive skills.

VI. Conclusion

This research has explored the systematic use of student portfolios to assess and develop metacognition in EFL learning. The results of the explorations so far constructs some useful knowledge about the use of student portfolios as an alternative approach in EFL learning, and as a resource for self, social, and artifact-mediated tool to develop metacognition. The research findings in general have also provided a support to the initial assumptions based on the sociocultural theory that learners need a supportive context and collaborative works to construct and re-construct knowledge. Although the portfolios were proved to effectively document reflective thought of the learners, the thoughts were not developed correctly due to lack of ongoing interaction and support from the teacher. This research result and discussion have indicated how insights yielded can be applied by those EFL teachers who wish to make the student portfolios an integral part of their language instruction and assessment. The conclusion, therefore, will outline suggestions for the more practical and effective implications of the student portfolios in EFL learning.

The suggestion for EFL teachers is that they should gradually integrate thinking skills training into basic language learning activities, but not abruptly changing the whole culture of the teaching and learning. The recommendations for the EFL education policy and the teacher training is that, for the more effective use of the portfolios, both teacher and learners need institutional and national strategic planning to allocate efficient time for metacognition training. Teacher education programs should involve the study of metacogntive awareness and strategies training in their curriculum. The development of teacher training curriculum to incorporate metacognition training is hoped to awaken teachers and education planners' awareness of the importance of metacognitive intelligence.

Future research on mediated language portfolios may be conducted with more mature learners. Mature learners tend to have a wider experience than the young learners in the present research. Thus, they tend to develop more varied reflective ideas in their portfolios. Future research may also be conducted into the experimental study on the use of student portfolios and at the same time provide metacognition training to find out to what extend the training helps develop both teacher and learner's reflective skills.

Appendix 1. Metacognition: Pre-test and Post-test (Adapted from Cotterall, 1995)

Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of these statements about your language learning by circling the number which matches your answer.

strongly agree agree neutral disagree strongly disagree
1 2 3 4 5

Section 1 Learner's perceptions towards language learning

S1-1 I am willing to find my own way of practicing if I get help from the teacher
1 2 3 4 5

S1-2 I believe feedback on my language learning from the teacher helps me most
1 2 3 4 5

S1-3 I believe that opportunities to use the language should be provided by the teacher
1 2 3 4 5

S1-4 I believe the teacher can teach me the best way to learn a language
1 2 3 4 5

S1-5 I believe the teacher should be an expert at showing students how to learn
1 2 3 4 5

S1-6 I believe to learn English is to learn grammar and vocabulary
1 2 3 4 5

S1-7 I know how to study English well
1 2 3 4 5

S1-8 I believe my language learning success depends on what the teacher does in the Classroom
1 2 3 4 5

S1-9 Positive praises from the teacher are among most important rewards in successful language learning
1 2 3 4 5

S1-10 I believe the teacher's preparation is very important in successful language learning
1 2 3 4 5

Section 2 Learner's perceptions towards the teacher roles in language learning

S2-1 I believe that the role of the teacher is to tell me what to do
1 2 3 4 5

S2-2 I believe that the role of the teacher is to help me to learn effectively
1 2 3 4 5

S2-3 I believe that the role of the teacher is to tell me what progress I am making
1 2 3 4 5

S2-4 I believe that the role of a teacher is to say what my difficulties are
1 2 3 4 5

S2-5 I believe that the role of the teacher is to create opportunities for me to practice
1 2 3 4 5

S2-6 I believe that the role of the teacher is to decide how long I spend on activities
1 2 3 4 5

S2-7 I believe that the role of the teacher is to explain why we are doing an activity
1 2 3 4 5

S2-8 I believe that the role of teacher is to set my learning goals
1 2 3 4 5

S2-9 I believe that the role of the teacher is to give me regular tests
1 2 3 4 5

S2-10 I believe that the role of the teacher is to offer help to me
1 2 3 4 5

Section 3 Learner's perceptions towards the learner roles in language learning

S3-1 I believe that the role of the learner is to be able to see the progress he/she makes
1 2 3 4 5

S3-2 I believe that the role of the learner is to test how much he/she has learned
1 2 3 4 5

S3-3 I believe that the role of the learner is to try new things out by oneself
1 2 3 4 5

S3-4 I believe that the role of a learner is to know which aspects of English he/she wants to improve
1 2 3 4 5

S3-5 I believe that the role of the learner is to find opportunities to practice English
1 2 3 4 5

S3-6 I believe that the role of the learner is to plan his/her own English learning
1 2 3 4 5

S2-7 I believe that the role of learner is to set his/her learning goals
1 2 3 4 5

S2-8 I believe that the role of the learner is to know what difficulties he/she has when learning English

1 2 3 4 5

S2-9 I believe that the role of the learner is to look for solutions to his/her problems

1 2 3 4 5

S2-10 I believe that the role of the learner is to seek help from the teacher

1 2 3 4 5

Section 4 Learner's confidence in his or her own language learning ability

S3.1 I am confident about finding my own ways of practicing

1 2 3 4 5

S3.2 I believe that I can communicate in English without knowing the rules

1 2 3 4 5

S3.3 I am confident about checking my work for mistakes

1 2 3 4 5

S3.4 I am confident about explaining what I need English for

1 2 3 4 5

S3.5 I am confident about setting my own learning goals

1 2 3 4 5

S3.6 I am confident about planning my own learning

1 2 3 4 5

S3.7 I believe I know best how well I am learning

1 2 3 4 5

S3.8 I believe feedback on my language learning that I give myself helps me most

1 2 3 4 5

S3.9 I believe that I should find my own opportunities to use the language

1 2 3 4 5

S3.10 My own effort plays an important role in successful language learning

1 2 3 4 5

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 56-62, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.56-62

Thesis Statement: A Vital Element in Expository Essays

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***Abstract*—The thesis statement is an essential component of the introductory section of every essay. In a classroom situation, most students see its construction as challenging; others on the other hand are completely oblivious of it and the vital role it plays in essay writing. The study therefore examines the essence of using a Thesis Statement in expository essays. The design of the study is largely influenced by the works of Langan (2001), Samuels (2004), Lane (2004) Tagg (2004) Johnson (2004) and Felts (2006). Literature was mainly reviewed on the definition of the thesis statement, mistakes on the construction of thesis statements and how to write captivating thesis statements. The participants who provided the primary data were drawn from students of two prominent private universities in Kumasi, Ghana (Christian Service and Ghana Baptist University Colleges). The study brought to light that the participants have challenges constructing theses in their essays. It is therefore recommended that the players in the field of Second Language teaching and learning – teachers, learners, textbook writers, and policy makers – should give maximum attention to this issue whenever the subject matter – essay writing – is being taught, learnt or mentioned.**

***Index Terms*—thesis statement, essay writing, methods of development**

I. Introduction

It is common knowledge that an essay should have an introduction, which is the opening of the write-up; a body, which deals with the content to be expatiated on; and a conclusion, which closes or summarises the whole write-up. In line with this, Langan (2001, p.11) has also put forward a diagram (known as *one-three-one*) that shows at a glance the different parts of a standard college essay as follows:

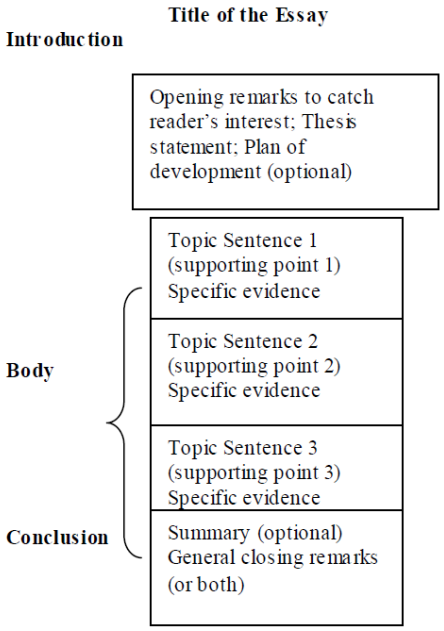

Figure 1: The *One-Three-One* Essay
Source: Adapted from Langan (2001, p.11)

The diagram according to Langan (2001) is the traditional form of the essay. Thus, an essay should have an **introduction** which should have a hook (catchy *opening remarks* such as: *I wouldn't want to be a teenager again…* (p. 60), and *I recently read about an area of the former Soviet Union where many people live to be well over a hundred*

years old. … (p.62)). These sentences have the propensity of attracting the reader's attention. An essay should also have a *thesis statement*; and an optional *plan of development*. Some writers (for example, Abrams, 2000; and Lane, 2004) in the field of essay writing have also suggested ideas on the structure or parts of the essay. Abrams (2000) proposes that in addition to the traditional parts (introduction, body and conclusion); an essay should have a thesis. Lane (2004) opines that a good essay should have the following structure or format:

I. Topic/Title
II. Introduction of Essay
A. Write a few sentences that lead into the main point of your essay
B. End your first paragraph with your thesis statement
(3 main points you are going to support)
1. First point in thesis
2. Second point in thesis
3. Third point in thesis
III. Body of Essay
A. Topic One – First Point in Thesis
1. Support your point with either quotations or solid evidence
2. Have at least five sentences
B. Topic Two – Second Point in Thesis
1. Support your point with either quotations or solid evidence
2. Have at least five sentences
C. Topic Three – Third Point in Thesis
1. Support your point with either quotations or solid evidence
2. Have at least five sentences
1V. Conclusion
A. Write a few sentences summarising your essay
B. Restate your thesis and how you proved your point

Figure 2: Format for Writing Good Essays
Source: Adapted from Lane (2004)

Taking a closer look at Lane's outline, one realizes that a number of issues are mentioned in the Introduction of an Essay. These are: *sentences that lead into the main point of the essay; thesis statement; first point in thesis; second point in thesis and; third point in thesis.*

According to Hoy II (1992): … the *introduction* of an essay ends with a thesis statement that represents the writer's conclusion about the controversial issue being discussed. The *body* of the essay defends that thesis in an objective, logical way (Hoy II, 1992, p.7). The *conclusion* usually begins with a reminder of the writer's thesis and ends with a meaningful generalization about the essay (Hoy II, 1992, p.7). This paper therefore focuses on the composition of thesis statement and its dos and don'ts.

II. Literature Review

A. Thesis Statement Defined

According to Tagg (2004): "A thesis statement is a single declarative sentence that states what you want your readers to know, believe, or understand after having read your essay." Tagg (2004, section 1.4.1) thus, believes that a thesis statement should be made up of just one sentence, and not two or more. Again, it should be in a declarative sentence form, and not in an interrogative, imperative or exclamatory sentence form.

Jerz (2011) also argues that a thesis statement is the single, specific claim that one's essay supports. It is a statement that **answers the question one wants to raise**; it does so by presenting a topic, the writer's precise opinion on the topic, and a reasoning blueprint that sketches out the organisation for the rest of the paper. An example is illustrated below:

Because the events in the story emphasize Black Elk's role as a Sioux Warrior, and do not describe his eventual conversion to Catholicism and membership in the Society of St. Joseph, 'Black Elk Speaks' *presents a skewed and simplified view of the complex history of Native Americans (Jerz, 2011).*

Thus, a good thesis is not merely a factual statement, an observation, a personal opinion or preference, or the question one plans to answer but a statement that corroborates one's essay. Jerz's (2011) idea is in consonance with Tagg's (2004) conceptualisation of a thesis statement as "a single declarative sentence…"

Samuel (2004) for his part believes that a thesis statement should be the product of one's own critical thinking *after* one has done some research. It can, thus, be thought of as the *angle* or *point of view* from which one wants to present one's material (Samuels, 2004). This means that two or more different writers can develop diverse thesis statements from the same topic depending on their perception of the subject matter.

To Carroll *et al.* (2001, p. 787), it is a statement of an essay's main idea; all information in the essay supports or elaborates this idea. Thus, a thesis statement is the pivot around which all other sentences in one's essay revolve. So, every sentence being it simple, compound, complex or compound-complex should aim at substantiating the thesis

statement. "Usually, the thesis statement is followed by a few sentences that outline how you will make your key point" (Carroll *et. al,* 2001, p. 39). An example is illustrated below:

Thesis: *A honeymoon is perhaps the worst way to begin a marriage…* (Langan, 2001, p.52)

Other sentence *But, most newly-weds believe that marriage life cannot begin without a honeymoon.*

B. Mistakes to Avoid When Writing a Thesis Statement

Writing a thesis statement could pose problems for most writers if they are unaware of the elements to avoid in composing a good thesis statement. Langan (2001:53) argues that most people make the following mistakes when composing a thesis:

- *Announcements of subject rather than stating a true thesis idea*
- *Composing of statements that are too broad and wordy*
- *Writing statements that are too narrow*

(Langan 2001, p.53)

Although a thesis is a statement that announces the opinion of a writer, its composition could be wrongly framed if the writer announces the subject rather than state a debatable idea. Langan (2001, p.53) thus, cites the following as instances where a thesis announces the subject instead of stating an idea: *The subject of this paper will be my parents,* and *I want to talk about the crime wave in our country* (Langan 2001, p.53). The two examples do not make a point about *parents* and *crime* but rather tell, in a weak and unimaginative way, the writer's general subject (Langan 2001, p.54). Thus, the use of personal pronouns especially "I" in the second instance stated above and by inference "We" in most theses, make thesis statements sound more of an announcement than an expression of idea.

Furthermore, Langan (2001) reasons that composition of a thesis should neither be too broad nor limited. This means that a thesis should not have too many words or too few words. His assertion, however, has the inclination of confusing writers and students since most of them (writers and students) are likely to ask questions such as *to what level will my thesis be considered too broad or narrow?, How many words should my thesis have?* An obvious answer could be, compound-complex sentences are too wordy and should not be used in couching a thesis of an essay; and a thesis like *Social Security and Old Age* (www.leo.stcloudstate.edu) is too limited, short and talks only about the title of the essay hence, it cannot constitute a thesis. However, issues of 'wordy' and 'narrow' are more about style. This does not mean they are not important; of course they are, but the main issue seems to be more about ensuring that one's thesis has a point to make – and a writer can make a point using few words or many works.

Felts (2006) also thinks that a thesis is not a fact, but is an assertion about facts. This statement sounds punning and paradoxical; but it makes sense. What Felts (2006) wants to put across is that a thesis should not necessarily be an accurate issue; but rather a claim which holds water. A thesis statement is an assertion, not a statement of fact or an observation (www.leo.stcloudstate.edu). For example, a statement like *People use many lawn chemicals* which could be a factual issue or an observation could be reframed: *People are poisoning the environment with chemicals merely to keep their lawns clean* (www.leo.stcloudstate.edu). This statement constitutes a good thesis in that it is a claim which can be substantiated in the body of the essay.

According to Tagg (2004) it is mistaken for a thesis to be worded in the negative statement. Thus, the negator – not – should be absent in the construction of a thesis. One therefore should state what somebody did, not what they didn't do; what caused the problem, not what didn't cause it; what one knows, not what one doesn't know. When the thesis is framed in the negative sense, it makes it difficult for auxiliary statements to be raised in support of the thesis. An example is: *it is a terrible time to be an adult.*

C. Writing Captivating Thesis Statements

There are some factors or methods that one has to consider or use when one desires to write a winning thesis. If broad, wordy, general, factual and purposeful statements are to be avoided when composing a thesis, the question then is: "What are the variables that one should consider in composing a good thesis?" The first factor to consider before composing a thesis is the *statement of purpose.* The thesis statement of a write up can be developed only after the statement of purpose has been clearly written (Samuels, 2004). The statement of purpose answers the questions "why?" and "how?" Hence, without writing it, it becomes intricate for one to compose a thesis statement. The table below juxtaposes statement of purpose and possible thesis statement:

TABLE 1
STATEMENT OF PURPOSE AS AGAINST POSSIBLE THESIS STATEMENT

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE	POSSIBLE THESIS STATEMENT
1. "I want to learn about what has influenced the music of Daddy Lumba[1]."	1. The music of Daddy Lumba has been heavily influenced by the 21st century youth in Ghana.
2. "I want to write about how the 'Azonto Dance[2]' has influenced Ghanaians of today."	2. In recent times, the "Azonto Dance" has heavily influenced the lives of people in Ghana.
3. "I want to write on how to learn to make one's own clothes."	3. Learning to make your own clothes is easy, fun, and, best of all, inexpensive (Forlini *et. al*, 1987, p.517)
4. "I want to write on Lionel Messi – the star player of FC Barcelona."	4. FC Barcelona's Lionel Messi is without doubt the most skillful player on planet – earth.

From Table 1 above, one can apprehend that the *statement of purpose* is key in composing a thesis statement, in that it directs the writer not to lose focus in phrasing his statement for the thesis. Hence, the thesis itself which emanates from the statement of purpose should provide a direction for the entire paper. For example, the possible thesis statement 1 – *The music of Daddy Lumba has been heavily influenced by the 21st century youth in Ghana* – can set the stage for intense discourse analysis between lovers of "Kwadjo Antwi's*" music and that of "Daddy Lumba" or between people who agree to the assertion and people who do not. Again, in possible thesis statement 2, not everybody in Ghana will accept the idea that the "Azonto Dance" has heavily influenced Ghanaians. Of course, there are people in Ghana who are opposed to this new dance. Also, we have Ghanaians who cherish some traditional dances like: *Adowa, Kete, Palongo, Bamaya, Kple* and *Agbadza* much more than they cherish a new dance like: *Azonto*. Accordingly, this makes the thesis statement a controversial one. Also, in possible thesis statement 4, most opponents of Barcelona Football Club, especially the supporters of Real Madrid – who see Cristiano Ronaldo as the best player in the world – will not concur to the declaration that Lionel Messi is the most skilful player on earth. This is also another way of writing a strong thesis statement.

Johnson (2004) also argues that for the thesis statement to be interesting, it should be arguable and specific. It should have the ability of generating the interest of others so that they could look at the idea(s) being expressed from a different viewpoint. Tagg (2004) also opines that it should be controversial and defensible. For this to happen, the writer should ask himself whether it would be possible to argue the thesis from the opposite way; if not, then it is not a thesis – it is more of a fact (Johnson, 2004). We cite the following instances to explain Johnson's (2004) point:

- **Not Arguable***: Mobile phones are becoming an efficient mechanism for transmitting oral information across the world.*
- **Arguable***: Intense use of mobile phones may disturb family unity and increase cases of divorce in our society.*

Taking a closer look at the two statements, it is noticeable that while the first (not arguable) is a statement of fact, the second (arguable) is a statement which is debatable. Many people will find it difficult to believe that *intense use of mobile phones may disturb family unity and increase cases of divorce in our society*. This is a good thesis, since it could set the stage for a "hot" debate.

Specificity is also a vital ingredient in writing an appealing thesis. The thesis should contain detail and specificity (Johnson, 2004). Providing detail and being explicit helps in doing away with vague, general and sweeping statements. It is therefore imperative that the thesis should always be substantiated by detailed information. Detailed information makes the thesis clear and unambiguous (Tagg, 2004). And if a statement is clear and unambiguous, then it means it has not been stated in such a way to mean different things to different people. We provide the following example to illustrate our point on poor and good specificity:

- **Poor Specificity***: "We should not investigate the causes of the Baba Yara Sports Stadium[3] blackout when Ghana played Lesotho on June 1, 2012."*
- **Good Specificity**: *"Because the blackout incident that occurred in the Baba Yara Sports Stadium, when Ghana played Lesotho on June 1, 2012 could have serious repercussions on the nation's sporting activities, the blackout should be investigated.*

In the first example (poor specificity) the writer does not provide details as to why the blackout should not be investigated. Hence, this statement does not provide any logic for the reader. But the second example (good specificity) does provide details as to why the blackout should be investigated; and this makes the thesis logical enough.

One other method that can be used in writing a captivating thesis is to follow an "although … actually" format (Johnson, 2004). The "although … actually" format is one of the most effective ways of finding something original and controversial to say (Johnson, 2004). In using this format, one tries to convince one's readers that what they thought to be previously true really is not. This statement always has two clauses – the main clause and the subordinate. Examples are illustrated below:

- ***Example 1: Although*** *Ghana Black Stars[4] won 7 goals to 0 against the Crocodiles of Lesotho[5] on June 1, 2012,* ***actually*** *they should not be complacent as this could mar their progress in the FIFA qualifying matches for Brazil 2014.*

[1] Daddy Lumba and Kwadjo Antwi and two of the most celebrated highlife musicians in Ghana.
[2] The "Azonto Dance" is one of the popular and most recent dances in Ghana.
[3] Baba Yara Sports Stadium, Kumasi, is one of the well resourced sports stadia in Ghana.
[4] Ghana Black Stars, is the official name of the senior football team of Ghana.

• ***Example 2**: **Although** a PhD is now a prerequisite for getting on board most research institutions as a lecturer (**actually**) it does not ensure one's promotion.*

It is important to note that the adverb *actually* can be deleted without the meaning of the statement being affected. The two examples, which are both strong thesis statements, are controversial and can be subjected to strong debate. However, this does not mean that a good thesis statement must almost always be controversial. An example is: *my husband and I have several effective ways of disciplining our children* (Langan, 2001, p.52). When the thesis and its supporting details have been well composed, the essayist is now ready to write the body of the composition in the form of varying paragraphs.

III. Methodology of the Research

A. Research Design

The research design employed for this work is qualitative and descriptive. The two tools are selected for the work because of their proclivity to providing descriptions of phenomena that occur naturally (Seliger and Shohamy, 2001, p.116). In using qualitative and descriptive tools, attention was given to only the thesis statement of each essay. That is to say the grammar of students' composition and the whole structures of the essays of the participants were not the main focus of this study. The reason is that grammar and the structure of an essay are broad areas which would require a different research work to focus on.

B. Data, Sample and Sampling Technique

Data and the methods used in collecting them are crucial to the success of every investigative study. The data were obtained from 30 texts or scripts composed by participants. The participants were drawn from students in the business departments of two prominent private universities (Christian Service University College and Ghana Baptist University College) in Kumasi, Ghana. To be gender balanced, 50% males (15participants) and 50% females (15participants) were randomly selected out of 100 students who wrote essays on various topics. These essays were written as part of the assessment on essay writing lecture sessions. They were made to compose essays on five methods of development – narrative, cause and effect, descriptive, comparison and contrast, and argumentative. The table below is the break-down of the topic under each method of development and the number of participants who wrote them:

TABLE 2:
ESSAY TOPICS AND THE NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS WHO WROTE THEM

TOPICS ON THE METHODS OF DEVELOPMENT	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS	PERCENTAGE (%)
CAUSE AND EFFECT: *Discuss the Causes and Effects of Divorce*	6 (3 males and 3 females)	**20**
NARRATIVE: *Narrate a story that begins with the statement: "Riding a motorbike has always been my hobby; but one day, I learnt a bitter lesson"*	6 (3 males and 3 females)	**20**
DESCRIPTIVE: *Describe a political rally you recently attended.*	6 (3 males and 3 females)	**20**
COMPARISON AND CONTRAST: *Compare and contrast life in rural and urban areas*	6 (3 males and 3 females)	**20**
ARGUMENTATIVE: *Write your speech **for** or **against** the motion "scientific Advancement is a Curse to Mankind"*	6 (3 males and 3 females)	**20**
TOTAL	**30**	**100**

IV. Discussion of Results

The study revealed that most students in the business departments of private universities find it problematic including a thesis statement in their compositions. Thus, all the essays given to students required that a thesis be included in the introduction; but out of 30 scripts analysed, only 4 (texts 6, 9, 24 and 30) representing 13% have thesis statements; while the remaining 87% did not have. This is illustrated in table 3 below:

TABLE 3:
THESIS STATEMENTS IN STUDENTS' ESSAYS

THESIS STATEMENTS IN PARTICIPANTS' ESSAYS	NUMBER OF TEXTS	PERCENTAGE (%)
Essays with Thesis Statements	4	13
Essays without Thesis Statements	26	87
TOTAL	**30**	**100**

[5] Crocodiles is the official name of the senior football team of Lesotho.

A. Discussion on Essays without Thesis Statements

As already stated, 87% (26) of the participants did not include a thesis in their texts. The reasons are as follows: one, most of the texts did not have introductions at all (for example, texts 15, 16, and 25). The participants wrote on the topics given straight away within introducing them to their readers. Obviously, that explains the basis for missing theses. This, therefore, made their essays monotonous. Again, although the remaining 23 texts out of the 26 had various *introductions*, the theses were speciously couched. For example, in text 1, where the participants wrote on *the causes and effects of divorce*, the only statement in the introduction is the sentence: *There are causes and effects of divorce which destroy marriages in our societies.* Clearly, this statement is not in consonance with Johnson's (2004) assertion on thesis statement that says that for a thesis statement to be effective, it must be arguable and specific.

Another example was seen in text 29, where the participant wrote a descriptive essay. The only statement in the introduction – *One hot Sunday morning, my friends and I hurried to the Market Square to witness a political rally by a political party called the National People Party* – cannot serve as the thesis. It is a statement of fact. Thus, Felts (2006) thinks that a thesis is not a fact, but an assertion about facts. Moreover, the statement announces the subject matter of the essay – political party – rather than state a true thesis idea. This according to Langan (2001, p.53), is a mistake. Several reasons might have resulted in the production of these errors:

One, most language lecturers who teach in the business departments of private universities focus more attention on business write-ups topics such as *reports, minutes, memorandum, business letters, application letters,* and *proposals* than they focus on a topic like *essay writing* which requires the study of thesis statements. Perhaps, this is because the business student would write more business correspondence at the work place. Another problem is that some course outlines of English language related subjects of the business departments of most private universities do not capture thesis statement writing. Because of this situation, most English language lecturers sometimes do not treat areas such as the various methods of development, and the entirety of paragraph theory which will require the business student to write thesis statements. Again, an obvious problem to students' poor writing skills on thesis statements is lack of effective assessment in terms of essay writing (which will expose students' ability or inability of including thesis statements in their essays). At the business departments of private universities in Ghana, English language courses (i.e. Business Communication, Communication Skills I and II, English language I and II, etc) are mostly done in levels 100 and 200 (that is first and second years), where we have hundreds of students who do general courses before they focus on their area of specialisation at levels 300 and 400 (that is third and fourth years). Because of the large number of students at these levels, a good number of language lecturers in the business departments of most private universities set about 80% multiple choice questions and short answer-type questions and 20% of essay-type questions for both continuous assessment and end of semester examinations for fear that they might not be in a position to meet the deadline set by Examinations Officers if they are to mark more essay-type questions. So, the student goes through the university system without knowing his or her writing flaws on thesis statement; and these uncorrected writing errors on thesis statement remain with them as they enter their professional lives. Availability and adequacy of the required lecture materials on writing skills (especially on the writing of thesis statement) is also another problem for the majority of students who study in the business departments of privately-owned universities. To a large extent the student in state-owned universities such as Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology and University of Ghana has access to diverse literature on the study of thesis statement from their well established and resourced libraries. But, the student in the business departments of most private universities such as Ghana Baptist and Christian Service University Colleges goes through writing skills without getting the right study materials on thesis statements; even if the materials are available, they are not enough for hundreds of students who pursue English and English related course at levels 100 and 200. Thus, the students do not have any other option than to rely on the lecture material(s) given to them by their lecturers. Another issue is that, most of these lecture notes/materials given by lecturers are synopses of the various topics treated in class. So, in a situation where the student uses the lecture notes as the only reference material, he or she finds it difficult to comprehend the complex issues (especially on thesis statements) which were not exhaustively treated in class.

B. Discussion on Essays with Thesis Statements

As already indicated only 4 (13%) of the participants' texts had thesis statements. The thesis statement in text 6 – *Divorce is a painful experience. Though no one wishes for it, most of the times it happens to most married couples* – for example, is not broad and has not been worded in the negative sense. This is in consonance with the assertion of Tagg (2004) that the negator – not – should be absent in the construction of a thesis statement. Again, although, the idea behind the participant's thesis statement is true, it is arguable in that it is not everyone who will agree that *divorce* is a painful experience. For instance, if one person within a marriage were abused and suppressed, he or she would not see *divorce* as a painful experience, but an opportunity to perhaps be liberated from painful situations. This makes the thesis statement an effective one.

Moreover, the thesis statement of text 30 – *In this world of power struggle, politics has taken a centre stage in all human endeavours making it very hard to ignore even if you are not a fan of it* – is debatable; because while some people will believe it in its entirety, there are others in society who will not agree that *politics has taken a centre stage in all human endeavours since* they might not be interested in politics and they would therefore not encourage it in their

domain. Again, this thesis is not a statement of fact; and that makes it more acceptable. Felts (2006) has put forward that a good thesis is not a factual statement, but is an assertion about facts.

V. Conclusion

This work has looked at only the construction of thesis statements in students' expository essays. More research is therefore needed in other areas such as the grammar, and the sentence construction in students' expository essays. Looking at the data collected from the field and the discussion of results, one realizes that most students, indeed, find it difficult constructing a thesis statement. It is therefore recommended that language teachers and lecturers should devote amply time in teaching students this theory. It is also recommended that the course outlines for Business Communication and Communication Skills of business schools of private universities in Ghana should have a separate section for thesis statement writing.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 63-69, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.63-69

Improving Students Listening Skill through Interactive Multimedia in Indonesia

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***Abstract*—Leraning method inovation will influence learning media used and it is hoped to improve learning qualities. One of them is improving students' critical listening ability. This research was done to know the students activities in learning critical listening by using interactive multimedia and to measure the effetiveness of that multimedia in improving students' critical listening ability. The data was taken through test, observation, and interview. The result of the research were (1) the students created active, creative, and effective learning process independenly in measuring and developing each step of listening learning model. (2) Interactive multimedia was effective learning media to improve students' critical listening skill. It could be seen from improving critical listening ability in limited test at experiment class was 42,98%, whereas at control class the rise was only 7,36%. For extensive test, the improving of critical listening ability at experiment class was 33,88%, while control class was only up at 2,62%. (3) Critical listening strategy performance in PMAI Model could improve students' critical listening ability so that this model is better to be applied as an implimentation of reference in listening learning model. (4) Learning media with interactive multimedia can improve students' critical listening skill than audio learning media because listening is not only aural aspet but also visual aspect integrated with multimedia.**

***Index Terms*—effectiveness, interactive multimedia, critical listening skill**

I. Introduction

Learning listening has been developed and advanced especially in media and in learning materials used in the cities. There are many choices of listening materials such as CD, DVD, or video applied in the classroom. However, there are many evidences that listening is lack attention of teachers (Field, 2009, p.1). When they applied many learning competencies in the classroom, listening skill was always accelerated or reduced. Learning course methodology was discussed and analyzed slightly, and there was a tendency from the teachers that listening was ordinary activity in life. The other factor was a lack of teachers' commitment to apply an appropriate approch in listening like using integrative skill which affected listening as an indicator to teach it in haste. Reading and Listening skills were as primary in learning language skill.

The relevance of critical listening with learning listening is to prepare the students in order to be the best solver, make the better decision, and long life education. It is important for the students to be independent thinker since there are many jobs needed skillful workers which have critical listening ability. All this time, critical listening ability has not absorbed yet to the students' soul so it could not be function maximally in the society. Meanwhile, high level cognitive learning could help the students to be independent students which could develop reflective and logical thinking to decide some problems (Ennis in Costa, 1985). Today, many students are less to apply knowledge gotten from shool to face their daily life problems since they cannot give some prove about some concepts and its connecction to their problems.

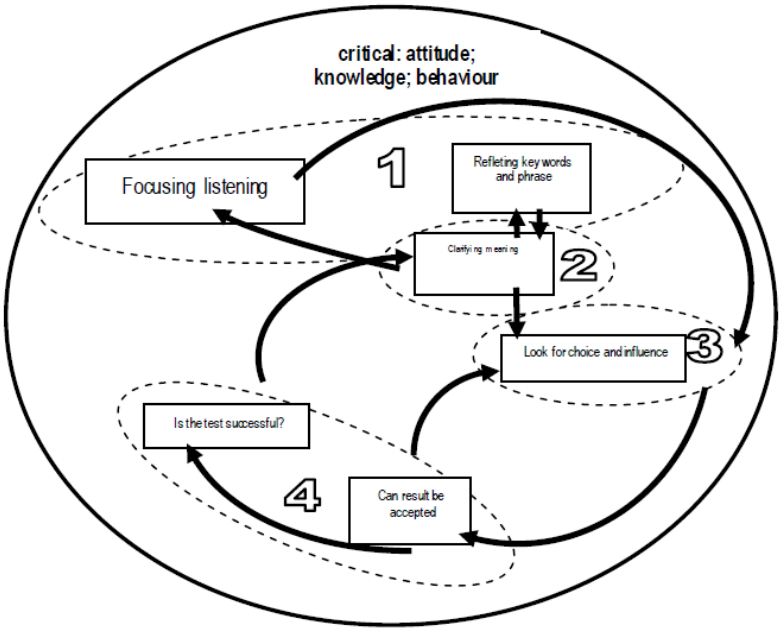
Listening skill is a process in language skill that needs practice by using audio/technology such as a research done by Embi and Latiff (2004) in using E-learning as a tool for learning ESL. After practicing, the students agreed that comprehension of listening ablity had been incerased significantly. Morover, in Hong Kong, Chapple and Curtis (2000), adopted strip film as teaching material for ESL which had 31 EFL students and got answer 67,8% students said that they had possitive impact in listening skill within 13 weeks learning. Therefore, teaching of intensive multimedia could raise students' EFL listening skill comprehension. It could be seen that there were many less developed students in listening English skill applied internet, computer, or multimedia could help students' EFL/ESL (Chapelle, 2000). Some listening activities have been apllied in listening practice but most of them used listening material from cassette, television, and radio whereas using technology was seldom in learning listening. These were happened because using internet was still lack for listening media and there was not software for learning listening model.

However, there was an internet that could be accessed by the students as a learning media. That utilization combination media could create the latest listening learning media product. According to Meskill (1996) multimedia could improve listening skill focused on: (a) visual and text roles as a tool to organize language in aural teks; (b) video motivation aspect as a profit for language teachning; (c) a fact that those media combinations could reach language target so that they could give important input to language acquisition process (d) comfortamble environment to describe chart and discourse strategy for the students.

Listening as a basic of language skill was as a fundamental for interactive multimedia development in improving students' critical listening skill. Listening skill refered to some theories such as from Morris (1969, p.701-702), Grene et. al. (1969), Logan (1972, p.39), Tarigan (1986, p.27-29), Meskill (1996), Richard & Rubin (in Van Duzer, 1997), Sutari (1997, p.16-19), Ginther (2002) and Ockey (2007). Morris explained listening proess such as *hearing, attention, perception, evaluation,* and *response or reaction. Gren dan Loban* described listening process into *hearing, understanding, evaluating,* and *responding.* Besides, Logan gave some steps for listening process like *comprehending, interpenting,* and *evaluating.* Tarigan and Sutari also suggested that the term of hearing and listening were related element with different meanings in language teaching. Hearing was an activity of process to accept words or sentences accidentally whereas listening was listening activity done by fully attention, comprehension, appreciation, interpretation to get information, to get message, and to understand communicative meaning that have been expressed by the speaker. Moreover, Richard & Rubin said that listening did not oly comprehend the utterances of speakers, but also understood visual aspect in activities of listening comprehension. Based on those explanations, listening was a process included activity of listening sound of language and visual aspect, identify, interprete, value, and do reaction for the content of meaning. This term was used as the fundamental in developmet of active integrative listening learning model.

Some theories of active integrative listening learning refered to Vandergrift's theory (1999), Flowerdew & Miller (2005, p.18), Harris (2007), Thompson et. al. (2009, p.269), and Thompson (2010, p.268-271). Vandergrift and Harris explained that active integrative listening learning was focused on metacognitive knowledge started from planning, directed attention, selective interest, monitor, and evaluation. Flowerder dan Miller paid attention much to integrative listening learning like pre-listening, while-listening, and post listening. Thompson also desribed active integrative listening learning which could be done into some steps like prepare for listening activity, apply listening model, value listening effectiveness, and implement new goal in listening activity.

Based on those theories, the writer used them as a fundamental in developing active integrative listening learning model in interative multimedia learning. In this research, the writer formulated integrative active listening learning model was based on students center focused on pre- listening, while listening, and post listening activities. Those steps were unity and dynamic in learning integrated with attitude, knowledge, and behavior to achieve listening goal. In pre listening stage, there were some preparations like noticing and reflecting key words; in while listening, the students did listening process by clarifying meaning and performance effectiveness; and in post listening stage, students reflected listening purpose by determining wether listening result accepted or not acepted. It can be seen from a diagram of integrative active listening model as following.



A Diagram of Integrative Active Listening Model
In Improving Critical Listening Skill

Interagtive multimedia was an alternative tool for critical listening learning that could be applied by the lecturer using educational technology in learning which had text, sound, picture, animation, video, and interaction aspects. By giving interactive additional aspect, the users or the students were active to choose one of them and search information in following those stages based on their need. This interactive multimedia formulation was suggested by Prabath and Andleight (1996), Mayer (2001, p.270-271), and Blanco (2007, p.37-44). Prabath and Andleight and Blanco said that multimedia consisted of five basic types: text, animation, video, picture, and sound, whereas Mayer emphasized in using multimedia in order to be better in appliying, coherence, modality reduncy, and individual differences. Applying

of this integrative multimedia could be done by using computer presented through projector in learning. The students could observe, study, and ask the lecturer about the material presented in projector. Using interagtive multimedia technology was integrated in goal and in the content of learning which were written in program in order to increase the quality of teaching ativity.

Learning media was said good if that media could convey the message and could be understood by the students. Before that media was used in the classroom, it was needed to do assessment. It could be done by paying attention to criteria of good media. To evaluate learning media refered to Ivers dan Baron's theories (2002) and Thompson (in Flowerdew & Miller, 2005, p.180). Ivers and Baron suggested that good media was outline content, flocart view, storyboard, technique, design, and presentation. Then, according to Thompson (in Flowerdew & Miller) said that media criteria was as evaluation activities in documentation, listening tool, and related to listening activities. Both theories in evaluating learning media completed each other, and Thompson's theory technically had been reported in Ivers and Barons theories.

Critical listening was a part of activities in intensive listening. Based on listening goal, intensive listening was listening activities which were more control and more emphasized in language component perception. It was the same with Tarigan (1990, p.40) and Brown (2004, p.120) reported that critical listening skill was a skill involved interpretative, introspective, responsive, and productive listening, and evaluative events. Further, Tarigan asserted that critical listening was listening activities to look for not only error and mistake but also good utterances from the speakers with strong result accepted by the listener. Therefore, critical listening learning development refered to some indicators based on critical thingking and critical listening theories presented by Anderson (1972, p.70) and Costa (1985). The writer formulated those theories since both critical listening concept and critical thinking basically involved mental aspect.

II. Methodology

This research was quasi experiment (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2007, p.271). To see the effectiveness of interactive multimedia in integrative active listening learning as determinant of critical listening improvement, the researcher used limited and extended tests in experimental and control classes. There were 89 students in experimental class by applying interactive multimedia integrated in learning of interactive active listening, whereas 126 students were in control class by implementing audio learning media used handbook of interactive active listening learning model. Each group was divided into high, everage, and low levels for extended test, while students' input in experimental and control classes for limited test was more varied. Determining of group distribution was based on placement test. Experiment was done in limited and extended tests both in experimental and control classes (The Matching-Only Pratest-Posttest Control Group Design). Effectiveness was measured by comparing pre-test and post-test. The tests were multiple choice, listening and writing, listening and speaking through interactive multimedia program for experimental class, whereas control class used audio program with handbook. If post-test was higher than pre-test, interactive multimedia was called effective.

III. Result and Analysis

Multimedia was combination between sight and auditory.Those combination could raise a phenomenon or object effectively (Yusup, 1990). It was related to relationship between kind of media with memory of human being to accept and save a message like, audio 10%, visual 40%, and audiovisual 50% (Siswosumarto, 1994). They should be designed in order to achive learning goal as critical listening laerning media.

Learning media was applied interative multimedia. It was called learning media because it was well designed to stimulate thingking, feeling, attention, and will of the students so learning process happened. Besides, learning media was one of dominant aspects after learning method which could improve learning process and achieve high learning result (Sudjana and Rivai, 2007, p.2). Beacause of that, interative multimedia design was made suitable with learning model development.

In interactive multimedia development stage, there were some cases that should be paid attention in pre-product, while-product, and pasca-product. Suyanto (2005, p.388) described that pre-product was activities before multimedia was producted, while-product was a period during multimedia was producted, whereas pasca-product was a period after multimedia was producted.

Pre-product stage was done by learning and analyzing document, by conference of manuscript, and continuing with designing media visualization producted. In this stage, it was also planned product activities such as preparing tools and material production, preparing facilities, preparing location, arranging time schedule, planning cost, and processing permission letter. Producer should know not only only hardware multimedia like (input unit, central precessing unit (CPU), storage/memory, and output unit) but also software multimedia (processing system, programs controlled multimedia computer, macromedia flash).

While-product was making master program, doing review and revise program, and reproduction integrated with PMAIMI Model. It was also done expert judgement to get information about weaknesses interactive multimedia PMAI Model. Those weaknesses were as the basic to do correction. After that, interactive multimedia were ready to tryout in

learning PMAIMI Model at limited test. Then, the revisions of PMAIMI Model at limitet test were developed in extended test in order to get effective PMAIMI Model in improving students' critical listening skill. If interactive PMAIMI Model was effective, learning media of interactive multimedia could be socialization in advanced media development to be applied for public. Because of that, in designing interactive multimedia needed systematic and integrated stages so that media product was appropriate with goal of interactive multimedia development.

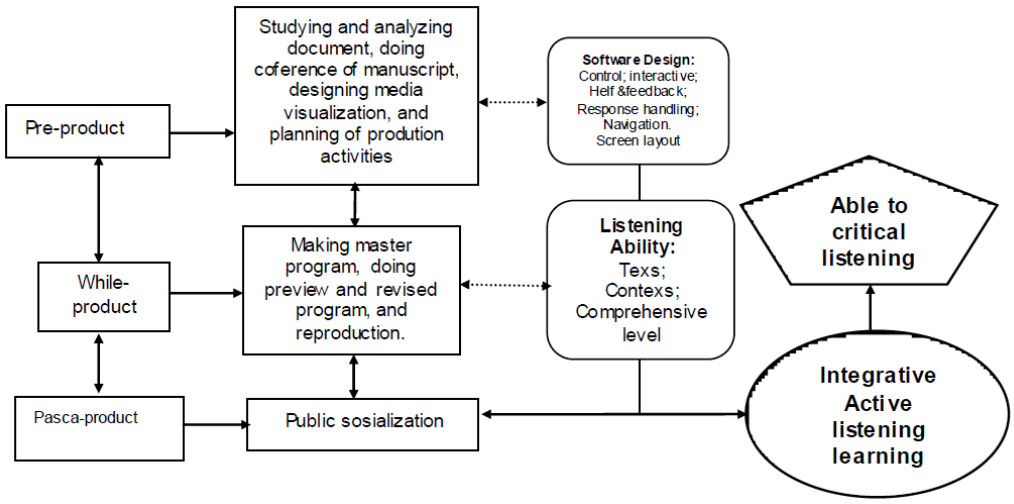


Diagram of Interative Multimedia Development Design

It was modification from Hoven, Plass, and Jones designs (in Jones, 2008). They claimed that multimedia design toward listening skill enhancement would be more effective in improving students' listening ability. It was also based on instructional design, collaborated active integrative listening learning model, and designed software for improving listening comprehension through multimedia. Hoven suggested that software centered design must be in consistent environment used the same strategies in learning activities. He further reported that software should involve knowledge about effective strategy, understanding of aural and visual theorities, and consideration related to applying learning model. This design could make the students learned the material and studied individually so they could understand their critical listening. According to Jones (2008) listening was not only accepted aural but also could make the students process written input or visual information. It made the students more effective in understanding information through multimedia both in cognitive and metacognitive aspects.

Before implementing extetended test in each classroom, the researcher did pre-test toward students' critical listening skill in critical listening skill performance both in spoken-listening and written-listening by having good category in beginning median 125,9 for PMAIMI Model and also good category for PMAMA Model with 128,5. After that, the reseaher did four times treatment. Indicators for spoken-listening were identifying questions, ability to decide different information, ability to determine information objectively and evaluative, and ability to make summary. Meanwhile, indicators for written-listening were ability to consider responses, ability to establish new information, accuracy utterance and sentence element, and capability to do generalization and hipotesis.

A. Performance Students' Critical Listening Skill

Performance analysis for critical listening comprehensive ability was done by counting median level with formula total answer was divided with total respondents by using interval scale 31. It was said excellent if the level of achievement was 129-160, very good was at 97-128, good was at 65-96, poor was at 33-64, and fail was at 0-32. It would explain below each treatment of students' critical listening skill through PMAIMI Model and PMAIMA Model at extended test.

Performance of PMAIMI Model critical listening at treatment focused on an ability to identify questions for spoken-listening and ability to consider the answer written-listening. After doing learning activities, performance of critical listening ability was at 66,8 median. It was also at 54,9 median in PMAIMA Model. Then, performance PMAIMI Model critical listening at second treatment focused on the ability to decide different information for spoken-listening and ability to determine new information for written-listening. After doing learning activies, performance of critical listening was at 70,1 median. For PMAIMA Model in this treatment, performance of critical listening ability was at 52,6 median. Performance of critical listening PMAIMI Model at third treatment focused on the ability to establish information objectively and evaluative for spoken-listening and utterances accuracy and sentences alement for written-listenig. After doing learning activities, performance of critical listening ability was at 71,1 median. PMAIMA Model in the third treatment, performane of written-listening for critical listening ability was at 52,5 median. For performance of PMAIMI Model Critial listening at the fourth treatment focused on the ability to summarize for spoken-listening and ability to generalize and hypotesis for written-listening. After doing learning activities, performance of critical listening ability was at 72,9 median in very good level so that it was improvement at final test by having 76,8 median. The

average of performance students' critical listening ability in this treatment impled that performance of students' critical listening ability in summary was interpretative and not focused on listening material, however the summary had not been in a good arrangement yet. Otherwise, performance of students' critical listening ability in determining hypotesis was productive, focused on listening material, but hypotesis made lack of good arrangement. However, PMAIMA Model for this fourth treatment, performance of critical listening ability was at 51,4 in poor level and until final test was still at poor catagory but it was improvement at 56.9.

B. Analysis of Students' Critical Listening Comprehensive Ability

Before implementing extended test in each classroom, the researcher was done pre-test to know students' critical listening comprehensive ability both in spoken-listening and written-listening with average 125,5 at very good category for PMAIMI Model, and 128,6 also at very good category for PMAMA Model. After having the result of pretest, the researcher did four time treatments.

Analysis of performance in each treatment at extended tryout test was done by counting the average of critical listening skill achievement that was answered total was divided by total respondent with 12 interval scale. The conversion was qulified excellent if the achievement level was at 53-65, very good was at 40-52, good was at 23-39, poor was at 14-26, and very poor was at 0-13.

At the first treatment, students' critical listening comprehension ability for spoken-listening dan written-listening both in experiment and control classes at good category (PMAIMI Model=36,8 and PMAIMA Model= 35,3). Second treatment for students' critical listening comprehension ability for spoken-listening and written-listening both in experiment and control classes was at good category (PMAIMI Model=38,5 and PMAIMA Model= 39,9). Third treatment for students' critical listening comprehension ability or spoken-listening and written-listening was different. Experiment class was better than control class to their critical listening comprehension bility. PMAIMI Model experiment class was very good category (43,7), whereas PMAIMA Model was good category (34,3). It was also happened for four treatment. Experiment class was better than control class. PMAIMI Model experiment class was very good (47,3), while PMAIMA Model was good (38,3). It meant that spoken-listening and written-listening PMAIAMI Model for students' critical listening comprehension ability was high acuracy with a little mistake in listening contents comprehension, listening contents detail comprehension, speaking and writing fluency, diction accuracy, sentence accuracy, spelling and grammar, and meaningful of utterances. At post test, students' critical listening comprehension ability improved at excellent category (136,8). It meant that students' critical listening comprehension ability both in spoken-listening and in written-listening were almost no error. However, students' critical listening comprehension ability was good category at PMAIMI Model.

C. Enhancement of Critical Listening Learning Result

Besides analysis test, such as pretest-pretest, posttest-postest, gain test between experiment and control groups from category analysis at pre-test and pos-test consilidated analysis result about whether PMAIMI Model was better in improving students' critical listening skill than PMAIMA Model. The following was presented gain analysis amplified with change visualisation at critical listening ability both at its presented establisment and at students' number.

TABLE OF CRITICAL LISTENING ABILITY FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION AT EXPERIMENT AND CONTROL CLASS BOTH IN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Group	Pretest	Postest	d	d^2
Experiment	58,12	77,81	19,69	387,69
Control	56,93	58,42	1,49	2,22

Table above showed that score alteration of students' critical listening ability from pre-test to post-test both in experiment and control groups. Gain value (d) at experiment group (PMAIMI Model) was 19,69 bigger than gain (d) gotten from control group (1,49). It could be seen that gain value of student' critical listening ability enhancement at experiment group was higher than control group (PMAIMA Model). Raising of critical listening ability at extended test in experiment class was 33,88%, whereas control class was only 2,62%. It showed that PMAIMI Model (interactive multimedia) proved be able to improve students' critical listening ability and was better than PMAIMA Model (audio media). It meant that interactive multimedia was more effective than audio media in improving students' critical listening ability.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Students' critical listening ability after using interactive multimedia was effective and gave meaningful improvement. It coud be seen from the gain mark of the increasing students' critical listening ability in experiment group was higher than control group (PMAIMA Model) both in limited and extentensive tests. Gain value (d) limited test at experiment group (PMAIMI Model) was 24,36 was higher than gotten by control group at 3,99. From gain value it could be seen the improvement of students' critical listening ability at experiment group is higher than control group (PMAIMA Model). Gain Value (d) limited test at experiment group (PMAIMI Model) was 19,69 higher than gain (d) 1,49 at control group. From gain value could be seen that the improvement of students' critical listening abiltity was higher than control group (PMAIMA Model). It had showed that PMAIMI Model could improve students's critical listening

and was better than PMAIMA Model. It means that PAMIMI Model was more effective than PMAIMA Model in improving students' critical listening ability.

Interacive multimedia in learning critical listening made some possibilities such as (1) effective activities like the students create active, creative, and effective learning process individually in measuring and developing each stage of listening learning model. (2) Interactive multimedia was effective learning media to improve students' critical listening skill. It was based on interactive multimedia utilizing effectiveness in increasing critical listening ability in experiment class was 42,98%, whereas control class was only up 33,88%, while control class rose only 2,62%. (3) Critical listening strategy performance in interactive multimedia could improve students' critical listening ability so that interactive multimedia was useful as reference for listening learning media implementation (4) learning media with interactive multimedia was better to improve students critical listening skill if it was compared to audio learning media since listening not only aural aspect but also visual aspect integrated in multimedia.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 70-79, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.70-79

Effects of Study Abroad on Teachers' Self-perceptions: A Study of Chinese EFL Teachers

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***Abstract*—This study reports on an enquiry into a group of 91 Chinese secondary EFL teachers with SA experience in the UK. Drawing on questionnaire data and 20 teachers' interview narratives, the study examines how SA (study abroad) influenced their self-perceptions on EFL teaching in three aspects, namely, language proficiency, teaching ideology and NES (native English speaking)-NNES (nonnative English speaking) teacher debate. The enquiry revealed that the length of SA was a powerful factor in determining teachers' attitudes toward their jobs and their own capacities to perform them successfully. These findings were discussed with suggestions for making SA experience an effective and sustainable path for EFL teachers' professional development. Based on the findings, implications and suggestions are proposed, which are applicable not only to Chinese EFL teachers but beyond.**

***Index Terms*—study abroad, EFL teacher, self-perception**

I. Introduction

English language education has become a subject of paramount importance in China, and proficiency in English has been widely regarded as a national as well as a personal asset (Shen & Wang, 2009; Xu & Liu, 2009). The teaching of English as a foreign language in China has become a nationwide endeavour pursued at all academic levels, especially at the elementary and secondary level. Meanwhile administrators and teachers themselves are increasingly aware that it is well-trained teachers who hold the key to the outcome of high-quality ELT education (Xu & Liu, 2009; Wen, 2012). In recent years, the Ministry of Education has undertaken commendable measures to improve the quality of English teacher training programmes. One measure is the provision of SA experience. Under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, the local government and their respective institutions, more and more Chinese EFL teachers have been sent to English-speaking countries (e.g., UK, USA, Canada, Australia, New Zealand) to improve their English proficiency and fluency. During the decade of 2000 to 2010, more than 3,000 Chinese EFL teachers have been sent to various UK institutions to study TESOL and nearly half of them are secondary school teachers (Xu & Liu 2009; Wen, 2012).

The potential benefits of study abroad are considerable, but its effects do not appear to be uniform across individuals. For Chinese EFL teachers in the UK, they have to adapt to an entirely new environment. They have to change from a language teacher in China to a language learner/user in the UK, which is a great challenge for them. It would be useful for EFL teachers themselves, EFL teacher educators, and study abroad program designers to understand the impact of study abroad on these teachers' language proficiency. It would be valuable as well to understand the ways in which SA experience impacts other aspects of teachers' professional lives. For example, as a result of participating in a study abroad program, do they change their teaching practices? Are they inspired to pursue other avenues of professional development? However, there has been little attention paid to the impact of SA programmes since they were implemented. The present study seeks to investigate this issue, focusing on the effects of living in the UK for a period of time on Chinese EFL teachers' self-perceptions.

II. Literature Review

A. Global English Teaching

The role of the English language in the process of globalization and the issues surrounding the ubiquitous teaching of English as an international language have attracted much attention from teachers in the field of English to speakers of other languages (ESOL) working in various parts of the world (Richards, 2008; Kang, 2012). Several researchers (Lee, 2009; Allen, 2010; Llurda, 2004) have analysed the role currently played by English worldwide as well as the implications of the international status of English on language teaching. This has amounted to a considerable change of paradigm from considering English the exclusive right and property of native speakers of the language to accepting its transformation into a language of global use, the ownership of which can be claimed by all its speakers, both native and non-native. The English language teaching research community has also felt the impact of this paradigm change. However, one is left with the impression that language teachers are not entirely aware of the paradigm change that is under way, and many may act as though English were still the exclusive property of either British or American native-born citizens. As a consequence, these teachers disregard any recommendations addressing the need to contemplate

English as a global language, which implies that English may actually be learned from many different purposes and in different contexts of the world.

Focusing specifically on English as a foreign language context, and particularly on countries (e.g., China, Japan) in which English is now easily found outside language classrooms; one finds that teachers and learners do not have an urgent need to address communication functions (Allen, 2010; Llurda, 2004; Wen, 2012), unlike in an English as a second language (ESL) program. In these countries, there is a general tendency among EFL teachers to focus on several grammatical aspects accompanied by some cultural information that normally refers to an idealised stereotype of whatever English-speaking country is considered to constitute the model for that class. In China, and probably more so in East Asia, the country of reference is the United Kingdom (Zhang, 2007). Therefore, British English has been the unquestioned language model, despite the gradual use of English for international communication in formal and informal meetings involving officials or citizens of different countries. This is partly supported by the unquestioned assumption of many Chinese EFL teachers that British English, in particular the standard variety with a RP (Received Pronunciation) is the most intelligible and to some extent the most legitimate variety worldwide. In addition, the geographic proximity of Hong Kong, a former colony of the UK, makes it natural for many Chinese teachers to rely on British English as their model for teaching (Zhang 2007).

B. Study Abroad

On the national level, English language education has been viewed by the Chinese leadership as having a vital role to play in national modernization and development. The last several decades has seen persistent efforts to provide English language education in the formal system. Policies on ELT were driven by the perceived importance of English to national modernization, a desire to catch up with developed countries and a pressing sense of urgency. During the mid-1980s, there were increasing criticisms levelled at the low quality of ELT. These criticisms, together with the educational reform launched in 1985, led to a large scale survey conducted under the aegis of the State Education Commission (Shen & Wang, 2009; Zhang, 2007). The study involved 1715 secondary school teachers and more than 57,000 students from 139 schools in 15 provinces. About two-thirds of the schools were key schools and represented the upper end of the educational quality in China. The study revealed that a majority of the teachers had a weak grounding in pedagogy, lacked professional competence for the subject and knew very little about recent developments in foreign language education both home and abroad. Based on the findings, the research team made a number of suggestions for improving the quality of ELT, including teacher development, curriculum reform, syllabus updating and promotion of ELT research. These suggestions were endorsed by the SEC, subsequently; efforts were focused on revamping the curriculums, updating the syllabuses, producing new textbooks and updating teachers' professional training. One of the important means for teachers to improve their professional competence is to study in an English-speaking country. Curriculum and Teaching Materials Reform Commission (1988) states that in order develop language proficiency at the advanced levels, studying abroad in a country in which the language is spoken is essential. This SA initiative has several aims. First, the SA experience is designed to help EFL teachers to sharpen their English language skills in an authentic language environment. Second, it aims to increase their understanding of the culture from which the English language draws its vitality. Third, it intends to widen the teachers' perspective in teaching the target language (Kang, 2012; Lee, 2009; Allen, 2010).

Chinese EFL teachers themselves also experience the need to go to an English-speaking country to improve their proficiency. Most of them do so supported by the Ministry of Education, the local government and their respective institutions. Generally speaking, there are two major types of SA programmes for EFL teachers: year-long (12 months) and one-semester (6 months). The SA application process was selective and competitive. Applicants were required to submit a résumé, writing sample in English, why they applied for the SA program and how they planned to use the SA experience to benefit themselves both personally and professionally. Evidence of the following criteria guided the selection process: commitment to teaching (e.g., at least 5 years teaching experience), intellectual curiosity, enthusiasm for English language and culture and a level of proficiency high enough to permit them to fully participate in and benefit from the program (Kang, 2012; Allen, 2010).

Much empirical research (Lee, 2009; Allen, 2010; Sasaki, 2011) has been done to investigate on the effects of studying abroad on language learning which generally points to the conclusion that time spent abroad positively affects the development of language proficiency and that such improvement is also perceived by learners. This is most clearly observable in the case of oral-aural skills (Lee, 2009), whereas reading and writing skills not to improve to the same extent (Sasaki, 2011). Many studies (Lee, 2009; Allen, 2010; Isabellli, 2004) also indicate that the effect of studying abroad goes beyond greater language proficiency, that is enhances intercultural competence as well.

In contrast to the bulk of research on study abroad involves undergraduate students, very few researches have been conducted with experienced teachers. This study discusses the effect of stays abroad on a particular group of language learners, that is, experienced Chinese EFL teachers who had been sent to UK institutions to study. The overall language and culture change that is thought to be produced in learners who stay abroad should also be relevant to these teachers as their experiences with the language determine their vision of the language itself and the language learning process. Many Chinese EFL teachers strongly believe that British English is the preferred variety to use in their classes. A natural consequence of that belief is that the culture incorporated into their language classes should be British. Some studies (Allen, 2010; Isabellli, 2004; Kang, 2012) indicate that long stays in English-speaking countries made

nonnative-speaking-teachers more attached to native speaker ideology, such as preferring nonnative speakers as teachers. Thus, it would appear logical to expect that NNES teachers who spent a few months in UK would develop a higher level of preference for British English and British culture and a generally higher preference for all native varieties of English.

Drawing on a group of Chinese secondary school EFL teachers' SA experience, the present study explores the relationships between length of SA and professional development by answering the following research questions:

1) What is the effect of different lengths of SA in UK on English teachers' language proficiency?

2) What are the teachers' conception of the target language variety and attitudes regarding the role of English as an international language (EIL) as opposed to English as a native language (ENL), and how are they affected by the length of SA in UK?

3) What are their positions on the native-English-speaking (NES)-NNES teacher debate, particularly in terms of which they would prefer as a language teacher and their views on the strengths and weaknesses of NES teachers compared with those of NNES teachers?

III. Research Design

A. Participants

The participants in this study comprised a convenience sample since they had been asked to voluntarily fill out the questionnaire by their colleagues or co-workers who kindly cooperated in the research. In this, a snowball sampling strategy (whereas several key informants were identified and then were asked to further introduce other potential participants, such as their colleagues, friends or the members of their study groups) was implemented to reach as many SA teachers in UK as possible. Most of the actual questionnaires collected were subject to careful screening, and thereby those found to be either improperly filled or incomplete were eliminated from the sample. This left 91 English teachers as a final sample. All of them had been studied in UK for some time during 2004-2009. The distribution of sexes was unbalanced: 63 of the teachers were women, and 28 were men. The teachers' ages ranged from 25 to 51 years, the mean age was 33.8 years. All the participants' first language is Chinese, teaching English as a foreign language in secondary schools.

Two groups were established based on the declared total length of stays in English-speaking countries. 45 teachers who had been in the UK 6 months or less at the time of the study were assigned to the short-stay group (Group 1), whereas 46 teachers who had been in the UK more than 6 months but less than 15 months were assigned to the long-stay group (Group 2). The average length of stay was 5.11 months for the first group and 9.19 months for the second group. The 6-month dividing point was used because researchers have argued that significantly more language development can occur in a year-long study abroad experience than in a one-semester experience (Isabellli, 2004; Kang, 2012). The detailed composition of each group is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
AGE, YEARS OF ENGLISH TEACHING, AND MONTHS IN ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES

Groups		M	SD	Min.	Max.
Group 1	Age	31.39	5.55	26	49
	Years of teaching	8.66	4.66	5	23
	Months of SA	5.31	0.07	5.15	6
Group 2	Age	36.27	6.5	25	51
	Years of teaching	9.78	7.1	5	26
	Months of SA	11.19	0.24	10.16	14.18

B. Questionnaire

Significant time was invested in the development of the questionnaire, in the belief that research findings are of little value unless the means through which they are generated are sound. I drew on a range of sources in constructing the instrument. I reviewed the literature on study abroad in order to identify the salient debates in the field. Besides I held intense discussions with two secondary school teachers. The questionnaire consisted of two types of questions: 5-point Likert scales and closed sets of categories (see Appendix I). It was made available to all participants both online and via email attachment. The questions were partially inspired by Llurda (2008) and were designed to focus on the data related to determine the teachers' self-awareness in the following three respects:

1) The participants were asked to reflect on their own language skills and their perceptions of how their language skills had evolved over time (Questions 6-10).

2) The teachers were asked about their teaching ideology, including aspects such as their perception of the relevance of past teacher training experiences and the target language variety they prefer to use as the model for learners to follow (Questions 11-12).

3) They were asked about their views on the native-English-speaking (NES)-NNES teacher debate, particularly in terms of which they would prefer as a language teacher and their views on the strengths and weaknesses of NES teachers compared with those of NNES (Questions 13-18).

The focus of our study's questionnaire on language proficiency and teaching orientations, as well as on the emphasis on NES-NNES issues owes much to previous studies (Lee, 2009; Allen, 2010; Sasaki, 2011).

A version of the questionnaire was piloted with 5 secondary EFL teachers where the author had existing contacts. They were asked to respond in writing to the questions and at the same time provide feedback on unclear or confusing statements. A second version of the questionnaire that took their suggestions into consideration was then produced.

The questionnaire results were analysed by chi-square (χ^2) and analysis of variance (ANOVA) statistical tests to find significant differences between groups. Chi-square tests were used to evaluate frequency data from questions that asked respondents to choose one of a closed set of categories. ANOVA was used for numerical data from Likert-scale questions. The level of significance was set at $p < 0.05$.

C. Interview

In the questionnaires, participants were asked if they would like to participate in a follow-up interview and 69 of them agreed. 20 of them were chosen as our interviewees .10 of them belonged to Group 1 (Number 1-10) while another 10 of them belonged to Group 2 (Number 11-20). Interviewees were chosen using stratified random sampling. In a stratified sample the criteria for selection are represented in the same proportions as they are in the larger group the sample comes from. This makes the sample more representative of the larger group. Thus, for example, in the larger sample of teachers in the study of Group 1, 18 teachers had nine years of teaching experience, in the sample of 10 interviewees; there were 3 teachers with this range of experience. The purpose of the interviews was to explore in more detail issues addressed in the questionnaire. The interview was semi-structured, which had a structured overall framework but allowed for greater flexibility within that. A semi-structured interview was adopted because it had the advantages of using questions specified in advance and the flexibility for more extensive follow-up of responses. 12 interviews were conducted face-to-face and a further 8 through email interview. The interviews lasted on average 30 minutes. All the interviews were recorded (with permission), transcribed, and later translated into English for analysis.

IV. Results and Discussion

A. Perceptions of Their Own Language Skills

Unlike their counterparts in ESL settings, Chinese EFL teachers face unique challenges in negotiating the conflicts and tensions in their dual identities: they are not just English teachers but also English learners themselves (Shen & Wang, 2009; Zhang, 2007). Earlier NNES studies (Lee, 2009; Allen, 2010; Sasaki, 2011) show that target language proficiency is a crucial aspect of NNES professional identity and self-esteem for NNES teachers need to attain a certain thresh hold level of proficiency in English to be able to teach effectively in it. Question 6 has nine subquestions, which were all related to language proficiency. In all the nine questions, the participants chose a scalar response from 1 to 5. The first dealt with the teachers' general proficiency, while the others referred to a particular aspect of language proficiency. Length of SA in English-speaking countries appeared to be an important factor in the self-assessment of language proficiency. Teachers who had longer SA tended to rate their level of language proficiency higher than those who had shorter SA periods. Table 2 shows statistically significant differences between the two groups in ratings of general proficiency, oral fluency, listening comprehension, reading competence, writing ability, vocabulary size and grammatical development. The difference in response suggests that a minimum period of SA may be required for non-native English speakers to gain the sense of security associated with the experience of having lived in an English-speaking country. In other words, longer periods of SA may significantly contribute to higher levels of self-confidence and help these teachers feel reassured that they are competent users of the English language.

TABLE 2:
SELF-ASSESSMENT OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY VERSUS LENGTH OF SA

	Group 1	**Group 2**
General proficiency	3.495	4.102
Pronunciation	3.465	3.967
Oral fluency	3.214	4.027
Listening comprehension	3.769	4.258
Reading comprehension	4.273	4.701
Writing	3.542	3.875
Vocabulary size	3.437	3.687
Grammatical accuracy	3.476	4.268
Knowledge of grammar rules	3.934	4.352

Note: 1=very weak; 5=very good. $p < 0.05$

The language proficiency improvement was further confirmed by the fact that the 20 participants in the enquiry provided stories about their effective activities in the interviews. Teachers who had spent longer time in UK tended to think that time abroad was of paramount importance in their language development. When asked about what activities were credited as being the most useful in their own language development, most of them (80%) mentioned the SA

experience directly or indirectly helped them most in reaching their current proficiency level. Examples of such research findings could be illustrated by the following teachers' interview.

When I was in Britain, I tried to make every opportunity to improve my English, I attended classes and lectures, I talked to different English speakers every day, to my landlady, shop assistants, making friends with speakers from different countries. I learned a lot of idiomatic expressions and culture loaded words—and this increased my confidence in my language proficiency. I think overseas study experience helped me most to reach my current level, especially in the aspect of oral fluency and listening comprehension (Teacher 4).

I have rediscovered my love for learning English. My chance to use English in a very practical setting, beyond the classroom, and dealing with the exciting challenge of only being allowed to use this language in UK for an extended period of time, has regrown my love for just speaking, listening, reading and writing in the language (Teacher 9).

I truly feel that living and learning in another country is extremely important to our personal and professional growth. It is so rewarding to be able to discuss the why with my students and to give them a deeper understanding of life in the country that they are studying. And for me, it is a renewal of why have so much passion and love for this beautiful language and culture (Teacher 15).

For these teachers, it seems that studying in UK goes beyond language proficiency—it enhances intercultural competence as well. In contrast, teachers who never went to an English-speaking country usually claimed that teaching practice as the most effective activity in reaching their current level of proficiency (Shen & Wang, 2009; Cross, 2010; Zhang, 2007).

B. Conceptions of Teaching Preferences and English Varieties

Question 11 contained five subqestions in which participants had to rate from 1 (not relevant all) to 5 (very relevant) the relevance of five aspects of their training as language teachers: university course, book readings, training sessions, teaching practice and studying abroad. The teachers valued teaching practice as the most useful activity in contributing to their personality as language teachers (χ^2=4.812). On the other end were university courses, which was poorly valued (χ^2=2.354). The second best rating was for studying abroad, which provides them with opportunities to "to use English in natural settings" (χ^2=3.617). Practice-oriented activities were the most highly valued, whereas the more theoretical activities received low scores. A regular pattern relating usefulness with practice-oriented activities can be inferred. The mean rating of the relevance of training sessions given by teachers who had spent up to 6 months abroad was 3.7, whereas those with longer stay-abroad experience gave a mean response of 3.1. An ANOVA test confirmed the significant difference between these two groups ($p < 0.05$).

As mentioned above (Wen, 2012; Zhang, 2007), Chinese EFL teachers usually rely on British English as their model for teaching. They believed that British English, in particular the standard variety with a RP is the most intelligible and to some extent the most legitimate variety. The aim of ELT should be native-like competence and, learning English from a NES teacher is better, forming the so-called "the native-teacher myth" (Shen & Wang, 2009; Freeman, 2002). However, the rising status of English as an international language has aroused considerable interest from TESOL professionals in the past 20 years. Faced with the reality that English language and its users are becoming more diverse, TESOL professionals are beginning to explore how to prepare English language learners better for their future uses of English, a future marked by a greater diversity of English forms, users, communicative goals, and speech communities than traditionally believed (Allen, 2010; Freeman, 2007; Seidhofer, 2011). As a result of these changes, English language teachers face many difficult questions on a day-to-day basis. Is it appropriate to continue to use British English or American English as the instructional model in our classes when we know that there are multiple standard varieties of English around the world? Question 12 asked teachers to choose which variety they would like their students to use. Three options were given: British English (RP); American English; and English as an International Language (EIL), even with a clearly non-native accent. Results show that only 38.5% of all the respondents preferred EIL, 56% chose British English. However of teachers who had stayed abroad for more than 6 months, more than 49.1% preferred the EIL variety, whereas 75% of teachers with shorter stays preferred national varieties, mainly British but also American English (see Table 3). It seems that staying abroad, in addition to having a beneficial effect on learners' language proficiency and positively contributing to teachers' self-confidence, incidentally give these teachers more open views on issues relating to the choice of the target language model and cultural values.

These EFL teachers asserted their authority over the language by incorporating their local identity into English and refusing to be ashamed of their nonnative accents. But when asked which variety they would follow in their teaching, they were either "not sure" or "still think British English is more natural, original and open." The following teacher's interview is a typical example.

In the future, communication will take place mainly between NNSE to NNSE, such as Chinese to Japanese; English is used more and more as a lingua franca. Everyone in the world can communicate on equal grounds. EIL has a higher potential of communication in every part of the world. As language teachers, we should not only familiar with English culture, but Chinese culture as well. In our teaching, I am not sure, maybe British English is still the standard for us to follow (Teacher 12).

Our research indicates that these EFL teachers seem to recognize the usefulness of EIL-based skills mentioned in NS-NNS communication, but are prone to taking up an NS-oriented perspective when asked specifically about language

teaching. English as an EIL is expected to be flexible enough to present Chinese cultural identity when used by the Chinese (Shen & Wang, 2009; Jenkins, 2007). Scholars such as Wen (2012) proposes a pedagogical model for the teaching of English as an international language for meeting the current challenge for English teaching in China. As stated (Shen & Wang 2009; Richards, 2008), teachers' views have direct implications for their classes and more obviously for the presentation and discussion of the cultural aspects related to the English language speech community. If we wish to empower English learners and help them overcome the native-speaker bias, we need to do the same for their teachers (Allen, 2010; Zhang, 2007). If we believe the users of English as an international language should respect and accept the linguistic and functional diversity that exists in English today, we first need to ensure that teachers who work directly with them are respectful and accepting of such diversity.

TABLE 3:
PREFERENCE FOR ENGLISH VARIETIES

	British English	American English	English as an International Language (EIL)
Group 1	66.7	8.3	25
Group 2	47.5	3.3	49.1

Note: Numbers shown are percentages. χ^2 =6.357 (degree of freedom=2, $p < 0.05$)

C. The NES-NNES Teacher Debate

Question 13 asked whether the participants would hire more NES teachers or NNES teachers, or an equal number of both, if they had the responsibility for recruiting the teaching staff for a foreign language school. A majority of participants opted for the balanced option of hiring an equal number of NES and NNES teachers. However, almost one third said that they would prefer to have more NES teachers than NNES teachers. Contrary to Medgyes' (1999) claim that "the longer a non-NEST had spent in an English-speaking country, the more he/she would favour an NEST majority", no relationship was found between the length of stay and a preference for a great number of either NES or NNES teachers in a language school. Neither did this variable have a significant effect on responses to question 15, which asked participants to agree or disagree with the idea that NNES teachers have an intrinsic advantage over NES teachers as EFL teachers.

It has been claimed (Llurda, 2004; Shen & Wang, 2009; Borg, 2006) that NNES teachers are somehow in a better position to teach a foreign language than NES teachers as the latter may not have experienced the process of learning the language in the same manner as their students. The argument stresses that NNES teachers have gone through the same difficulties and have most likely used learning strategies that would benefit their students, which places them in a better position to be more empathetic to their learners' needs and thus successfully teach the language. This idea is supported by the answers to question 15, which showed that almost two thirds of participants thought their NNES status gave them a special advantage over NES teachers. It was also further confirmed by the interview.

Nonnative teachers are more understanding as they knew what it like to learn a new language for a learner in the EFL setting. They have been through the process of learning the same language and have most likely used learning strategies that would benefit their students. They can find the topics with which the students are familiar with. These advantages place them in a better position to be more empathetic to their learners' needs and thus successfully teach the language (Teacher 11).

TABLE 4:
PREFERENCE FOR NES OR NNES TEACHERS

	NES who can speak Chinese	NES who cannot speak Chinese	NNES who can speak Chinese	NNES who cannot speak Chinese
Group 1	45.8	4.1	6.3	43.7
Group 2	80.3	1.6	3.3	14.8

Note: Numbers shown are percentages. χ^2 =8.764 (degree of freedom=2, $p < 0.05$)

On question 14 which was designed to provide support for 13, teachers were asked to say whether they would prefer being taught by an NES teacher or an NNES teacher (see Table 4). The question did not offer the choice of choosing a Chinese EFL (NNES) teacher. Instead, they were given four choices: a) an NES teacher who can speak Chinese; b) an NES teacher who cannot speak Chinese; c) an NNES teacher from a different country who can speak Chinese (e.g., French, Spanish); d) an NNES teacher from a different country who cannot speak Chinese (e.g., French, Spanish). It was thought by avoiding the easy answer (a Chinese EFL teacher), participants would be forced to choose between an NES teacher and an NNES teacher under equivalent conditions. Both groups (NES and NNES) were further subdivided: those who knew and those who did not know the students' L1. Hypothetically, the participants who had answered that NNES teachers had the advantage of having learned the L2 as a foreign language should in principle choose nonnative English speakers as their own teachers. Results show that the participants almost exclusively preferred an NES teacher. Two thirds would choose an NES teacher who knows Chinese, and nearly one third would be more inclined to have an NES who has no knowledge of Chinese. Only a very small portion 4.6% would select an NNES teacher who knows Chinese and a negligible 2.8% thought they would like to have an NNES teacher who does not know Chinese.

Considering the two groups of teacher under analysis, short SA teachers were almost evenly divided between those who preferred NES teachers who were familiar with L1 and those who would rather have NES teachers without any L1 knowledge (45.8% and 43.7% respectively). Most long SA teachers (80.3%), on the other hand, chose the NES teacher with knowledge of Chinese, a result that could be interpreted as indicative of having an open position with regard to the use of L1 in the classroom. In contrast, of the short SA teachers, only 45.8% preferred the option of having NES teachers who could not use their L1, which implies that they subscribe to the principles of exclusive use of English in the classroom.

The paradox in these results is that teachers who could make a stronger claim for the exclusive use of the L2 based on their longer SA were precisely the ones who seemed to oppose such a practice and be more open to some use of the L1. This position seems to acknowledge the advantages of being highly proficient bilingual speakers who could use the learners' L1 or the target language as required by the pedagogical situation. The tactical use of L1 and code switching should be considered as a beneficial teaching strategy, it is crucial to develop specific guidelines for the proper integration of the mother tongue in the EFL context (Medgyes, 1999; Liu, 1999; Tusi, 2007). The short stay teachers' preference for exclusive use of the target language in the classroom probably has to do with a tendency toward rather radical positions by those professionals who feel more exposed to criticism and who therefore experience higher degrees of anxiety. This tendency can also be observed in the phenomenon that NNES teachers are generally stricter than NES teachers in correcting learners' errors and assessing gravity (Widdowson, 1994; Wen, 2012).

D. Implications for Teacher Education

All this is perhaps not a phenomenon exclusively pertaining to Chinese EFL teachers with SA experience but one that characterizes many educational contexts in which English is a foreign language (Llurda, 2008; Allen, 2010; Sasaki, 2011). Based on the results of this study, I put forward the following implications: First, one desirable action for EFL teacher education programs in countries where English is a foreign language would be to give incentives for SA as part of teacher preparation or in-service training. Such SA experiences are bound to be effective in developing prospective teacher' language skills. Second, these SA programs can also offer an even more useful, although seldom acknowledged advantage, that is, developing NNES teachers' self-confidence and providing a more mature perspective on language teaching. Besides, appreciating the value of building on previous knowledge is a natural consequence of long stays in English-speaking countries. Third, these programs may contribute to NNES teachers' professional development if they help them reflect on their process of learning (Lee, 2009), including language proficiency, knowledge of cultural aspects, and pedagogical training, in such a way that makes it clear to themselves that they are perfectly capable of becoming good language teachers.

E. Limitations of the Study

Despite the consistencies in the qualitative and quantitative findings, one needs to be cautious about the interpretation of the results. First, the sample size of the questionnaire survey is rather small. Second, the interview is not free from problems. The interview study revealed the response bias and concerns inherent in a self-reporting questionnaire, a social desirability bias (Lee, 2009), such that participants tend to describe their behaviour as better than they actually are, which may affect the reliability of the data.

This study, as most do, leaves more questions unanswered and reveals areas in need of further investigation. These results touched on but did not investigate in detail how different lengths of living in English-speaking countries would facilitate EFL teachers' professional development. Another potential area for further study could focus on how teachers get better prepared to study abroad both in language proficiency and professional development. Thus, a longitudinal study investigating the effect of studying in English-speaking countries might be able to better capture the dynamic changes by SA teachers.

V. Conclusions

In this paper, we have examined a group of secondary school EFL teachers' SA experience on their professional development. The overall data obtained from this survey indicate that the length of SA is a powerful factor in determining teachers' attitudes toward their jobs and their own capacities to perform them successfully. As language teacher educators, we were encouraged to see that SA has become an important professional activity, at least among the participants in the enquiry. As has been stated (Willis & Willis 2007; Allen, 2010; Sasaki, 2011), the language component is essential in the training of nonnative-speaking language teachers. These teachers must posses a high proficiency level in order to attain an optimum level of quality in language teaching (Kang, 2012; Xu & Liu, 2009), and SA clearly can contribute to that. Another relevant finding that emerged from this study comparing teachers with short and long SA is their attitude toward EIL and their perception of the pedagogical contribution of NNES teachers who share a great deal of knowledge with their students. One might expect that NNES teachers with longer SA would feel more attached to the NES speaker model and the preference of native varieties as well as the exclusive use of English in the classroom. Instead, this study provides evidence of an unexpected advantage of staying abroad, that is, teachers with longer SA appear to develop a higher awareness of the current role of EIL and have a deeper appreciation of the enhanced possibilities offered by the use of both L1 and L2 as resources in the L2 classroom.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EFL TEACHERS WITH SA EXPERIENCES

The goal of the study is to investigate the effects of study abroad on EFL teachers' professional development. Participation is voluntary. Your responses are important as they will inform the later stages of the study. There are no right or wrong answers here. Confidentiality and anonymity are assured. What we are interested in are your views about study abroad. Thank you.

Section 1: About yourself

1. Gender: Male □ Female □
2. Age:
3. How many years have you been teaching English in primary or secondary schools?
4. Have you spent some time at an English-speaking country?
   YES □ NO □
5. Only for those who have answered YES to question 4 above, please specify the country where you spent and indicate the total amount of months.

Section 2: About your English proficiency

6. How would you qualify your level of proficiency in English? (You answer should be based on what you consider the ideal situation for an English language teacher)

	Very weak				Very good
1) General proficiency	1	2	3	4	5
2) Pronunciation	1	2	3	4	5
3) Oral fluency	1	2	3	4	5
4) Listening comprehension	1	2	3	4	5
5) Reading comprehension	1	2	3	4	5
6) Knowledge of grammar rules	1	2	3	4	5
7) Grammatical accuracy in use	1	2	3	4	5
8) Writing	1	2	3	4	5
9) Breadth of vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5

7. Some colleagues think that their English proficiency has stabilised, and can't improve any more. Do you share this feeling?
   YES □ NO □
8. Your level of proficiency in English has……since graduation from university.
   A. improved
   B. stayed unchanged/improved in some aspects and worsened in some others
   C. worsened →Why?
9. Only for those who have answered A to question 8 above, what do you think is the most effective activity for improving English? (Choose only one answer)
   A. Stays in English-speaking countries
   B. Contact with NSs of English in China
   C. Contact with NNSs of English in China
   D. Watching TV-video
   E. Reading books and magazines
   F. Keeping on studying the language
   G. Teaching practice
10. Besides possible long stays in an English-speaking country, what other activity has helped you more in reaching your current proficiency level? Choose only one option:
   A. Interacting with NSs of English
   B. Watching TV and films in English
   C. Reading books and magazines in English
   D. Consciously study the language
   E. Others. Specify.

Section 3: About English teaching ideology

11. How have you learned to teach English? What have been the most relevant elements in the making of your personality as a teacher? Classify from 1 to 5 the following questions (1-not relevant at all; 5-very relevant):

A. Courses taken in your university studies	1	2	3	4	5
B. Reading of language teaching methodology books (If you answered 4 or 5, mention one particular title:……..)	1	2	3	4	5
C. Training sessions	1	2	3	4	5
D. Teaching practice	1	2	3	4	5
E. Studying abroad	1	2	3	4	5

12. What English variety would you like your students to use?
   A. British English (RP)

B. American English

C. I would like them to be able to speak English efficiently for international communication, even though they speak with a Chinese accent, and they use a mixture of elements from British and American English

Section 4: About NES-NNES teacher debate

13. If you were the director of a language school and were responsible for hiring teachers, what would your prefer?

A. To hire more NSs than NNSs

B. To hire as many NSs as NNSs

C. To hire more NNSs than NSs

□ Explain your preference:

14. If you had to take English classes, what teacher would you prefer to have?

A. A NNS from a different country (e.g. German, Japan, …) who can speak Chinese

B. A NNS from a different country (e.g. German, Japan, …) who cannot speak Chinese

C. A NS of English who can speak Chinese

D. A NS of English who cannot speak Chinese

15. Do you think that having learned English as a foreign language provides you with a special advantage to teach EFL over NSs, as NSs have not gone through the process of learning the language in adulthood?

YES □ NO □

Section 5: Further participation

16. In the next stage of the study we would like to talk to individual teachers to learn more about their views on staying/studying abroad. Would you be interested in discussing this issue further with us?

YES □ NO □

17. If you answered YES to question 16 above, please write your name and email address here so that we can arrange an interview for you at your convenience.

Name:

Email:

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported in part by a grant from Social Sciences Research Programs of Shandong province (No. 13CWJ25).

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 80-87, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.80-87

The Mismatch between Non-native English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Teachers' Grammar Beliefs and Classroom Practices

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***Abstract*—Teachers' beliefs affect their classroom practices, whether these beliefs are implicit or explicit (Williams & Burden, 1997). However, there may be discrepancies between what teachers believe and practice. The purpose of this study was to investigate the mismatches between language instructors' beliefs and practices regarding grammar teaching. The participants were non-native instructors of English as a foreign language (EFL). A 12-item qualitative questionnaire was used for the data collection. Classroom observations were also conducted to observe how grammar was taught in the classroom. The data were analyzed in abductive and iterative manner (Dörnyei, 2007). There were three main findings to the study: 1) Many of the teachers believed that communicative language teaching method (CLT) would be the best method to teach grammar. 2) The teachers who favored CLT did not make use of it in their classrooms and many used grammar translation method (GTM). 3) Finally, the washback effect (Taylor, 2005) widely influenced teachers' way of grammar teaching. This study makes a contribution to the TEFL field by revealing the mismatches between teachers' beliefs on what would be the most beneficial for student learning when teaching grammar and the classroom practice realities.**

***Index Terms*—English as a foreign language, teacher beliefs, classroom practices, non-native EFL teachers**

I. Introduction

Teaching of grammar is an essential part of language pedagogy, which is also a controversial issue. With such controversies, language teachers also have distinctive views on grammar teaching. Joyce & Burns (1999) suggested that teacher' beliefs of what grammar is influences the way they teach grammar in the classroom. Teachers' decisions are mostly dependent upon their beliefs, attitudes, and theories that they have acquired (Burns, 1996). These are part of what is considered teacher cognition (Borg, 2003). Borg (1999) describes teacher cognitions as consisting of "a set of personally defined practically oriented understanding of teaching and learning which exert significant influence on instructional decisions" (p. 22).

The study of teachers' beliefs has been a major area of study in language teaching. One of the strands in this area is looking at the relationship between teachers' beliefs and their actual practices and how they overlap or not (Karavas-Doukas, 1995). In this article, we describe the inconsistencies or mismatches between teachers' cognition and their classroom practices in teaching grammar.

II. Literature Review

A. Teachers' Beliefs

Borg (2003) states: "teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex practically-oriented, personalized, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs" (p. 81). According to Freeman (2002), mental lives of teachers have critical significance in shaping effective teaching and learning process. Therefore, it is crucial to find out teachers' beliefs as they can be reflected in the classrooms. Kagan (1992) defines teachers' beliefs as "tacit, often unconsciously held assumptions about students, classrooms and the academic material to be taught" (p. 65). However, Johnson (1994) maintained that teacher beliefs are not easy to delineate and study since they are not directly measurable. Pajares also (1992) stated that it is not easy to empirically investigate beliefs.

Johnson (1994, p. 439) outlines three assumptions regarding teachers' beliefs: (1) Teachers' beliefs affect perception and judgment. (2) Teachers' beliefs are reflected in classroom practices. (3) There is a need to understand teachers' beliefs with a view to improving teaching practices and teacher education programs.

Richards & Lockhart (1994) expressed that beliefs are built up over time. They argue that beliefs include both subjective and objective dimensions, and they play roles as bases for teachers' decisions and classroom practices. The

composition of teachers' beliefs is neither uniform nor simple, and beliefs appear to be interwoven and have many facets (Mohamed, 2006). Teachers' beliefs about what learning is will affect everything they do in the classroom, whether these beliefs are implicit or explicit (Williams & Burden, 1997). The National Institute of Education in the United States realized in 1975 the importance of such field of research by stating that what teachers think and believe influence what they do in the classroom. Fenstermacher (1979) also predicted that teachers' beliefs would be a prominent research field nearly three decades ago. However, given the available research studies about teachers' beliefs and their classroom practices in Turkey, it is of utmost importance to conduct such a study with a view to understand the possible mismatches between beliefs and practices.

B. Teachers' Cognition and Grammar Teaching

Teacher cognition is defined as "what teachers know, believe, and think" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). Borg (2003) characterizes the importance of social and instructional contexts in the study of teacher cognition. Looking at teacher cognition provides an insight into how teachers make instructional decisions. Among many of the teacher cognition studies, teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching have been a crucial domain of research (Borg, 2006). Considering the important role of grammar in second language acquisition, teachers' beliefs and practices about grammar cannot be ignored. As Borg and Burns (2008) expressed: "No area of second and foreign (L2) language learning has been the subject of as much empirical and practical interest as grammar teaching" (p.1).

Major questions that arise around the issue of grammar teaching are whether grammar should be taught deductively or inductively, whether to teach it as a separate skill or integrated or whether the knowledge of grammar supports language learning (Nishimuro & Borg, 2013). It has been found that instructional practices that teachers apply when teaching grammar may be influenced by different cognitive and contextual factors. Some of the variables that may effect teachers' beliefs are work environment, personal characteristics of teachers such as age, gender and educational background (Moini, 2009).

Research studies in different settings have been conducted to reveal what teachers' beliefs and practices are regarding grammar teaching. Richards, Galloo, and Renandya (2001) investigated the beliefs of English teachers about grammar. They found that communicative approach and direct grammar teaching were favored by the teachers and that the students were aware of the value of grammar and expected it to be taught. Borg (2001) found that both the teachers' knowledge of grammar as well as how confident they are about that knowledge influenced their teaching. Andrews (2007) found that teachers' knowledge about grammar makes a difference in the instructional decisions they make when teaching it. Borg and Burns (2008) found in their sample of international teachers that grammar should not be taught separately.

Schulz's cross-cultural study (2001) found that Colombian teachers and US teachers differed in their beliefs regarding the effectiveness of explicit grammar teaching and corrective feedback. Schulz (2001) concludes that the differences in beliefs can be due to the teachers' previous learning experiences. Mohamed's (2006) study revealed that the dominant belief of the 197 teachers who participated in the study was that grammar instruction is a crucial component of the language classroom and grammar was primarily seen as rules of the language. Teachers were unfamiliar with inductive approaches to grammar instruction and they wanted their students to produce error-free sentences. Another study by Eisenstein-Ebsworth and Schweers (1997) found that Puerto Rican teachers were in favor of teaching grammar explicitly.

Chia (2003) examined the beliefs of primary teacher in Singapore and revealed that formal instruction of grammar was favored by teachers. The similar findings were drawn out from Burgess and Etherington's (2002) study. Overall, the participants stated that formal teaching contributes to the learners' proficiency. Altunbasak (2010) also found that the majority of the participant teachers believed that formal grammar teaching has a place in language learning.

These findings may be the general consensus among language teachers, and yet their approach to grammar is shaped not only by their beliefs about language learning, but also by their students and contextual circumstances (Farrell & Lim, 2005). In looking at these studies, although it is important to know the teachers' beliefs about how grammar should be taught (Basturkmen, Loewen, & Ellis, 2004), it is of utmost importance to know how these beliefs are practiced in classroom settings. (Pahissa & Tragant, 2009).

C. The Match/Mismatch between Teachers' Beliefs and Practices

Teachers' cognitions and their actual practices in the classroom are two main domains of teaching process (Clark & Peterson, 1986). However, teachers may not apply what they believe in the classroom. As Fang (1996) noted, mismatches between beliefs and practices can arise from different psychological, social and environmental factors that prevent teachers from applying their own personal beliefs in their instructional decision-making. Another explanation for such mismatches may be what Schulz (2001) defines as the "perturbing differences" (p.348) which refers to learners and teachers' different views regarding how second languages should be learned.

Johnson' study (1994) indicated that teachers adopted a teacher-centered approach to "maintain the flow of instruction and to retain authority in the classroom" (p. 449) although they favored student-centered approach. Richards (1994) stated that "the need to follow a prescribed curriculum, lack of suitable resources, and the students' ability levels" (p. 387) can prevent teachers from acting based on their beliefs.

Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004) revealed that teachers' espoused beliefs are not necessarily reflected in

classrooms, especially as they respond to unanticipated events in a lesson. Baleghizadeh and Farshchi (2012) found that formal instruction, the use of grammatical terminology, and explicit grammar teaching are valued by EFL teachers although the majority of the respondents believed in inductive, implicit, problem solving activities, and presentation through authentic texts. This finding reveals the discrepancy between what they believe theoretically and what they do in the classroom due to some factors. In their study, Phipps and Borg (2009) investigated mismatches in the grammar teaching beliefs and practices of the teachers. They found that there were some cases that teachers practiced contrary to their beliefs. The factors that caused teachers to practice in ways that were not congruent with their beliefs were mainly learner expectations and preferences, and classroom management concerns. Altunbasak (2010) revealed some mismatches between teachers' espoused beliefs for grammar activities and their actual practices in teaching.

III. Significance of the Study

English is learnt by more non-native speakers as a second language than native speakers (Canagarajah, 2005). As there are also more EFL learners than ESL learners (Andrews, 2007), the research studies about teachers' beliefs and practices in the literature are not accurate representative of a variety of language teaching settings around the world. Besides, the majority of the research studies on teachers' beliefs focused only on self-reports through questionnaires and interviews, with only a few studies examining if teachers put into practice their beliefs in the classroom (Mohamed, 2006). Given the continuing prominence of grammar teaching in the field of language acquisition, qualitative research in this context is essential in providing a deeper understanding of what teachers' beliefs are and how they are mediated in classroom contexts. The study we report here responds to this need. This study aims to reveal both self-reported teachers' beliefs and their practices in grammar teaching in the classroom contexts.

IV. Methodology

Informed by the literature noted above, the following research questions were asked:

1) What are the teachers' beliefs regarding grammar teaching in an English preparatory school at a university?
2) What are the teachers' grammar teaching practices in grammar classes?
3) What are the mismatches between teachers' espoused beliefs and actual practices regarding grammar teaching?

A. Setting

The context for this study was a private university's English preparatory program, where every student entering the university had to spend a semester to a year depending on his or her proficiency. The courses were taught as separate skills and there were four levels and four skills that were taught.

B. Participants

The participants for this study were sixty Turkish instructors who teach EFL in the preparation program at a School of Foreign Languages. Out of the total 110 instructors sixty decided to participate in this study. The participants were chosen based on convenience and access. Participants generally differed in terms of the universities they graduated, and their teaching experiences. Their majors ranged from English Language Teaching to Translation and English Language and Literature.

C. Data Collection

This study employed a qualitative methodology, which was appropriate given our goal of understanding beliefs and practices of teachers in depth. The researchers first distributed an open-ended questionnaire in person to the participants, and they were given a day to either complete the questionnaire after work hours or at home. The response rate was good as sixty out of the 110 instructors returned their questionnaires. In order to complement the responses given on the questionnaire, the researchers also conducted classroom observations in those teachers' grammar skill classes. Out of the ten grammar classes, seven were observed. Field notes, audio-recordings of the class sessions were also taken.

D. The Instrument

The instrument that was used for collecting the data included 12 open-ended questions. The questionnaire was developed by the researchers on the basis of the research questions and existing literature on teachers' beliefs about grammar. In order to assess the validity and reliability of the instrument, the questionnaire was piloted with twenty participants and revisions were made based on the responses. Teachers' beliefs were divided into different categories: a) definition of grammar b) importance of grammar c) approach to teaching grammar d) feedback and error correction e) practices used in teaching grammar.

E. Data Analysis

Data were analyzed by the researchers in an iterative manner (Dörnyei, 2007). Calderhead (1996) proposed five domains of teachers' beliefs that can be analyzed: *beliefs about learners and learning, beliefs about teaching, beliefs about subject, beliefs about self and the teaching role, and beliefs about learning to teach.* The first four categories were used to analyze the findings. As Ellis (2006) suggested from his study of grammar teaching, we also created sub-

categories for the analyses of teachers' beliefs and practices such as inductive/deductive teaching, the use of native/target language, method of teaching, and error correction.

V. Findings

The analyses of the teachers' beliefs and their actual practices indicated that the beliefs and practices were generally aligned but there was a mismatch between what they believed and what they practiced. In the section presented below, we discuss the various themes that arose as a result of our analyses.

A. Beliefs about Language Learners

The participant teachers tend to think that language learners value grammar and they think that it needs to be taught in general. According to the teachers, one of the major reasons is that learners are educated in a system that values grammar. As learners' language proficiency is measured with tests that include grammar questions, teachers think that students feel obliged to learn grammar in order to prove their language proficiency. It was also stated that the value given to grammar by teachers influence students' views on grammar. One participant teacher (T8) emphasizes the impact of teachers' approach to grammar on students by stating: "*The more importance we give to grammar, the more attention students will pay to it".*

Some participants stated that learners perceive grammar as an amalgamation of rules that need to be learnt. Therefore, they expect to be given ready-made rules by the teacher. One of the participants (T14) expressed that students are highly motivated to learn grammar, as they think that knowing grammar will assist them to pass the exams. She stated: "*Students are extrinsically motivated because grammar part is %40 percent of the total exam."* On the other hand, few teachers believed that their students think that grammar is unnecessary and emphasis on grammar prevents them from using the language in communicative ways.

B. Teachers' Beliefs about Themselves and Their Roles

a. Teachers' Beliefs about the Place of Grammar in Language Teaching

Nearly half of the participants believed that grammar is crucial in language learning and teaching. One of the participants (T4) stated: "*It is very important because without grammar it could be impossible to construct the building".* Others consider grammar as not a must, but a tool in language learning. A participant gives references from Krashen's acquisition hypothesis (1982) to deemphasize the role of grammar. One participant (T11) maintained that 'zero grammar' approach should be adopted and the focus should be on productive skills.

b. Error Correction

Most of the participants believed that there is no need to correct the students if they manage to convey their message across despite grammatical mistakes in their speech. The accuracy should be subordinated to fluency, and the first objective should be to convey message according to the majority, especially at early levels. One teacher (T1) made a difference between errors and mistakes. She stated: *Errors, rather than mistakes should be corrected.* Some participants emphasize the significance of the mistakes as they show the progress in students' interlanguage. However, the participants added that the frequent mistakes should be corrected in order to prevent fossilization process.

On the other hand, the classroom observations revealed that teachers generally corrected students' grammatical mistakes although students generally managed to convey their message across. Some of the teachers even corrected mistakes regarding grammar topics that students had not yet studied. For instance, a student formed an incorrect sentence in a passive structure and the teacher (O1) immediately corrected the mistake although they had not yet studied the passive. It was also observed that some students were afraid of making mistakes and their affective filter was high, as their mistakes were to be corrected by the teacher.

C. Teachers' Beliefs about Language Teaching

a. Beliefs towards Teaching Methodology

The findings indicate that almost all participants stated that they were taught English through mostly GTM. However, teachers do not generally adopt language-teaching methods with which they were taught. The majority of the participants stated that they mainly make use of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in their grammar lessons. Few participant teachers believed in the effectiveness of Grammar Translation Method (GTM). A few participants were in favor of using Eclectic Approach to teaching grammar. They thought that different techniques from a variety of the methods should be benefitted depending on the teaching context. One of the participant teachers (T5) expressed: "*I use a variety of methods ranging from GT to CLT by considering the level of the students, grammar items being taught, and the objectives of the course."*

It has been drawn out from the classroom observations that although the majority of the participants maintained that they make use of CLT in the classroom, the observed methodology by the researchers was mainly GTM. There were mechanical drills and exercises reinforced with translations to students' native language. This was a clear mismatch from the teachers' reported beliefs and their actual classroom practices when teaching grammar.

The participants were also asked to list some techniques that they could use to teach grammar. The majority of them stated that communicative activities that engage students should be used in the grammar lessons. However, the

classroom observations revealed that the most frequently used techniques were teacher-led question-and-answer and translation from the target language to L1 rather than communicative activities.

b. Deductive vs. Inductive Instruction

The majority of the participants believed that both inductive and deductive instruction should be used in grammar classes depending on the circumstances. They stated that some learners benefit from inferring the rules while others learn better if they are provided with presentation of the rules and then examples. However, the classroom observations revealed that the majority of the participants taught grammar only deductively as opposed to their espoused beliefs of integrating both deductive and inductive instruction into the lesson. Few teachers were observed to be using both deductive and inductive instruction in their grammar lessons.

c. The use of native language

The majority of the participants believed in the effectiveness of benefitting from students' native language (L1) at early levels, but they added that the use of L1 should be reduced at advanced levels. Some participants thought that use of L1 saves time, increases students' motivation, and reduces the ambiguity.

The classroom observations that were conducted at upper-intermediate and advanced levels indicated that the majority of the language teachers mostly used English and sometimes benefitted from L1 to clarify the students' misunderstanding. For example, a participant teacher (O2) compared L1 and L2 in students' native language to assist students comprehend the structure. On the other hand, a teacher used just students' L1 when teaching the target language although students were advanced. The interesting point was that the most active participation to the lesson by students were in this class.

d. The contextual teaching of grammar

The participants expressed that grammar should be taught contextually rather than in a mechanical way as a separate skill. Most of them were in favor of teaching grammar contextually with the integration of the grammar with other skills of the language. However, the classroom observations showed that the lessons were mostly based on a mechanical presentation of the grammar with a focus on the drill and exercises.

e. The factors that teachers consider in grammar teaching

The participants stated that the context, students' profiles, course objectives, curriculum, content, and available materials are among the determining factors that affect their grammar teaching process. They expressed that they plan their lessons by considering these crucial factors. The most frequently referred factor was students. The participants thought that students' needs, interests, and motives should be carefully determined in order to provide an effective lesson. One of the participants (T3) wrote: *I consider students' background knowledge, their interests, and even their moods in grammar teaching.* However, during the classroom observations there did not seem to be a differentiation based on students' individual needs.

VI. Discussion

Given the findings of the study, this study reveals that the beliefs of non-native language teachers were not always aligned with their actual practices in teaching grammar.

The majority of the participant teachers are of the opinion that their learners are motivated to learn grammar. One reason why teachers think that their students value grammar may be 'washback effect' that can be defined as the influence of tests on teaching and learning process (Alderson & Wall, 1993). The participant teachers stated that as exams that measure students' language proficiency include grammar questions, students believe that learning grammar will help them to pass the exams and be proficient in the target language. On the other hand, some teachers expressed that they believe that their students are not motivated to learn grammar. They think that their students demand that the lessons be focused on productive skills such as speaking rather than grammar, as speaking the target language fluently will assist them to increase the likelihood of their promotion in business life. These students that consider English as a tool to achieve their objectives have mostly instrumental motivation (Gardner & Lambert, 1982).

Error correction is a controversial issue as there is no conclusive result in the literature (Russell & Spada, 2006). As Krashen (1982) stated, a low affective filter is necessary to acquire a language. Therefore, creating a friendly atmosphere in the classroom is important to provide effective error correction feedbacks. Most of the participants in the study are of the opinion that focusing on the grammatical mistakes in a communicative activity can demotivate students.

Teachers should be selective in error correction, as errors indicate the gaps in a learner's interlanguage while mistakes show lapses in performance (Ellis, 2006). However, classroom observations revealed that their beliefs about corrective feedback did not match with their classroom practices. Teachers in the classroom corrected almost every mistake, both minor and major ones. 'Observer effect', the influence of the observation on the phenomenon being observed (Cresswell, 2009), can be a partial explanation of the mismatch between beliefs and practices. The participant teachers may have corrected all the mistakes in order not to give the researcher the impression of lack of content knowledge. In a study by Ngo and Farrell (2003), although teachers believed in the effectiveness of elicitation technique, they used explicit correction rather than elicitation as the latter demands time and is not practical according to teachers.

The place of grammar in language education is open to debate. Long and Robinson (1998) outlines three options in language teaching (i.e. focus on forms, focus on form, and focus on meaning). The option, 'focus on forms', refers to

'accumulated entities' view of Rutherford (1987, p.4), which emphasizes the discrete items of language. The interface hypothesis by Ellis (2006) suggests that explicit knowledge can turn into implicit knowledge if leaners find opportunities to practice the target language in communicative activities. Therefore, participants who teach grammar explicitly should also give importance to communicative practices. A teacher that appraises the grammar as a critical component is likely to give much importance to grammar teaching and adopt focus on forms options in language teaching. Given the findings of the study, half of the participants are in favor of 'focus on forms' options and they consider grammar as a crucial component of language that needs to be taught explicitly.

Some participants are of the opinion that grammar is a tool to be proficient in the target language. These participants may adopt focus-on-form option to language teaching. 'Focus on form', is defined by Long (1991, p. 45) as a teaching option that "overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication".

A participant who was in favor of '*zero grammar*' is likely to prioritize 'focus on meaning' in language teaching (Ellis, 2006). 'Focus on meaning' is called 'non-interventionist' by Long and Robinson (1998, p.18). It does not emphasize grammar teaching and allows learners to naturally build their own interlanguage (Andrews, 2007).

The majority of the participants stated that they mostly make use of CLT to teach grammar while some use GTM and Eclectic Approach. The findings indicate that although nearly all participants were taught English through GTM, they stated that CLT is the most frequently used method by them. It can be inferred that previous learning experiences can affect a teacher's way of teaching. Richards and Lockhart (1996) also found that teachers' experience as language learners were among the main sources that shaped teachers' beliefs. However, previous experiences are not the only determining factors that shape how a teacher delivers the lesson. Regarding classroom observations, the classroom observations revealed that the teachers mainly taught English through GTM as opposed to the their statements that they use CLT in their grammar lessons, which is another mismatch between cognition and practice.

The participant teachers stated that they integrate both inductive and deductive teaching into their grammar lessons, but the observations showed that the grammar was mainly taught deductively as opposed to their espoused beliefs of integrating both deductive and inductive instruction into the lesson. Nagata (1997) states that the level of complexity of the rules, the degree of recognizability of the rules, and the clarity of the rules should be considered by teachers when teaching deductively or inductively.

The teachers in the study believe in the effectiveness of using students' L1 when teaching grammar. These views are in parallel with the findings of Atkinson (1987), Schweers (1999), and Tang (2002) who found that judicious use of L1 is a valuable resource. However, the participant teachers add that the amount of L1 should be reduced as learners move into the next language levels. They state that using L1 saves time, increases motivation, and reduces the ambiguities. The observed teachers generally reflected their espoused beliefs into the classroom. They sometimes benefitted from L1 in order to maintain the flow of the lesson. On the other hand, one teacher mostly taught grammar in students' native language, and the most active participation and the most motivated learners were observed to be in this class. This may be because students did not face any ambiguities that can challenge them to understand the lesson.

The majority of the participant teachers were in favor of teaching grammar in a context rather than in isolation. Nunan (1989) states that language learners should be provided with the opportunity of comprehending relationships between the form, meaning, and use. He also adds that grammar and context are so connected that suitable grammatical choices can only be achieved in relation to context. Therefore, grammar should be presented by integrating it into an appropriate context. However, the classroom observations indicated that grammar was generally taught in isolation rather than contextually. This may be due to students' expectations, time limit and catching up with the curriculum, or washback effect. The findings of this study are parallel with the study of Phipps and Borg (2009). They also found that expository approach to grammar was common in the classrooms although teachers' stated beliefs were that grammar should be presented in a context.

In this study, it was found that the mismatches were generally due to some major reasons such as students' profiles, course objectives, curriculum, content, and available materials, and setting. In a similar study, Phipps and Borg (2009) suggested that the factors that caused teachers to practice in ways that were not congruent with their beliefs were mainly learner expectations and preferences, and classroom management concerns.

VII. Implications

According to the findings of this study, some general implications can be offered for a better teaching and learning process. Johnson (1994) suggests that teachers' beliefs should be understood in order to make teaching practices and teacher training services better. As Phipps and Borg (2009) also stated, investigating the underlying inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices can assist teacher trainers to understand effective teaching. Therefore, beliefs should be deeply investigated, as they are among the major factors that influence education process. Borg (2001) found out that self-perceptions of teachers' knowledge about language (KAL) had an impact on their pedagogical decisions. Therefore, teachers should be provided with in-service education in order to inform them of the latest trends in language teaching and to reactivate their background pedagogic content knowledge. In addition, due to washback effect, students' oral language proficiency should be also measured and evaluated in grading students. As the examinations and testing influence the education process, the grading criteria should be changed in parallel with the linguistic objectives. Both

pre-service and in-service teachers should make self-observations and reflect on their practices in order to raise awareness regarding their cognitions.

VIII. Conclusion

The current study makes a contribution to the field as its methodology offers a more-in-depth understanding of what the reported beliefs are and the actual practices that may or may not match with the beliefs. The studies that include more qualitative methods on exploring teachers' beliefs and actual practices offer an understanding of the complex relationship between these phenomena. While this understanding is helpful for researchers, it is also a way that instructors themselves are encouraged to explore their beliefs and reconsider their current practices.

Considering that this study is one of the few studies that offer a qualitative understanding of teachers' beliefs and actual practices, it also has some limitations that should be recognized. First, this study did not involve participants from different contexts and the findings may not be a representative of other contexts. It is important to further this study involving other schools both state and private in Turkey. Second, this study was limited in observation of actual practices and it may be helpful to consider a longitudinal observation of classroom practices in order to offer an in-depth explanation of the relationship between beliefs and practices of teachers. This study can also be complimented with students' beliefs of grammar teaching, which we hope to accomplish in future studies.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 88-94, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.88-94

Controversies on Language Effects on Bilingual Lexical-conceptual Linking Patterns in Chinese EFL Learners' Mental Lexicon*

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***Abstract*—Researches on lexical knowledge basically focus on the acquisition of the deep lexical knowledge. The lexical-conceptual organization of Chinese EFL learners' mental lexicon has been a most researched issue. This paper is to review the existing literature in this field and propose the controversies on the language effects on the lexical linking patterns of the learners, which are hopefully clues of further studies.**

***Index Terms*—controversies, language effects, linking patterns, Chinese EFL learners**

I. Introduction

Lexical knowledge is a meaningful indicator of reading skills, and plays an essential role in the second language acquisition. Researches on lexical knowledge basically focus on the acquisition of the deep lexical knowledge, and the researches in this field have been changed radically for the recent fifty years, whose focus has moved from the increase of vocabulary size to the organization features of mental lexical network, and from multidimensional decomposition of a word to the exploration of lexical representation and processing with research methods employed mainly in the other disciplines. Of all the research topics on mental lexicon, the relationship between the two languages has been a heated one. How L1 words are linked to L2 and how L2 words are linked to L1 are two most studied questions. Literature review showed that L2 words are linked to L1 in a different way from the opposite direction, which was termed as language effects.

II. L2-L1 Links and L1-L2 Links

Whether or not the L2 learners had L2 conceptual representations determined the way in which L2 words linked to L1 words. And whether there was L1 translation equivalents activation during L2 reading determined the way in which L1 words linked to L2 words. So the linking patterns were studied along the two lines.

A. Establishment of L2 Conceptual Representation

Two major study paradigms were used for the L2 semantic representation status, they were cross-language priming studies and translation (recognition) studies. Findings in these aspects would be of extreme value for determining the L2-L1 links.

a. Priming patterns

Priming studies found language processing patterns could be dependent on and varied with the target language, which was termed as the asymmetry. Of course, if the processing pattern did not vary with the target language, it was termed as symmetry.

The earliest disagreement of bilingual mental lexical research was the inconsistent perspectives about the shared vs. separate lexicon of the two languages. Those who were in favor of separate mental lexicon claimed that the L2 lexicon was newly established which was different and separated from the L1 lexical representation. In particular, if there was strict separation and difference between environments in which the two languages were acquired and used, the L1 and L2 lexical representations were distinct from each other (Weinreich, 1953). There was some supporting evidence from early work for this assumption (Gekoski, 1980). It was found that French-English bilingual participants who were exposed to their second language in a different context from L1 rated translation equivalents (e.g. église and church) differently, while those who learned and used both L1 and L2 in identical contexts rated translation equivalents similarly in a semantic differential task . That is, the former supposed "église" and "church" having different meanings, while the latter reported "église" and "church" having similar meanings. These results showed the great impact that different learning contexts had on the establishment of conceptual knowledge, but were not sufficient to claim that the two lexical representations were totally distinct from each other.

* This research was supported by Jiangsu Education Bureau (No.2012SJD740035), China Scholarship Council (No.201206095002),China National Social Sciences Fund (No.13BYY153), China Education Ministry (No. 12YJC740033), and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities(No.SKCX20130042).

With new psychological experiment paradigms coming out, priming for instance, this question would be no longer a question. Till now, bilinguals having one shared concept was no more a question, but "in what way the newly coming language co-inhabit with the old one" in the single lexicon had been a question. Two major and basic concerns in bilingual lexical researches nowadays focused on two relations: the lexical or formal relation between the two languages and relations between the concept and the two languages respectively, i.e. the hierarchical relation of the lexicon, or organizations of the form layer (phonological and orthographic) and the meaning layer.

The experimental paradigm of priming had been one of the most commonly used techniques to explore the structure of the mental lexicon in monolingual, an area that continued to be one of the most widely studied in the domain of cognitive psychology. Because the priming paradigm proved to be an extremely informative experimental technique, it was not surprising that it had been expanded to examine bilingual memory representation by using cross-language stimuli. Cross-language priming was an ideal paradigm, very frequently used to explore bilingual representation. In a cross-language priming research, a target word was preceded with a prime word in another language. If these two words were translation equivalents or meaning related, RT of lexical decision of the target word would be shorter than those not. The shorter RT was, the more robust the priming effect was. In the case of translation equivalents, this behavior phenomenon was called translation priming effect; while in the case of meaning relatedness, it was cross-language semantic priming effect. The rationale of priming studies was that translation equivalents usually had different orthographic forms , but shared the same/similar meanings. The semantically related words within a language, such as doctor-nurse, shared similar properties: different orthographic forms but related to each other in meaning. That is, like English speakers who responded to "nurse" faster if it was preceded by "doctor" compared with "table-nurse", bilinguals responded to the target item significantly faster if it was preceded by its translation equivalent. Above all, priming occurred as a result of both the prime and target accessing the same or similar conceptual/semantic representations. For example, participants in a cross-language priming experiment could be presented with the prime word “cat” followed by the target word “狗”, the Chinese translation of dog. Word stimuli could also be created so that the prime and the target words appeared in the opposite language direction, such as 猫–dog (猫being the Chinese translation of cat). This allowed one to measure priming effects in the L1–L2 or the L2–L1 direction. Translation (or repetition) priming could also be examined by presenting a prime word followed by its translation in the opposing language. Thus, word pairs can appear as either 猫–cat or cat–猫.

Nearly one dozen of these studies have used the semantic priming paradigm with cross-language stimuli (e.g., Chen & Ng, 1989; de Groot & Nas, 1991; Frenck & Pynte, 1987; Grainger et al., 1989) . They believed significant semantic priming could be found across languages. These studies found that bilinguals produced cross-language semantic priming effects that resemble within-language semantic priming effects (e.g. doctor-nurse). Nearly one dozen found cross-language priming by using the translation-priming paradigm (e.g., Altarriba, 1992). Therefore, these two types of priming researches both concluded that the two languages were represented in shared lexicon instead of separated. Since priming occurred as a result of both the prime and target accessing the same or similar conceptual representations, this effect could be regarded as to argue against the distinct representation hypothesis because two totally distinct mental representations would not lead to semantic priming. More importantly, this effect seemingly confirmed the conceptual interconnection between the languages.

With the emergence of priming design, the existence of conceptual link between the two languages has no longer been a question. However, despite the agreement on the existence of cross-language priming and conceptual interconnection, there were controversies in overall priming patterns, which was mainly on the existence of L2-L1 priming effect. On the one hand, there was much psycholinguistic evidence showing priming in two directions, and smaller priming magnitude from L2 to L1 than from L1 to L2 (e.g.,Kroll & Curley, 1988; Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Sholl et al, 1995). That is, RT of lexical decision or categorization of L1-L2 was shorter than L2-L1. This occurred because presentation of a word in the L1 would activate more conceptual information and, thus allow a greater amount of conceptual activation to spread to the L2. While L2 conceptual representation was not established or less well established, inadequate to spread the activation to L1. To put it simply, according to these studies, the cross-language priming pattern could be described as two asymmetries. First, L1 was more strongly associated with the concept than L2 , therefore, showed stronger priming effect for concept access. Second, the asymmetry in priming direction. That is , priming effect was stronger from L1 to L2 than from L2 to L1 . Let’s take a study for example, Dufour & Kroll (1995) used categorization paradigm (the participants decided whether the target word could be categorized into the category name previously presented, e.g. vegetable-cabbage) to investigate the relations between lexical and conceptual connections in bilingual memory of fluent and less fluent English-French participants. They reported L2-L1 categorization was about 100ms faster than the opposite direction, with mean RT of French-English (L2-L1) 788 (msec) and mean RT of English-French (L1-L2) 881 (msec) in fluent participants. And their accuracy were 0.9 and 0.8 respectively. While in less fluent participants, L2-L1 categorization was about 80 ms faster than L1-L2, RTs being 958 ms and 1041 ms , and accuracy rates were 0.86 and 0.68 respectively. This study showed asymmetry in RT and accuracy in two directions in participants of varied proficiency. We could make a tentative hypothesis that representation asymmetry was universal in EFL learners.

Francis and Gallard (2005) designed a more complicated experiment that also showed the universality of asymmetry of L2 learners. They asked 48 English–Spanish–French trilinguals to perform a translation task, who translated in six

directions at study and two directions at test. Translation response times and error rates at the study reflected the relative proficiency of the subjects in comprehension and production of their three languages. At test, repeated items were translated more quickly than new items, with the strongest priming effects occurring for identical repetitions. Repetition priming was also substantial when only the stimulus language or only the response language matched from study to test, which indicated that repeated comprehension and production processes contribute to priming in translation. RT patterns and repetition priming indicated that translation in all directions involved conceptual access. Additive asymmetric patterns in response time and repetition priming were consistent with the treatment of word comprehension and production processes of translation as independent.

Unlike the asymmetry claim about cross-language priming, a great number of studies claimed the absence of the priming effect from L2 to L1 in the learners (e.g. Altarriba, 1992; Finkbeiner et al., 2004; Gollan et al.,1997, Jiang, 1999). Finkbeiner et al. (2004) even hypothesized that translation priming was typically not supposed to emerge from L2 to L1 because L2 words only shared a small subset of the senses of their L1 translation equivalents. Silverberg and Samuel (2004) further demonstrated that the age of acquisition (AOA) of the L2 appeared to to be an influential factor on cross-language semantic priming, with only early and proficient bilinguals producing reliable L2-L1 priming (L1 to L2 priming was not tested). Similarly, Kotz and Elston-Güttler (2004) indicated that proficiency in the L2 determined the type of semantic relations to which bilinguals were sensitive, with greater constraints for semantic category relations than for associations. Based on the evidence from these researches, L1 and L2 presumably differed not only quantitatively but also qualitatively in terms of the type of information that was accessed and the type of representation that was formed for the L2. There would be L2-L1 priming if the two languages are qualitatively the same, just like the mechanisms of within-language priming effect. Furthermore, L2-L1 priming seems to be an indicator of establishment status of L2 conceptual representation, which somewhat supports the "asymmetry view".

However, Basnight-Brown and Altarriba's (2007) findings were unlike either of the above two versions. They reported translation priming in both directions at the same magnitudes of facilitation. Significant translation-priming effects of 37 and 48 msec were obtained for English targets and for Spanish targets, respectively. The differences between the two magnitudes of facilitation were not significant. More interestingly, Kiran & Lebel (2007) recruited Spanish-English more balanced (MB) and less balanced (LB) bilinguals for the priming research. They reported semantic priming was observed from English to Spanish (L2-L1) in both the LB and MB groups although the effect was greater for the LB group. Further, only the LB group showed priming from Spanish to English (L1-L2). Their results were contradictory to most others mentioned above.

Based on the existing literature, presence or absence of L2-L1 was still a mystery and need further study. The above studies exclusively used bilingual participants, with their two languages being both alphabetic, some of them being even in the same language family, undoubtedly, more studies are needed, which recruited bilinguals whose two languages are far apart, to provide more evidence for the general priming patterns. Meanwhile tasks of these researches were limited to lexical decision, categorization, and pronunciation production, which could be extended to other tasks. Only in this way, can we have a comprehensive view over the concept relationship between the two languages.

b. Translation patterns

During the past 3 decades, there had been many studies conducted on bilingual memory representation and the way in which two or more languages were stored in memory, however, compared with priming paradigm, translation and translation recognition were relatively scarce. As a researcher, we should be aware that this research paradigm or task had superiority to others. First, it could reveal the L2 conceptual representation status just like other paradigms. Second, it could also reveal the L2 lexical (orthography and phonology) representation. Last but not least, this paradigm could study the two layers of mental lexicon at the same time. In this way, it was very suitable for studying the relationship between the two languages.

A fairly early translation study available on the intranet databases of the University was Potter et al's (1984). Potter et al. (1984) referred to the two different ways of access to L2 respectively as word association and concept mediation, by comparing the performance of more-fluent and less-fluent bilinguals on picture naming and translation in their second language (L2). Because picture naming is thought to require concept mediation, the demonstration that translation resembled picture naming would suggest that translation also engaged conceptual processing. For low-proficiency learners, L2 picture naming was faster than English-French (L1-L2) translation, which was suggestive that cross-language translation accessed the shared concept, instead of direct lexical link. They argued that concept mediation was the basic form of interlanguage connection in bilingual memory because all participants, regardless of their level of L2 fluency, appeared able to mediate conceptually.

However, Potter et al's (1984) research mentioned above was somewhat problematic. They recruited Chinese-English speakers as proficient L2 learners and found RT of L2 picture naming was the same as that of English-Chinese (L2-L1) translation, which suggested cross-language translation was meaning mediated, just as meaning access in L2 picture naming tasks. First, proficient learners were very likely to have well-established L2 conceptual representation, but it could not exclude the possibility of lexical link in a sense, as lexical link can be as fast as the meaning access. Additionally, same RTs did not necessarily mean that they accessed L2 via the same route, as different access routes can cost the same time. Then, while English-French learners were recruited as less proficiency group, which were not comparable with the proficiency group. Languages of the same linguistic system tended to share meaning and even

form representations. So it was risky to conclude conceptual representation was for every type of participants. Additionally, recall task was added to test less proficiency group, which was not comparable with the proficiency group task.

There was another classic translation experiment with bilinguals, which was much better designed. Kroll and Stewart (1994) had highly proficient Dutch-English bilinguals translate in both directions. In one condition, the words to be translated were blocked by semantic category, and in the other, they were randomly mixed. Kroll and Stewart (1994) reported that L1-L2 translation was slower in the context of the semantically categorized lists than in the mixed conditions, but L2-L1 translation was unaffected by the semantic manipulation, which meant translation of this direction accessed no meaning. Additionally, even for these highly proficient bilinguals, there was a translation asymmetry, with longer latencies in the L1 to L2 direction than in the L2 to L1 direction. The translation experiment led to the proposal of the hypothesis of RHM, which claimed translation in the forward direction—L1-L2—should be conceptually mediated, but translation in the backward direction—L2-L1—should be lexically mediated. Talamas et al. (1999)'s research, which used English-Spanish fluent and less-fluent participants to perform translation-recognition task, reported the similar findings, i.e., backward translation (858ms) was 79 ms faster than forward translation (937ms).

Based on evidence from both priming and translation studies, it can be concluded that backward priming (L2 facilitates recognition of L1 equivalent) is a good indicator of L2 conceptual representation establishment. But the presence or absence of L2-L1 is still a question, which need further study with different experiment design and wider variety of bilingual participants. If L2-L1 translation priming does exist, representation symmetry or asymmetry is also a question, which reveals the conceptual relationship between the two languages.

B. L1 Influence

Besides priming, and translation studies, another clue was L1 influence studies, which could provide consolidated evidence for the linking pattern from L1 to L2 of the bilinguals. Unlike the previous two lines of research, L1 influence researches can answer questions of both levels, orthography and semantics, and reveal L2 word processing patterns, which in turn deepen the understanding of L2 representation. L1 influence studies were to find out the role of L1 translation equivalent in L2 reading. If L1 translation equivalent was activated during L2 reading, it meant the two languages were linked at the lexical level to an extent and the L2 concept had to be accessed via L1 word. On the contrary, if L1 translation equivalent was not activated, it would be suggestive that L1 formal representation was bypassed, the concept was accessed directly and the two languages were linked at the conceptual level.

In terms of L1 activation during L2 reading, there were two different viewpoints. One view was selectivity, which held that languages of bilinguals were selectively activated, i.e. only the target language, e.g., L2, was activated and accessed during L2 reading. While the other view was non-selectivity. Generally, whenever features of a non-target language were found to impact target language activation, such as by producing facilitatory or inhibitory effects in word processing, this was taken to support an integrated account of bilingual language processing and organization, and non-selective activation. The degree of activation of non-target lexicon might vary with the language dominance as well as other factors (e.g. modality of presentation, phonological or orthographical similarity between the target and the non-target language, etc.). In the visual modality, both non-target language phonology and non-target language orthography had been found to impact target language processing. For phonology, masked phonological priming revealed interlingual homophone priming effects from both the native language to the non-native language, and from the non-native language to native language (e.g. Van Wijnendaele & Brysbaert, 2002). The magnitude of interlingual priming was comparable to that of priming within a single language. For orthography, interference effects were found to be influenced by cross-linguistic word frequency and interlingual orthographic density (the number of words with similar orthography that differed by a single grapheme). In a lexical decision task, Bijeljac-Babic, Biardeau, and Grainger (1997) found that orthographically-related high frequency primes in the non-target language inhibited processing in the target language and the effect was greater for bilinguals who were highly proficient in the nonnative language. Similarly, Van Heuven, Dijkstra, and Grainger (1998) found that words with more orthographic neighbors in the native language slowed responses to target words in the non-native language. In addition to language recognition, orthographic input from the non-target language was also found to impact bilingual language production. Hermans, Bongaerts, De Bot, and Schreuder (1998) used a picture-word interference task and found that bilinguals could not suppress native-language lexical information when naming pictures in a non-native language. In the auditory modality, spoken word recognition was also found to be influenced by phonological and orthographic overlap, as demonstrated by priming effects (e.g. Slowiaczek et al., 1992). However, parallel activation occurred more reliably with high-proficiency non-target languages than with low-proficiency non-target languages (Silverberg & Samuel, 2004). Findings of parallel first-language activation during second language processing had been consistent.

Based on the review on the large body of empirical studies, the researcher intended to believe that languages of bilinguals, target or non-target, were activated non-selectively and parallelly. Non-target language would be activated inevitably during target language recognition. The target language was accessed because of inhibition of the non-target language. A closer look at Bijeljac- Babic, Biardeau and Grainger's (1997) study would provide a clear picture. In their study, French-English subjects were recruited to make lexical decisions to L1 or L2 target preceded by masked orthographic prime words from the same or a different language. The target language was English (L1-L2) in the first experiment, while in the second it was French (L2-L1). The target words in both experiments were low-frequency

words or nonwords that were orthographically legal and pronounceable. The primes were high-frequency words (presented for 57 ms) that either in the same language as the target or in the other language. In both experiments it was found that when prime and language were from the same language, RTs to target word were inhibited for orthographically related primes relative to orthographically dissimilar primes. For example, when the target language was English, the prime-target combination "real -HEAL" led to slower RTs than the combination "roof - HEAL". This finding highly suggested that any facilitation effects that might arise due to form priming (overlap in letters) were annihilated by inhibition effects due to lexical competition. More relevant, however, was that when prime and target were words from different languages ("beau - BEAM"), inhibition effects were found as well. This indicated that lexical knowledge from the other language affected target recognition, which provided evidence supporting lexical linking and language non-selective access to the bilingual lexicon.

For another example, studies that used cross-language neighbors, words that were orthographically similar in the two languages but otherwise unrelated ,(e.g., the English word "gate" had neighbors in English, such as "game", but also neighbors in Spanish, such as "gato".) had shown that word recognition in both the L1 and the L2 was influenced by the neighborhood properties of words in both languages .(e.g., Grainger et al, 1992; Van Heuven et al., 1998.) In other words, even when performing a task in one language alone, there was evidence that neighbors in the other language are active (Sunderman and Kroll, 2006). If it were possible to simply switch off one language (e.g.L1), there would be no effect of these lexical properties. English and Spanish were two much closer languages than English and Chinese, which shared no similar orthographic features at all. Therefore, whether non-selectivity was still the case for Chinese-English bilinguals during L2 reading was still a question.

L1 was not only activated but also mediated L2 reading, according to some studies, for example, Talamas et al.'s (1999) was a classic design. They used the translation-recognition task to explore the performance of English-Spanish learners who had different proficiency in Spanish. In this task, participants were presented with two words, one in each language. Their task was to decide whether the second word was the translation equivalent of the first. The critical focus in the Talamas et al.(1999)'s study concerned those trials in which the two words were not translation equivalents ,i.e., the "no" trials. For example, the pair *man-hombre* would constitute a correct translation trial. On the critical "no" trials, the second word of the pair was either related in the form of the translation equivalent (e.g., *man-hambre* "hunger") or meaning (e.g., *man-mujer* "woman"). Talamas et al. (1999) reported that the L2 form relatives of the translation equivalent caused more interference for the low-proficiency bilinguals relative to the unrelated controls, whereas L2 meaning related words caused more interference for the more proficient bilinguals compared with the unrelated controls. The overall pattern of results provided support for the hypothesis that early in L2 learning, it is the lexical form relations to the translation equivalent between L2 and L1 that provide the basis of interlanguage connection. Only with increasing L2 proficiency were L2 learners able to access the meanings of L2 words directly.

Another example was Thierry *et al.*'s (2007) study. In their study, Chinese–English bilinguals were required to decide whether English word pairs were related in meaning or not; they were unaware of the fact that half of the words concealed a character repetition when translated into Chinese. Whereas the hidden factor failed to affect behavioral performance, it significantly modulated brain potentials in the expected direction, which was that English words were automatically and unconsciously translated into Chinese. Critically, the same modulation was found in Chinese monolinguals reading the same words in Chinese, i.e., when Chinese character repetition was evident. These findings demonstrated that native-language activation was an unconscious correlate of second-language comprehension.

Guasch et al.(2008) varied participants' proficiency and word pair relations, and investigated translation performance of beginning, intermediate and proficient Spanish-Catalan bilinguals and examined how form and semantic manipulations affected the performance of these groups in a translation-recognition task using three types of word relations (very close and close semantically related word pairs and form-related pairs). The results revealed that form manipulation affected the performance of the three participant groups, whereas the influence of semantic relations depends on the participants' level of proficiency. That is, L1 form mediation, or lexical link, existed in all levels of L2 learners, whereas proficient learners were to a larger extent influenced by conceptual representation.

However, studies of null activation of L1 translation equivalents were almost as many as those of non-selectivity. A great deal of evidence supported the claim that bilinguals were able to process the L2 conceptually, without L1 activation (e.g., La Heij et al., 1996; Zeelenberg & Pecher, 2003). These studies had something in common which was that they exclusively used proficient L2 participants. However, it was not clear at what point learners became able to access the concepts to which L2 words refer. Some studies suggested that the ability to do so was available quite early in learning (e.g., Altarriba & Mathis, 1992; De Groot & Poot, 1997;Potter, So, Von Eckardt, & Feldman, 1984), whereas other studies suggested that it developed in stages (e.g., Dufour & Kroll, 1995; Talamas et al, 1999). Dufour & Kroll (1995) had expected low-proficiency L2 leaners to show more reliance on lexical-level connections between languages, requiring translation of second-language words. However, their findings revealed that low-proficiency learners were also able to access limited conceptual information from the second language under certain condition. Therefore, it seemed safe to hypothesize that, besides the commonality of orthographic features, selectivity/non-selectivity was also dependent on the learning stage and participant proficiency.

III. Summary on the Controversies

A. Diverse Understandings to the Way in Which L2 Words Are Linked to L1

It seems that there is much consensus on L1 lexical and conceptual organization. L1 is organized in a way on the basis of semantic relatedness, which forms a conceptual network, and formal similarity at the lexical level in an individual. L2 models and studies referred to and borrowed monolingual models and findings from the relative researches, hopefully to have the similar findings, but unfortunately, fail to yield as much agreement as L1 research. Factually, it seems there are more discrepancies than agreements in terms of the extent of L2 linked with L1. The first discrepancy is the establishment of L2 concept. Nan Jiang's 3-stage model (2000) claimed there is hardly L2 specific conceptual representation, and learners' L2 words are embedded into L1 concept, no matter how proficient the learner is, so L2 conceptual representation is inadequate to prime L1. Kroll (1994) argues L2 shares L1 concept, but doesn't indicate specifically in what way they share the the concept. De Groot (1992), however, proposes that L2 shares the concept with L1 according to featural overlap, that is, the more common semantic elements those L2 words share with L1, the more likelihood L2 share the concept with L1 to a larger degree. While Duyck & Brysbaert (2008) stated that at the very beginning of learning (e.g., learning for 1 hour), there was conceptual representation. Diverse understandings toward establishment of L2 conceptual representation, therefore, naturally derive different researches and the opposite findings in the presence or absence of non-cognate translation priming, and L2-L1 priming.

The second discrepancy is the asymmetry/symmetry views between L2-L1 and L1-L2. The asymmetry view was that L2 is lexically linked more strongly to L1 than the opposite direction, and L1 is more strongly linked to the concept than the L2 (e.g., Kroll & Stewart, 1994; Dufour & Kroll, 1995; Francis and Gallard, 2005). While the symmetry view was that both lexical and conceptual levels of L2 were represented and processed symmetrically, which was predicted by de Groot et al.'s (1992, 1997) distributed concept featural model (DCFM), and their relative empirical studies, as well as other studies in line with this viewpoint. Basnight-Brown and Altarriba (2007), for example, reported translation priming in both directions at the same magnitudes of facilitation. Significant translation-priming effects of 37 and 48 msec were obtained for English targets and for Spanish targets, respectively. The differences between the two magnitudes of facilitation were not significant. More interestingly, Kiran & Lebel (2007) recruited Spanish-English more balanced (MB) and less balanced (LB) bilinguals for the priming research. They reported semantic priming was observed from English to Spanish (L2-L1) in both the LB and MB groups although the effect was greater for the LB group. Further, only the LB group showed priming from Spanish to English (L1-L2).

B. Diverse Understandings to the Way in Which L1 Words Are Linked to L2

Diverse understandings towards the extent of L1 words linked to L2 mainly come from the different findings of presence or absence of L1 activation during L2 reading. One view was that L1 is so strongly linked with L2 and exerts so powerful influence on L2 reading that L1 will be activated unconsciously and automatically during L2 reading, despite how high proficiency the participant has achieved, which reflects strong lexical link from L1 to L2.

There have been numerous studies that reported L1 influence on L2 with a variety of experiment design. Masked phonological priming revealed interlingual homophone priming effects from the native language to the non-native language. The magnitude of interlingual priming was comparable to that of priming within a single language. Hermans et al, (1998) used a picture-word interference task and found that bilinguals could not suppress native-language lexical information when naming pictures in a non-native language. Parallel first-language activation during second language processing had also been observed in Sunderman and Kroll (2006), Thierry *et al.*'s (2007) and Guasch et al.(2008) etc., which all claimed that L1 activation was inevitable and an unconscious correlate of L2 comprehension, even in the absence of L1 (Thierry et al.(2007) presented the word stimuli in L2-L2 paradigm).

However, studies of null activation of L1 translation equivalents were almost as many as the others. A great deal of evidence supported the claim that bilinguals were able to process the L2 conceptually, without L1 activation. These researchers assumed that learners can access L2 with no L1 reliance very early in learning. Null activation of L1 equivalents represents absence of L1-L2 lexical link.

These controversies may be settled if further researches make an attempt to have all irrelevant factors well controlled (participants, stimuli, lexical variables) so as to examine the linking patterns between L1 and L2.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 95-105, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.95-105

Post-colonialism Literature the Concept of *self* and the *other* in Coetzee's *Waiting for the Barbarians*: An Analytical Approach

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***Abstract*—In the mid-1980s the term postcolonial first appeared in the scholarly journals as subtexts in Ashcroft, Griffiths and Tiffin's writings. By the mid-1990s, the term established itself in academic and popular discourse. Its subjects include universality, differences, nationalism, postmodernism, representation and resistance, ethnicity, feminism, language, education, history, place, and production *(*Ashcroft, Griffiths & Tiffin, 2004..*Key Concepts in Postcolonial Studie*s, p.2) . It was born out of people's "frustrations, their direct, personal and cultural clashes with conquering culture, and their fears, hope, and dreams about the future and their own identities"(www.nku.edu). It is the literature that has been created as a voice to the powerless and the poorest members of the global community. "Postcolonial theory deals with the reading and writing of literature written in previously or currently colonized countries; a literature written in colonizing countries which deals with colonization or colonized peoples. It focuses particularly on: the way in which literature by the colonizing culture distorts the experience and realities, and inscribes the inferiority, of the colonized people and on literature by colonized peoples which attempts to articulate their identity and reclaim their past in the face of inevitable *Otherness*" (www.shs.westport.k12.ct.us).**

***Index Terms*—Post-colonialism, the self, the others, binary opposition, consciousness, savage, empire, the oppressed and the oppressor**

I. Introduction

It is Frantz Fanon who develops the idea of the *Other* in his writing to be a key concern in postcolonial studies. To him the *Other* is the "*not me*" he is the *Other*.

So from this perspective an effort in this study has been made to foreground such concepts. This study seeks to consider how literature describes the *Other*. It shows the way to maintain authority over the *Othe*r in a colonial situation, that is, an imperialist must see the *Other* as different from the *Self*; and therefore he has to maintain sufficient identity with the *Other* to valorize control over it. Politically as well as culturally the *Self* and the *Other* are represented as the colonizer and the colonized.

The *Other* by definition lacks identity, propriety, purity, literality. In this sense he can be described as the *foreign*: the one who does not belong to a group, does not speak a given language, does not have the same customs; he is the unfamiliar, uncanny, unauthorized, inappropriate, and the improper.

To understand the concept of the *Self* and the *Other* the formalistic approach (binary opposition) is used which is an important idea that helps us understand how meanings are being shaped, created or reinforced in a text. Binary opposition is the principle of contrast between two mutually exclusive terms which argues that the perceived binary dichotomy between civilized\ savage has perpetuated and legitimized Western power structures favoring "civilized" white men. The existence of 'binaries' within a text "acts to develop often powerful layers of meaning that work to maintain and reinforce a society or culture's dominant ideologies"(www.englishbiz.co.uk).

II. Thematic Concern

Under this idea, the focus is brought into some of the theories related to consciousness where the idea of the *"Self"* is the core of subjective consciousness.

One of the main features of imperial oppression, also, is control over language. It has become the post-colonial voice. As Bill Ashcroft says in his book *(Key Concepts in Postcolonial Studie*s. 2004):

…the discussion of postcolonial writing which follows is largely a discussion of the process by which the language, with its power and the writing, with its significance of its authority has been wrested from the dominant European culture. (p.7)

The fascinating thing which needs to be explained is that we often agree over our understanding of poems, novels and plays in spite of the fact that we are all different. This study explores how it is that Coetzee communicates with us and affects us. It examines the way in which the language of his novels acts as the basis of our understanding and responses when we read.

Many postcolonial writers emphasize the importance of studying the aspects of the language because they know well that the translated word or the unspeakable one, as in the case of Friday in *Foe* and the barbarian girl in *Waiting for the Barbarians*, has a higher status than the *untranslated one* or the spoken one. This also helps us foreground the differences between the *Self* and the *Other*.

Postcolonial theory, as a term can be traced to 1950s. However, it "became part of critical toolbox only in the 1970s, and many practitioners credit Edward Said's book *Orientalism* as being the founding work"(www.faculty.mccfl.edu) . However, the actual term "post-colonial" was not employed in early studies of the power as in Edward Said's *Orientalism* as many thought, but rather it was first used to refer to cultural interactions within colonial societies in literary circles as in the work of Ashcroft et al. in 1977.

By the mid-1980s the term post-colonial and post-colonialism first appear in scholarly journals as subtexts in Bill Ashcroft, Gareth Griffiths and Helen Tiffin's book: (*The Empire Writes Back: Theory and Practice in Post-colonial Literatures*. 2002). By the mid-1990s, both terms established themselves in academic and popular discourse.

Originally postcolonial theory was formulated to deal with the reading and writing of literatures written in previously or currently colonized countries. Whether from the perspective of the colonizer or the colonized, post-colonization is about people and their personal experiences: the sense of disempowerment and dislocation. Postcolonial theory is built in large part around the concept of *Otherness*.

The concept of *Otherness* sees the world "as divided into mutually excluding opposites: if the *Self* is ordered, rational, masculine, good, then the *Other* is chaotic, irrational, feminine, and evil" (www.faculty.mccfl.edu) . This construction of the *Other* is a process of demonization, which in itself expresses the 'ambivalence at the very heart of authority' (Ashcroft, Griffiths and Tiffin. 2002, P.3).

Post-colonialism is continually described as a term that portrays not a "we" talking about or to "them", but a "them" talking back to an "us". This implies that post-colonial literature in one way or another is about categorization of center and margin. Homi Bhabha (1994) argues that the paradoxical nature and ambivalent nature of the colonizer\ colonized relationship has been a focus for post-colonial theory:

…the colonial presence is always ambivalent, split between its appearance as original and authoritative and "its appearance as original and authoritative and its articulation as repetition and difference. It is this ambivalence that makes the boundaries of colonial positionality- the division of *self\other* and the question of colonial power – the differentiation of colonizer\ colonized- different from both Hegelian master-slave dialectic or the phenomenological projection of *'otherness' "* (www.books.google.co.uk).

Post-colonial novels are written to present the "unequal relations of power based on binary opposition: "Us" and "them", "First World" and "third world", "White" and "black", "Colonizer" and "colonized",(Kehinde, Ayobami.p.108) "Self" and "other", "Powerful" and "powerless", "Torturer" and "tortured", "Master" and "slave", "Civilized" and "savage", "Superior" and "inferior", "Human" and "subhuman". This superiority of the white races, one colonist argued, clearly implied that "the black men must forever remain cheap labour and slave"(www.vuursteen.b). On this Frantz Fanon (1963) argues:

When one has grasped the mechanism described by Lacan, one can have no further doubt that the real *other* of the white man is and will continue to be the black man. And conversely, only for the white man is the *other* perceived on the level of the body image, absolutely as the *not-self* – that is, the unidentifiable, the inassimilable. (p.195, emphasis added)

Fanon sees "the dichotomy (colonizer\colonized) as a product of a "Manichaeism Delirium", the result of which condition is a radical division into paired oppositions such as good-evil, true-false, and white-black" (Kehinde, Ayobami. p.110) where blackness confirms the white *Self*, and whiteness empties the black subject (195). The *Other*, the colonizer believes, has to be owned, altered and ravished -*he* is deceptive and fertile. This postcolonial model is based on the tension between colonizer and colonized, and dominating and dominated. This points to the importance of binary oppositions in post-colonialism. This means that postcolonial writers protest against western ways of categorization. Their attempt at exposing binaries often expresses itself in the rewriting of canonical stories that are at the basis of inequality. The result of this rewriting is that it sometimes reverses a *binary opposition*, so that what used to be the bad half becomes the good one.

It is in the mid of 20th century, "two major European academic thinkers, Claude Levi Strauss and Roland Barthes, had the important insight that the way we understand certain words depends not so much on any meaning they themselves directly contain, but much more by our understanding of the difference between the word and its 'opposite' or, as they called it 'binary opposite'. They realized that words merely act as symbols for society's ideas and that the meaning of words, therefore, was a relationship rather than a fixed thing: a relationship between opposing ideas" (thomhartmann.org). Other oppositions that can help us understand the idea are the youth/age binary, the masculinity/femininity, the good/evil binary, and so on.

Colonization, however, "relates to the 'I': the seeing\perceiving 'I' or 'eye' of the colonizer, the one who sets the standard, who sees the *Other* and makes the agenda through his or her own point-of-view. Thus writing itself can be seen as an act of colonization, of imposing ones authority through culture\ meanings\ language onto someone else" (www.ub.uit.no) . In other words, the aim of colonization is to impose ones culture\language\meaning onto the *Other*.

Apartheid in South Africa is one of this where; also, the identity, which the *Other* loses, was literary established through language.

"Justification of imperialism in general was found on the notion that those who deserve to inherit the earth are those who make best use of it. The colonialist answer would probably be to cultivate the land and prevent it from growing wild, i.e. to protect it from the laziness of the natives"(ibid). Edward Said analyzes this as:

To think about distant places, to colonize them, to populate or depopulate them: all of this occurs on, about, or because of land. The actual geographical possession of land is what empire in the final analysis is all about.' (www.law.uoregon.edu.)

The postcolonial experience and especially the diasporic experience is often characterized by a co-existence of opposites which is a feature of consciousness, which exists along with other co-existence of silence and dynamism, singularity and multiplicity, manifest and unmanifest (Grace, 2007.p.4).

There are three silences that are expressively deployed on the post-colonial stage: inaudibility, muteness, and refusal to speak. Inaudibility becomes obvious when the body's language or the proxemic signifiers are more expressive than his\her voiced utterance, as for example 'when a character cannot be heard by others on stage, but can be heard by the audience. Muteness may be symbolic, in the sense that a character refuses to speak, and not that he cannot speak, or a character continues to suggestively but effectively *speak*, in spite of physical muteness. It bears noting here that the most interesting feature of the use of the language in postcolonial literature may refer to the way in which it also constructs difference, separation, and absence from the metropolitan norm. So silence with all its forms shows the difference and the separation and also the gap between the *Self* and the *Other*.

The oppressor projects his negative identity which is undesirable and dangerous into the oppressed, and that projection makes him feel superior and that is shown in the novels of J.M. Coetzee, who is the best representative of such concepts, represented by the Magistrate and Colonel Joll in *Waiting for the Barbarians*, and Cruso and Susan Barton in *Foe* as superiors and oppressors and the barbarian girl and Friday as inferior and oppressed.

Born in Cape Town, South Africa, in 1940, John Maxwell Coetzee is probably the most known and most influential South African writer. Coetzee often avoids strict social realism, instead creating universal, often, allegorical fictions that remind us, according to Gallagher (1991,p.10), how oppression and injustice are not limited to South Africa, [and how], in some sense, they are eternal.

He completed his undergraduate work, studying English and mathematics at the University of Cape Town in 1961, and moved to England to work in Computers in 1962, where he stayed for four years working as a programmer. In 1965, Coetzee returned to the academics: he moved to the US, to the University of Texas at Austin, where he produced his doctoral dissertation on the style of Samuel Beckett's English fiction, completed in 1969.

"He returned to South Africa to take up a teaching position at the University of Cape Town in 1972. Following successive promotions, he became professor of general literature at Alma Mater in 1984" (www.assets.cambridge.org). Literature to him is a therapeutic device, where he shows a means of exploring the aftermath and implications of violent experience; an attempt to write away the trauma, to address traumatic memory or to seek healing.

Coetzee's life is full of achievements and rewards. Internationally, he has won the Geoffrey Jerusalem Prize, and the Study Express Book of the Year Award. In South Africa, he has won the Mofolo-Plower Prize, the CAN Prize (three times), the University of Cape Town Book Award, and the Pringle Prize for Criticism (twice). He is an honorary member of the Modern Language Association and a fellow of the Royal Society of literature; he also holds honorary degrees from the University of Strathclyde and the State University of New York at Buffalo. The importance of John Maxwell Coetzee in the development of twentieth-century fiction is now widely recognized. "His work addresses some of the key critical issues of our time: the relationship between postmodernism and post-colonialism, the role of history in the novel and, repeatedly, the question of how the author can combine an ethical and political consciousness with a commitment to the novel as a work of fiction"(www.aruhaz.prospero.hu).

Waiting for the Barbarians is Coetzee's third work of fiction. "It takes its title, and something like its premise, from a poem written one hundred years ago, in 1904, by the Greek writer Constantine Cavafy which is called "Waiting for the Barbarians"(ibid).It provides the novel with the "essential premise, that in order for something like an empire to exist, it must have something to exist against-an opposite; an *Other*, against which to define itself"(ibid). In other words, it depends upon the *Other*, a barbarian enemy to strengthen the national feeling of the state. "White, to be conceivable, relies upon the conception of black; cold must have hot; inside must be what is not outside, and civilization needs barbarism" (www.chinese-hermit.net).

Waiting for the Barbarians (1980) is a disturbing love story about "wanting to possess another person and to turn that person inside-out as though she were a puzzle to be solved"(ibid). It is Coetzee's contribution to the international discourse on torture in South Africa which is often considered to be his most powerful work.

When the novel opens, Colonel Joll, a representative of the Third Bureau, "arrives to investigate rumors of a barbarian uprising which have begun to circulate in the distant imperial capital. As Joll interrogates and tortures barbarian prisoners, the Magistrate becomes increasingly sympathetic towards the victims. When the Colonel leaves the outpost, the Magistrate takes a young barbarian woman" (www.rpe.ugent.be) whose body shows evident signs of her *Otherness*. When torturing her in front of her father, Colonel Joll and his men have made her blind. Both her ankles have been broken and the tortures have left her with ugly scars where her body becomes a tale of the vital *Other*.

Later, at the moment of pure consciousness, he journeys into the barbarian territory to restore her to her people. Upon his return, he finds that the army has arrived as part of a general offensive against the barbarians. The Magistrate is imprisoned for 'treasonously consorting with the enemy' (p.85) and subsequently tortured. "When having failed to engage the barbarians successfully, the army abandons the town, leaving the freed Magistrate to resume his official functions"(ibid).

Coming back to the analysis of the first paragraph in the novel, one can say that Coetzee does well at establishing, immediately, a sort of archetypal indefiniteness in time as well as in space which indirectly refers to the theme of *Otherness.* It is certainly not the start of the twentieth century, "since the narrator, a civilized protagonist, has not only never seen sunglasses, he has never seen glasses. On the other hand, the man in dark glasses is from the feared Third Bureau, which sounds modern enough,"(www.thevalve.org) and who is at the service of suffering. So we are on a painfully stretched line- between a nameless Empire and barbarians.

The opening lines underline the importance of eyes in the story as a whole. The glasses described prevent the viewer from seeing Joll's eyes, therefore, preventing him from looking into the 'windows of his soul'.

Colonel Joll's task is to make sure that the laws and the frontiers of the Empire are respected, and to keep barbarians in their place through military force. "In reflecting on his own and other characters' deeds, the Magistrate initially plays the familiar role of the witness, an outsider to the depicted violence: he incarnates the moral viewpoint in a world which seems prey to bureaucratized evil, of which it is not difficult to imagine examples"(www.rug.nl).

Under colonial conditions some become the masters and some the servants, some have the power and some are totally powerless. "The oppressors are far away from their native countries trying to create something that reminds them of home. The oppressed are no longer masters of their own country since they do not have any rights anymore; their land, money, raw materials and freedom are taken away from them"(www.hem.passagen.se).

Stephen Watson's point of view is that, If colonialism, at its very simplest, involves the conquest and subjugation of territory by an alien people, then the human relationship that is basic to it is likewise one of power and powerlessness: the relationship between master and servant, overlord and slave (p.14). Accordingly the best way to analyze *Waiting for the Barbarians* is through a set of binary oppositions which explains the complex relation between the characters as it helps, also, in visualizing the different positions of the characters.

To Loomba, the creation of the *Other* depends on constructing the *Self;* the insider (usually the White European male- *Self*) is essentially dependent on the outsider (the black African male-*Other*).

The idea of the *Other* is done out of the belief of the colonizer that he is 'the enemy within' the one on whom truth was imposed. This truth is the confession of guilt for which the Empire uses as a tool for invasion and isolation. The clear, simple idea of truth so confidently asserted by the Magistrate at the beginning is undercut when Joll elaborates on 'all he does':

"I am speaking of a situation in which I am probing for the truth, in which I have to exert pressure to find it. First I get lies, you see- this is what happens- first lies, then pressure, then more lies, then more pressure, then the break, then more pressure, then the truth. That is how you get the truth." (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.5)

This process is seen as one conquest by the colonizer (the doctor of interrogation) of the colonized, who claims that the barbarians are preparing to muting, so Joll "leads an expedition in search of rebels and that results with a group of nomads in chains, terrified and mute"(www.nytimes.com). The possibility that the barbarians may be innocent of any revolutionary plans is "brushed aside by Colonel Joll in the previous remarkable description of how he conducts his interrogations"(ibid). Simply, because he is looking for the truth which is required to be true by the Empire and where he really succeeds when he tortures a boy taking what he wants. Here the Magistrate is blaming the boy for his confession:

Do you understand what this confession of yours will mean?..."It means that the soldiers are going to ride out against your people. There is going to be killing. Kinsmen of yours are going to die, perhaps even your parents, your brothers and sisters. Do you really want that?" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.10)

Colonel Joll's process of getting the truth is a historical process of colonization which is easily acquired as he said "[a] certain tone enters the voice of a man who is telling the truth .., *training* and *experience* teach us to recognize that tone"(ibid.p.5, emphasis added). This shows clearly the relationship between the conqueror and the conquered which requires the use of complex violence, the violence that the Empire represents: the violence which is achieved only through "training and experience" over the natives. When Colonel Joll uses violence to take out the truth, it is of importance in post-colonial novels in general and in this novel in particular. Truth encapsulates different dimensions as it refers to memory and above all to power. "The act of forced speech is mirrored in the act of torture, where the torturer attempts to make the tortured speak the 'truth' "(www.ub.nit.no).

These procedures are not used only by Colonel Joll and his soldiers but also by the Magistrate himself when trying to get the truth from the girl and his speech with the cook. In this way the Magistrate is no different from Joll. The Magistrate tells the cook that the torturers " they thrive on stubborn silence: it confirms to them that every soul is a lock they must patiently pick"(*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.124), "inadvertently also referring to his relationship to the barbarian girl. The imagery here suggests that the picker of the lock does not have the key that fits the opening, but that he must find something suitable to do the trick. This puts us in the mind of the tortured boy who has been cut as if his

body were a lock"(www.ub.nit.no) : "he makes a curt thrust into the sleeping boy's body and turns the knife delicately, like a key, first left, then right" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.10).

It is not until he has experienced the process of torture and violence he himself, that the Magistrate truly understands the relativity of the word 'truth' which he finally experiences what it is like to be colonized and the true meaning of being *Other*:

I walked into that cell a sane man sure of the Tightness of my cause, however incompetent I continue to find myself to describe what that cause may be; but after two months among the cockroaches with nothing to see but four walls and an enigmatic soot mark, …I am much less sure of myself…And what is the point of suffering at the hands of the men in blue if I am not iron-hard in my certainty (ibid.p.93).

The violence offered to the Magistrate includes a public beating, the force-feeding of gallons of salt water and a mock hanging. The reason behind this harsh treatment was to him as he puts it 'to show me the meaning of *humanity*' (p.111, emphasis added). The Magistrate realizes the purpose of the lesson he is being taught through torture: that high-minded notions of justice can be retained only by the healthy body. The tortured body will lose its grasp of such principles.

In his relation to the girl, she is seen as representative *Other* by the Magistrate and Colonel Joll, however, it has a wide meaning where her injured body represents the conquered land, in this sense: South Africa. The motif of the girl's body "becomes inaccessible to the Magistrate in his inability to remember what it looks like, and because he has no way to penetrate the surface, and ultimately invade her. In this way, his attempt to identify with the colonized *Other* initially fails"(www.ub.nit.no).

All his attempts to access to 'truth' are always blocked. He is faced with the conflicting role of the colonizer who refuses the liberal in a totalitarian regime- on the one hand, his role as the 'One Just Man' (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.114) as Joll sarcastically calls him, and, on the other, his sense of implication in the guilt of the Empire, his sharing of Joll's guilt: 'I was the lie that Empire tells itself when times are easy, he [Joll] the truth that Empire tells when harsh winds blow. Two sides of imperial rule, no more, no less' (ibid.p.130). The Magistrate represents a "constructive view of colonial rule where the relationship with the natives is maintained for trading purposes, whereas Joll and Mandel represent a more radical view of Empire's demonstration of power before its subjects"(www.ub.nit.no).

According to the Magistrate, "one thought alone preoccupies the submerged mind of Empire: how not to end, how not to die, how to prolong its era" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.129), and he himself is "no less infected with it than the faithful Colonel Joll" (ibid.p.146). This is the crisis of the colonial identity which is also reflected in the narrative choice or authorial dilemma of the Magistrate, as in the following:

Before I can leave there are two documents to compose. The first is addressed to the provincial governor. "To repair some of the damage wrought by the forays of the Third Bureau," I write, "and to restore some of the goodwill that previously existed, … What the second document is, I do not yet know. A testament? A memoir? A confession? A history of the thirty years on the frontier? All that day I sit in a trance at my desk staring at the empty white paper, waiting for words to come. (ibid.p.55)

The images of hunting and attempted capture are metaphors for the colonizer's attempt to absorb the colonized, with the familiar post-colonial image of the penetration into the interior.

To search and destroy the barbarian enemy so it can widen its perspective of the *Self*, the Third Bureau sends troops into the land beyond the frontiers of the Empire. At first, reports of victory: then, a nervous silence; finally, the troops return, dazed and bedraggled. "We were not beaten" (ibid. p.142) says a survivor, "they [the barbarians] 'led us out into the desert and then they vanished!'...They lured us on and on, we could never catch them. They picked off the stragglers, they cut out horses loose in the night, they would not stand up to us" (ibid p.145). With the loss of this battle, the Empire fades. It loses its premise: the things that can stand against. Then Empire exists no longer: it vanishes.

Colonel Joll and his men retreat; the Magistrate resumes his old authority. "The Empire disappears; the barbarians remain. Only now, in this bitter ending, we grasp the full-force of Coetzee's title, adapted from last lines of by the Cavafy: what does this sudden uneasiness mean, and this confusion? Because it is night and the barbarians have not arrived from the frontiers and they say that there are no barbarians any longer and now/ what will become of us without barbarians?/ These people were a kind of solution"(www.nytimes.com).

True, the Empire is abstract, timeless, placeless, "but through the scrim of Empire, *Waiting for the Barbarians* renders a moment in our politics, style of our justice. Precisely this power of historical immediacy gives the novel its thrust, its larger and 'universal' value"(ibid).

The real foreign, however, is not the colonized but the colonizer. This is only proved at the end of the novel when Colonel Joll's expedition lost the battle which is said at the very beginning of the novel when the Magistrate tells Colonel Joll: "The barbarians you are chasing will smell you coming and vanish into the desert while you are still a day's march away. They have lived here all their lives, they know the land. You and I are strangers- you even more than I" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.11).

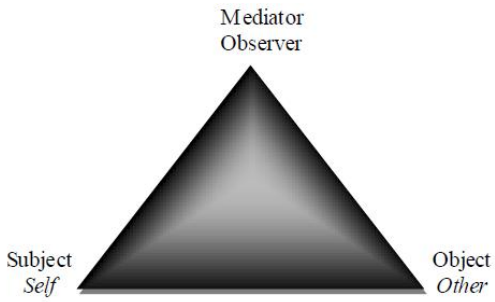
Waiting for the Barbarians is about destruction and self-destructiveness, of an imperial regime, obstructed by one man of conscience who has obvious ramifications for the white opponent of apartheid South Africa in 1980. The time and place of the novel's setting are imprecise. It is this allegory of imperialism which widens its significance. The best way to see this destruction is by drawing the triangulation of *Otherness*, which will also show the changes in the roles

of *Self* and the *Other*. This destruction is not only at the level of the relation between the *Self* and the *Other*; it involves the destruction of the Empire. Coetzee suggests that the actual Empire, like the Empire depicted in the novel, is misguided, for its illusions of humanitarianism, and because its rhetoric is based upon lies and unsupportable binaries.

III. The Triangulation of Otherness

As we have seen earlier that *Waiting for the Barbarians* has addressed the issue of *Otherness* very explicitly as most literary critics approach the text through a set of binary oppositions. The discussion of *Otherness* usually involves two opposite constitutes. Except in *Waiting for the Barbarians* it involves "not only an opposition between two elements but a more complex relation between three entities, namely the three main characters of the novel; the Magistrate, the girl, and Colonel Joll. All three of them inhabit at different moments the positions of the *Self* and of the *Other*. To prove this, we can draw upon Rene Girard's triangle to explain how the three characters are connected. Seen as *Others*, they are all victims"(www.hem.passagen.se). However, it is more obvious that the girl with her barbarian origin is victim and can only be seen in the position of the *Other* than it is to consider the Magistrate and Colonel Joll, although, they are all victims of power. The structure of the triangle changes with the changes in the plot regarding the theme of the *Self* and the *Other*.

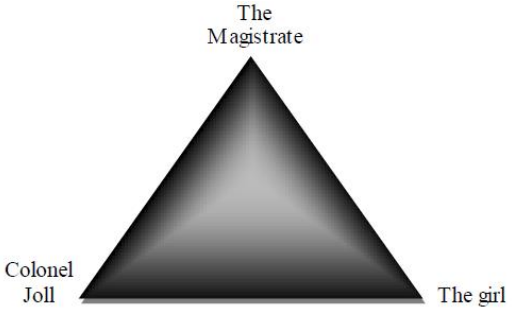
In *Waiting for the Barbarians* there is always a straight line present in the relation between two of the characters. But there is also a third person involved, the one that Girard defines as "the mediator" (ibid) who can be referred as the observer in this analysis and with whom also the relation between the *Self* and the *Other* would, probably, not exist or might be different.



What is interesting, here, is that "both Colonel Joll and the Magistrate can be seen in all the three positions of the triangle while the girl is never in the position of the Subject or the *Self*, when she is in a triangular structure. She is, however, in the position of the *Self* when the plot of the novel presents her in a dual relation with the Magistrate in her "own", "barbarian" territory"(www.hem.passagen.se).

In the very beginning of the novel, the *Self* - *Other* relation is focused on the relation between Colonel Joll and the girl. Joll is in the position of the *Subject* where he clearly shows the power that he possesses. "Only a few days after his arrival in the town several barbarians are taken prisoners by his men. The prisoners are brought into the town where Joll forces them to disclose the "truth" about their disloyal intentions. The girl is one of the prisoners and therefore she is directly put in the position of the *Object*. She is badly tortured and finally left all alone among strangers"(ibid). Her injured body shows evident signs of *Otherness* which results in making her really belongs to nowhere anymore. Her depiction proves her *Otherness:* her skin is dark and [she] has straight black eye-brows, the glossy black hair of the barbarians" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.25). It is clear, here, that the men of the Empire, by occupying a position of power, have the privilege of formulating the rules of the game, and, furthermore, to disregard any given move arbitrarily.

The Magistrate is there, observing, but he does not really take part in what is going on. His position is one of the *Observer* .



His role as observer is also clarified after the torturing episode. He invokes her soul, heart, and mindlessness. He looks into her maimed eyes, and sees nothing but her blindness, and, in describing the scars of torture on her irises, he

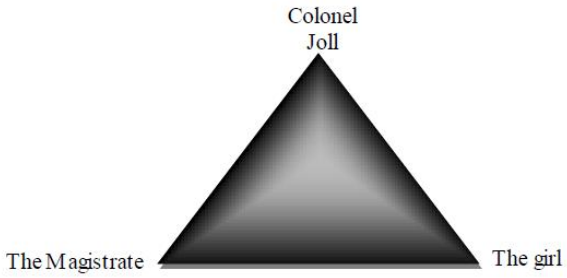
places himself as her observer. He claims that there is no way he can penetrate any further, no way of reaching behind her irises; into her mind. He, also, is unable to attain any insight into her thoughts. As when he waves his hand in front of her eyes:

I wave a hand in front of her eyes. She blinks. I bring my face closer and stare into her eyes. She wheels her gaze from the wall on to me. The black irises are set off by milky whites as clear as a child's. I touch her cheek: she starts. (ibid. p.26)

When the plot changes the structure of the triangle does so. In the second part of the novel, Colonel Joll has returned to the capital and the prisoner have been released and allowed to return to their own land.

"Left in town is the Magistrate and the girl and the interesting relation is now the one between them. The Magistrate is the *Self* who decides to take care of the girl. He is not sure whether he also does so because he really cares about her, or if he only wants to prove that he is not an evil man, like Colonel Joll" (www.hem.passagen.com). Actually, the Magistrate feels that he does no longer possess anything. The frontier is under the grip of Joll and his men. So under this feeling; the Magistrate starts searching to compensate his loss. He sees the girl as the only entity that he can show his superiority and the sense of *Selfhood.* This is proved when he begins comparing himself to Colonel Joll saying that: "I [am] not, as I liked to think, the indulgent and pleasure-loving opposite of the cold and rigid Colonel" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.135). His hatred to the appearance of Joll is clear from the very beginning of the novel when he confirms whether Colonel Joll is blind or not: "Is he blind? I could understand it if he wanted to hide blind eyes" (ibid.p.1). In other words, he attacks his coming from the beginning before Joll does anything.

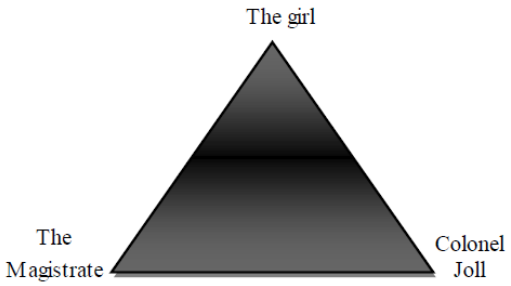
The girl is the *Other* who depends upon the Magistrate's good will and "remains passive in her relation to him. Colonel Joll is the distant Observer, although he is still a necessary constituent of the triangle. But it is also possible, at this point, to draw a second triangle to show that the Magistrate is the *Self* also in relation to Joll" (www.hem.passagen.com) .



The relationship with the barbarian girl is ruled by silence. Silence, here, can be read as a sign or a form of resistance to the *Other's* rule, for revealing the details of the torture she was subjected to imply the acknowledgement of the colonizer's power, and, as such, the negation of her barbarian identity on the other hand, however, the girl's silence reflects the contradictory difficulties of communication between colonizer and colonized.

What makes the girl considered to be the *Other* in the novel can also be connected with being a woman. At all times, being a woman has been synonymous with being the *Other.* The female body has always been regarded as inferior in comparison to the male body. The girl, in this case, has joined both characteristics of *Otherness*: being colonized and female.

The Magistrate finds himself superior to Joll since he looks upon himself as a good man in comparison to him. The Magistrate thinks that "there is nothing to link me with torturers, people who sit waiting like beetles in dark cellars....I must assert my distance from Colonel Joll! I will not suffer for his crimes!" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.43). While Joll is the passive Object of the Magistrate's reflection, the Magistrate acts like the powerful Subject who decides to return the girl to her people to show his humanity and to get peace in mind.



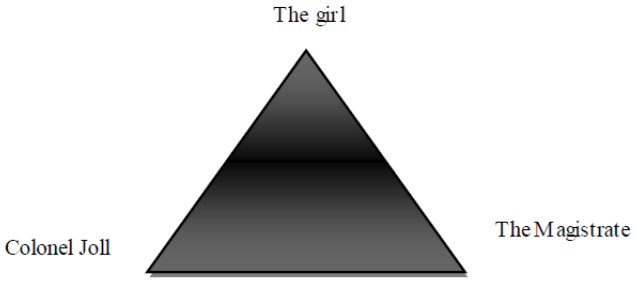
"In part four, the relationships in the triangle have once again changed. Colonel Joll has returned to the town and he is again the *Self*, but now in relation to the Magistrate. On the Magistrate's return from the desert, he is arrested by Joll and he becomes the imprisoned *Other*" (www.hem.passagen.com). By returning the girl, the Magistrate has shown his

dissociation of the Empire and he says: "my alliance with the guardians of the Empire is over, I have set myself in opposition, the bond is broken" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.76).

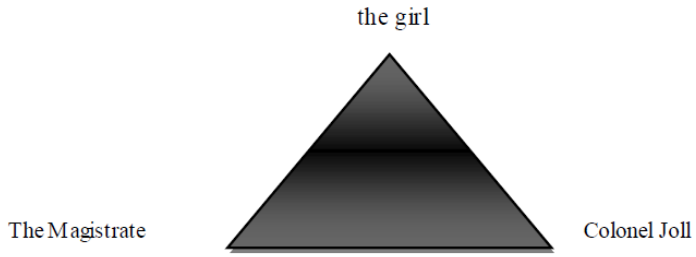
When the Magistrate does this, he was at a moment of self-realization of the real fact of the Empire that it is not as he says earlier "the Empire of light" rather it becomes "the Empire of pain". This self-awareness causes him to be in the position of the *Other*.

I realize how tiny I have allowed them to make my world, how I daily become more like a beast or a simple machine, a child's spinning wheel, for example, with eight little figures presenting themselves on the rim: father, lover, horseman, thief,… (ibid. p.82)

The result of this awareness leads him to be prisoned, tortured and humiliated and to be deprived from all his basic human needs. The reason of the attack made by Colonel against the Magistrate is a result of the understandable fact that releasing the barbarian girl endangers Joll's position as a *Self;* because without the barbarians he is no longer in a position of power.



In the last part of the novel the Magistrate is, once more, the *Self* and he describes his situation like this: "...I have taken the lead. No one has challenged me. My beard is trimmed, I wear clean clothes, I have in effect resumed the legal administration that was interrupted a year ago by the arrival of the Civil Guard" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.140). This is how the Magistrate feels when Colonel Joll returns from the desert in a very bad condition. "Joll has been defeated by the barbarians and he is the weak and pitiful *Other*" (www.hem.passagen.com).



The self-reflection that opens his eyes to the injustice, which he calls 'the new science of degradation" where the torturers are the scientists with sensory data, i.e., pain, (104) makes him realize the impossibility of resistance.

I have a lesson for him that I have long mediated. I mouth the words and watch him read them on my lips: "The crime that is latent in us we must inflict on ourselves" I say. I nod and nod driving the messages home. "Not on others," I say: I repeat the words, pointing at my chest, pointing at his. He watches my lips, his lips move in imitation, or perhaps in derision, I do not know. (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.141)

At the end both Colonel Joll and the Magistrate discover that the intellect is nothing to the human warmth and the sense of belonging.

Coetzee's *Waiting for the Barbarians* is an *"allegorical* depiction of the ironic interplay between definitions of civilization and barbarism and a depiction as well of the ironic distance between the ideas of empire and its reality" (Lois Parkinson Zamora. p.12). Allegory has played a significant role in the novel as it foregrounds the theme of *Otherness* and bears out a better understanding and a better reading for the novel.

IV. Conclusion

The Empire's power rests in its ability to name, to label, to categorize, and to define the world according to its own whims. The Empire, moreover, divorces names from their intrinsic meaning and undermines the basis of its power- the absoluteness of its own definitions. "In doing so, the Empire undermines its ownership, for if the Empire cannot categorize a person or a place, how can the Empire be said to possess something?"(www.deptorg.knox.edu). By losing control of words and their meanings, the Empire conquers itself. That is what happened at the end of the novel. The Empire defeats itself when it fails to grip the colonized and to maintain the relationship and when its names fail to be used; the *Other* is no longer *Other* and the *Self* is no longer the *Self*.

The ironic moral objective of the Empire is to reduce suffering; as those barbarians live a very primitive life which the colonizer considers it to be as a kind of suffering and sees that it is his duty to change this kind of lifestyle and to make the world a better place for the civilized. He sees the colonized as a scapegoat who has to bear the burden of the guilt of the civilization. They believe that humanity is possible only at the price of sacrificing the natives, the scapegoats of the fault of civilization. However, this notion has collapsed at the end of novel.

The colonized country is constructed of binary oppositions-pairs that give each other value in that one is what the other is not, "such as female\male, *Self\Other*, central\marginal. Each binary is seen as dichotomies that one negates the other and more dominant to the other. In the binary of *Self\Other*, *Self* has value because it is not *Other* but the concept cannot be applied the other way around" (www.fportfolio.petra.ac.id).

In *Waiting for the Barbarians*, Coetzee shows us that in a world based on binary oppositions, to escape the identity of the so-called civilized, what option is there but to become the *Other*. The Magistrate seeks independence from the stereotypes and conventions of the Empire by the moment he realizes the loss that occurs in his identity. Thus he seeks to find "means of identification. But regardless of our identity, people need recognition from others. The Magistrate, perhaps due to his role as a public figure, relies heavily upon the impression other people have of him" (www.ub.uit.no) which is in fact a policy the Empire keeps and imposes its followers to keep. This renders him very insecure in his search for the new identity. With the girl, he does not know what he is, a savior, a healer, a father, a lover: "now kiss her feet, now browbeat her, now anoint her with exotic oils, now ignore her, now sleep in her arms all night, now moodily sleep apart"(*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.54), but after his own torture, he realizes that from "the very first she knew me for a false seducer" (ibid. p.130).

In attempting to assert his distance from Colonel Joll when he is washing the girl, the Magistrate wants to build his *Selfhood*. Seeing his own reflection in Joll's shades, however, makes the Magistrate realize that the "distance between myself and her torturers … is negligible" (ibid. p.27). Part of this distance is "his acknowledgement of the inadequacy of the imperial values and practices in which he has been steeped and educated" (www.ub.uit.no).

The Magistrate's identity changes throughout the novel. At the beginning, the changes are made to assert his distance from the Empire and Colonel Joll to rebuild his *Self*. "However, as the novel progresses, this becomes less clear; Empire writes him as *Other*, and he himself aids in this. Thus when he returns to town after handing the girl over to her own people, Empire writes him as an ally of the barbarians"(ibid). Colonel Joll accuses him of wanting to be the judge, the "*One Just Man*" (*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.109), but then goes on to name him and impose an identity on him based on how *Others* see him: "to people in this town you are not the One Just Man, you are simply a clown, a madman. You are dirty, you sink, they can smell you a mile away. You look like an old beggar-man, a refuse-scavenger" (ibid. p.124). After this, Mandel, with the help from the crowd, makes the Magistrate become the clown and madman Joll suggested. The Magistrate refrains from blaming the townspeople: "But of what use is it to blame the crowd? A scapegoat is named, a festival is declared, the laws are suspended: who would not flock to see the entertainment?" (ibid. p.115) We, here, see a shift in the way the Magistrate sees himself. He accepts being *named* the scapegoat, an innocent who is helpless against the Empire and who must please the crowd. This could also be seen as a result of not following the Empire's rules and systems. The twofold humiliation that the Magistrate has to bear makes him conscious of his pride of being a "White Male". It is this pride that hurts him in deep.

A pattern in the Magistrate's desire for identity, is to be seen "as innocent, as an ignorant babe, which again reminds us of his disclaimer of liability. Determining that it is his role to be the scapegoat, the Magistrate must remain passive and distanced to the situation"(www.ub.uit.no). Falling into roles, then, becomes a way for the Magistrate to excuse himself, excuse his own condition, and ultimately to protect himself. No longer locked up, the Magistrate lives "like a starved beast at the back door, kept alive perhaps only as evidence of the animal that skulks within every barbarian-lover"(*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.136). Thus the name the Magistrate wanted to make for himself, "of being the One Just Man, of being the one who opposed the torture of the *Other*, is reduced to nothingness, as he is seen as an animal instead of gaining respect for speaking up against the Empire"(www.bibsonomy.org). He gets the feeling of not belonged which puts him in a state of limbo; "a state that is loaded with anxieties, questions and conflicts as he is unable to find an anchor that he can grip on"(ibid).

Towards the end of the novel, the Magistrate is set free. Since, now, he is a free man, he has to provide his own food. "He becomes a sort of beggar crossed with a bard, who tells a story in exchange for food. Admitting to the reader that what he serves is "half-truths", one gets the feeling that the Magistrate has finally understood the intimacy of torture, and why the girl was reluctant to speak. To overcome his experiences, the Magistrate must in a sense return to his old identity which anchors him to his past *Self* and his prime"(www.ub.uit.no). To regain his old identity he has to be fat: "I want to be fat again, fatter than ever before, I want a belly that gurgles with contentment when I fold my palms over it, I want to feel my chin sink into the cushion of my throat and my beasts wobbles as I walk"(*Waiting for the Barbarians*, p.125). To be fat again is synonyms with no longer being in pain, and returning to his former *Self*. The return to his former position of the Magistrate suggests that the wellbeing of his body goes hand in hand with his notion of identity. When his body was in pain, he was preoccupied with the basic human needs of avoiding further pain of being fed: "I was so hungry that I did not give a thought to woman, only to food… When I dreamed of a woman, I dreamed of someone who would come in the night and take pain away" (ibid. p.140). "Once the threat of violence against his body ceases to exist, his needs, and his notion of identity, change and return to their former pattern"(www.ub.uit.no). That is

one of the methods used by the Empire: to keep the colonized preoccupied with the way of getting their basic needs so that they will never think about fighting or disobeying the colonizer.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 106-111, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.106-111

A Case Study of Integrating Language Awareness into Grammar Teaching in the Chinese EFL Context

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***Abstract*—The study employed a case study method to investigate the affective effectiveness of integrating language awareness into grammar teaching in the Chinese EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context. In the case study, fifty-eight participants were given language awareness teaching interventions. Questionnaires and interviews were developed, and administered for data collection. The findings of the case study have showed the potentials of language pedagogy in relation to its affective effectiveness in grammar classrooms in three aspects: a) a majority of the participants showed positive changes in their attitudes toward and beliefs in learning grammar; b) a majority of the participants are found to apply more cognitive-affective grammar learning strategies; and c) a majority of the participants responded to positively integrate their learning of grammar with four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). To conclude, the case study has shed light on the potential of integrating language awareness into grammar pedagogy in the Chinese EFL context as well as its future development in second/foreign Language teaching and learning.**

***Index Terms*—language awareness, case study, affective effectiveness, the Chinese context EFL, integrating language awareness into grammar teaching**

I. Introduction

Language awareness, more recently, has been enriched from a multi-disciplinary perspective including applied linguistics, psychology, and learning theory. Language awareness pedagogy, thus, accommodates a diversity of definitions, interpretations and pedagogic practices (van Lier, 2001). Particularly, it is assumed and believed that language awareness as a pedagogic methodology can benefit learners from five integrative domains of language learning, namely, affective domain, cognitive domain, power domain, social domain and performance domain (James & Garrett, 1991; Garrett & James, 2004; van Lier, 1995, 1998, 2001). Nevertheless, the centrality of language awareness as a pedagogic approach in language education should be multifunctional. Metaphorically speaking, language awareness is likely to act as 'language windows' (Hawkins, 1984, 1987, 1992, 2005) to provide learners with pictures of the language they are learning, as a 'language bridge' (Hawkins, 1984, 1987, 1999) to pave the way of language transitions for learners in their journey of language learning, and as 'a door' to enhance the literary and linguistic competence of learners (Carter, 2007). Moreover, language awareness as a pedagogic methodology is believed to benefit learners in the area of five integrative domains of language learning: the affective domain, the cognitive domain, the power domain, the social domain, and the performance domain (James & Garrett, 1991; Garrett & James, 2004; van Lier, 1998, 2001). However, such benefits of language awareness pedagogy remain largely speculations, and classroom-based research into its applicability and practicability is under-researched. Therefore, the present study was undertaken to answer the following three research questions:

a). Research Question One:

To what extent may the participants change their attitudes towards and beliefs in learning grammar after receiving the teaching treatment?

b). Research Question Two:

To what extent may the participants present different strategies of learning grammar after receiving the teaching treatment?

c). Research Question Three:

To what extent may the participants change their perceptions of the relationship between learning grammar and language skills?

II. Literature Review

A. Language Awareness as Pedagogic Methodology

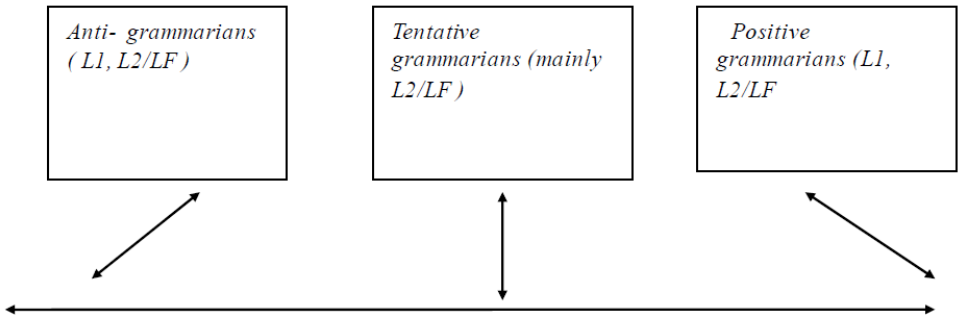
Language awareness as a pedagogic methodology is characterised by two key features. Firstly, it is assumed that language awareness pedagogy can enable teachers and learners to learn beyond the surface of a language in ways which knowledge-based approaches alone can never reach (Bolitho et al., 2003). That indicates that the application of language awareness as a pedagogic approach may lead to develop learners' mental attribute for better insights into how language works. As Tomlinson (2003) points out,

Language Awareness is a mental attribute which develops through paying motivated attention to language in use, and which enables learners to gradually gain insights into how language works. It is also a pedagogic approach that aims to help learners to gain such insights (Bolitho et al., 2003, p.251).

Secondly, language awareness 'instruction' is characterized as "a more holistic and text [discourse]-based approach to language (Carter, 2003, p. 65)". Such approaches, according to Carter (2007), should "not just simply be at the level of linguistic form but should include awareness of language as discourse and sensitivity to social and interpersonal functions of language". In addition, language awareness teaching is concerned with developing the active use of learners' cognitive learning strategies such as discovering the language, analyzing/ parsing the target language, comparing the differences and similarities between the target language and their mother tongue while constantly facing with language (i.e. texts, language samples, or terminology), and reflecting language use. Such cognitive development may lead learners to be more independent their learning and then facilitate language acquisition (Sharwood-Smith, 1981). In other words, the development of language awareness in second/foreign language teaching may result in a principled process or mechanism to allow learners to capitalise their knowledge about the target language for communication, learning purpose (Papaefthymioy-Lytra, 1987), 'language capabilities' (Fairclough, 1992) and 'linguistic/literary competence' (Carter, 2003, 2007).

B. The Role of Grammar in Language Pedagogy

The role of grammar has been controversial, a continuum can be drawn as following according to three positions where grammarians stand.



Positions towards the role of grammar in language teaching (adapted from Stern 1992, p.141.)

The first is a 'zero position' held by Anti-grammarians who believe that the teaching of grammar has little role to play in both L1 and L2/LF. In L1, particularly in Western Europe, it is believed that learning grammar could inhibit learning and did not help the learner to communicate well. Learning grammar of the first language could make L1 learners self-conscious, and lack of confidence to take part in discussion in an acceptable manner. In L2/LF situations, focusing on grammar seems to be an undermining and de-motivating force for most learners. In terms of language acquisition, Krashen (1985) argues that acquisition only takes place when learners are exposed to input which they are able to comprehend, not to grammatical points. The tentative grammarians, taking the second position, acknowledge that a cautious tentative attitude towards grammar is needed. One important aspect of second language acquisition cannot be influenced by grammatical analysis, but language learners cannot entirely do well without overt grammar teaching, particularly in the L2/LF situation. Harley and Swain (1984), for instance, recognize the limitations of the anti-grammarians position in their research on the inter-language of immersion students. The positive grammarians stand on the third position, arguing for grammar teaching either in L1 or L2/LF. In L1 situation, it is assumed that knowing more about how grammar works is to understand more about how grammar is used and misused; knowing more about grammar can impart greater choices and control over grammar as an expressive and interpretative medium; knowing more about grammar is to be empowered to use grammar as central to the creation of textual meaning (Carter 1990, p.120). In L2 situation, learning grammar through formal instruction can facilitate language acquisition indirectly or after a delay (Ellis, 1992, 1994). For most L2/LF learners knowledge of grammar is important to enable them to 'mean', and it is impossible to communicate beyond a very rudimentary level without grammar (Swain, 1985; Widdowson, 1990).

Despite the fact that researchers holding different stands regarding the role of grammar teaching and learning, the importance of grammar has been re-noticed and recognized in language pedagogy in recent years. Misconceptions and questionable claims are made on grammar in language teaching, as Larsen-Freeman (1997) points out:

Grammar is often misunderstood in the language teaching field. The misconception lies in the view that grammar is a collection of arbitrary rules about static structures in the language. Further questionable claims are that the structures do

not have to be taught, learners will acquire them on their own, or if the structures are taught, the lessons that ensue will be boring (Larsen-Freeman, 1997, p.1).

That is to say, grammar should be given a new role in language teaching. More importantly, grammar should act as 'Facilitator' (a means to an end) rather than as 'Terminator' (an end) to language acquisition.

C. Language Awareness and Grammar Pedagogy

Language awareness is increasingly being seen as a central goal of language education, and is gradually recognized as an indispensable approach already enshrined in teaching practice. Woods (1995, p. xiii) writes,

The cognitive methodology, with its consciousness-raising tasks, applies to learner both L1 and L2.

That is, language awareness pedagogy has been developed in grammar teaching, particularly related to consciousness-raising. Such grammar pedagogy, as Ellis (1992) also states, constitutes an approach compatible with current thinking about how learners acquired L2 grammar, and with progressive views about education as a process of discovery through problem-solving tasks. The grammar teaching for language awareness is identified with the following features (Carter & McCarthy, 1997; Ellis, 1992, 1994).

a). *a cognitive approach*

Language awareness pedagogy deliberately makes learners be aware of specific features of the target language. This pedagogy is different from memory-based grammar translation methods and drill-based audio-lingual methods. It, as Ellis (1994) notes, can help learners develop a cognitive representation of the target language features.

b). *both deductive and inductive learning*

Consciousness-raising, as Ellis (1992) points out, can be both deductive and inductive learning. Deductive language awareness teaching means that the learner is provided with a rule which they can use in order to carry out some task. Inductive language awareness pedagogy is to supply the learner with data and then ask the learner to construct an explicit rule to illustrate the grammatical feature of the language data.

c). *contribution to the acquisition of implicit knowledge*

Explicit knowledge can contribute indirectly to acquisition of implicit knowledge directly, that is, to facilitate the acquisition of the grammatical knowledge needed for communication. Ellis (1992, p.238-239) argues that a delayed effect of consciousness-raising to the acquisition of implicit knowledge occurs in two major ways.

d). *contribution to inter-language development*

Language awareness teaching contributes to noticing, re-noticing, and comparing, which are involved in the processes of acquiring language, and thus to prepare the ground for integrating new linguistic features into learners' inter-language development when the learners are developmentally ready.

To put into a broader aspect, grammar should be perceived beyond limited sentence-level of morph-syntactic structures to features of discourse, and socio-cultural rules of appropriateness of language-in-use. Hence, language awareness to grammar should be able to enhance learners' grammatical sensitivity in grammatical and pragmatic level of linguistic studies. As van-Lier (1995, p.85) points out:

Language awareness does not mean sticking your nose into a grammar book or textbook in a more intense manner, rather, it means looking up and around, and picking up your ears to hear and appreciate the language around you (van-Lier 1995, p.85).

III. Research Design and Methods

A. Research Participants

The fifty eight participants in the study were second-year students, studying at one university in the EFL context. Among them, fifty-five are female, and three male. The age of the participants ranged between 19 and 20 years old, with an average age of 18.97 years old. The participants have been studying English for 7 to 9 years, with an average of 7.09 years.

B. Research Methods:

Pre-and-post questionnaires were developed, and interviews were employed in the present study for data collections. The pre-questionnaire is composed of two main parts. The first part of it was to collect personal information of the participants, including name, gender, age and years of learning English. The second part of it has a particular focus on learner perceptions of grammar learning, including feelings, beliefs and attitudes. The pre-questionnaire was designed in the format of a Likert scale (strongly agree (SA) / agree (A)/ neutral (N)/ disagree (D) / strongly disagree (SD)). The participants were requested to circle their opinions (Ⓟ) after reading each statement). After the grammar teaching treatment, the post-questionnaire was administered to elicit perceptions of the participants. The post-questionnaire was also developed in the format of a strongly agree-strongly disagree Likert scale, containing fifteen statements. The participants were requested to circle their opinions (Ⓟ) after reading each statement. In addition, interviews were employed to collect retrospective data in the study. Ten voluntary participants were recruited for one individual structured interview after teaching treatments. The interviews were employed to triangulate research data collected from questionnaires on learner perceptions. The following four interview questions were used to elicit the interviewees' responses:

Q1. .Could you tell me something about grammar class?
Q2. What ways do you use to learn grammar?
Q3. Is there any other ways else you use to learn grammar?
Q4. Which ways you feel are more effective to learn grammar?

IV. Result and Discussion

The data collected from pre-and-post questionnaires were coded and analyzed. First of all, the reliability of questionnaires was checked by the SPSS 16.0 Statistic package tool. Cronbach's Alpha of the pre-questionnaire reads as *0.960*. Similarly, the post-questionnaire also displayed good reliability with the Cronbach's Alpha reading *0.982*. The interview data were transcribed, and are cited to support the findings drawn from the questionnaires. The results of the case study are reported and discussed in relation to the three proposed research questions in the following sections.

A. Research Question One:

To what extent may the participants change their attitudes towards and beliefs in learning grammar after receiving the teaching treatment?

The participants' feelings about grammar learning before and after teaching treatments were compared and analyzed as shown in Table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1:
FEELINGS ABOUT GRAMMAR LEARNING BEFORE & AFTER THE TEACHING
(STRONGLY AGREE=1, AGREE=2, DISAGREE=4, STRONGLY DISAGREE=5)

Code	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
FGL1	58	3.52	1.030
FGL2	58	3.36	1.119
FGL3	58	4.10	.852
ARFGL1	58	1.98	1.034
ARFGL2	58	2.53	1.127
ARFGL3	58	2.40	1.008

As seen from Table 4.1 above, the participants have showed positive changes in their feelings about grammar learning after the teaching treatment. The mean score was M =3.52 when the participants responded to the statement that 'grammar learning is challenging (coded FGL1)' before the teaching treatment. However, after teaching treatments, the mean score was changed to be M= 1.98. Similarly, the mean score was M= 3.36 in the participants' responses to the statement that 'grammar learning is interesting (coded FGL2)'. After the teaching treatment, in contrast, the mean score was reported to be M= 2.53 while responding to the same statement. The mean score was M=4.10 while the participants responded to the statement 'grammar learning is relaxing and stimulating.'

After the treatment, the mean score of the participants' responses to the same statement is M=2.40.These findings have indicated that the feelings of the participants regarding to grammar learning have changed positively after the teaching treatment. In addition, a majority of the participants, after the teaching treatment, positively changed their beliefs in learning grammar. For example, 96.5% of participants responded that they strongly agreed/agreed that learning grammar was not only a matter of memorizing rules and doing forms/patterns practice. After the treatment, 74.1% of participants responded that they strongly agreed/ agreed that 'I like to study more about grammar after grammar class.' In contrast, only 17.2% of participants responded that they liked to learn grammar before the teaching treatment. The difference is 56.9%, which is above the significant level at 10%. That is, the grammar teaching treatment appeared to have significantly changed the will of participants. In other words, they are more willing to study grammar further. A s one interviewee said,

'Reading English books or newspapers, I pay more attention to grammar whenever I study English…(S9)'

B. Research Question Two:

To what extent may the participants present different strategies of learning grammar after receiving the teaching treatment?

Table 4.2 shows that the participants' different strategies of learning grammar after the teaching treatment.

TABLE 4.2:
STRATEGIES OF GRAMMAR LEARNING

Strategies of Grammar Learning	Code	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
S.4 I pay more attention in grammar lessons.	AR 1	2.40	1.107	0.145
S.5 I talk more about grammar in grammar lessons.	AR 2	2.60	1.154	0.151
S.6 I discover the rules of grammar for myself.	AR 3	2.53	1.217	0.160
S.7 I have more confidence to learn grammar.	AR 4	2.10	0.968	0.127
S.8 I like to discuss grammar with my classmates.	AR 5	2.62	1.226	0.161
S.10 I ask my teacher more questions on grammar.	AR 6	2.78	1.060	0.139
S.11 While I am studying English, I notice the grammatical features I have learned.	AR 7	1.69	0.863	0.113

The result of the study is consistent with Fotos' study. A majority of the participants responded that they strongly agreed/agreed (M=1.69) with the statement: "While I am studying English, I notice the grammatical features I have learned." Fotos (1994) reported that the Japanese participants presented better 'noticing' in her study. The finding also confirms Ellis' (2007) view that teaching grammar with a focus on awareness-raising could help learners re-notice linguistic features in their subsequent input. That implies that the grammar teaching for language awareness is likely to be effective in terms of learners' noticing and re-noticing grammatical features in their subsequent learning of the target language. Also, the Chinese participants responded that they strongly agreed/ agreed (M=2.40) that they paid more attention in grammar lessons. One Chinese participant in the interview stated that:

'*…I pay attention to grammar whenever I learn English….(S9).'*

Moreover, the participants reported that they strongly agreed /agreed (M=2.10) that they had more confidence to learn grammar. That is, learners are likely to develop more confidence in learning grammar. The participants also strongly agreed/agreed (M=2.60) that they talked more about grammar in grammar lessons. Likewise, the participants strongly agreed /agreed (M=2.53) that they discovered the rules of grammar for themselves. These findings indicate that grammar teaching for language awareness is likely to be effective in promoting learning of grammar through discovery learning. The following two citations taken from the interview data would lay supports to the findings:

'I would like to discover the grammar problems while I am reading English articles, or book…. (S6).'

'When I read books, English newspapers, magazines or novels, I'll try my best to find grammar points out… (S10).'

After the teaching treatment, a majority of the Chinese participants also reported to develop their social strategies of learning grammar. They strongly agreed/agreed (M=2.62) that they liked to discuss grammar with their classmates. They strongly agreed/agreed (M=2.78) that they asked their teacher more grammar questions. These findings have showed that grammar teaching integrating with language awareness appears effective to help learners expand their strategies of how to learn grammar. The following three citations from interview data may provide further supports to the findings.

'I can discuss grammar questions with classmates. Make grammar rules easier to be memorized….(S4)'

'…have free time to discuss grammar questions with classmates. (S8)'.

'…Do some activities, and have some discussions on grammar (S3).'

C. Research Question Three:

To what extent may the participants change their perceptions of the relationship between learning grammar and language skills?

After the teaching treatment, the participants appeared to display positive perceptions of the relationship between grammar and English listening and speaking. Table 4.3 shows the participants' perceptions of the relationship between grammar and four language skills before and after the treatment.

TABLE 4.3:
PERCEPTIONS OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GRAMMAR AND LANGUAGE SKILLS BEFORE AND AFTER THE TEACHING TREATMENT
(STRONGLY AGREE=1, AGREE=2, DISAGREE=4, STRONGLY DISAGREE=5)

Codes	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
GSL	58	4.12	.860
GWL	58	1.71	.459
ARGSL	58	1.50	.822
ARGWL	58	1.33	.574

Before the teaching treatment, the mean score was M=4.12 when the participants responded to the statement 'Grammar lessons could improve my listening/speaking (coded GSL)' The mean score was M=1.71 when they responded to the statement 'Grammar lessons could improve my writing/reading' (coded GWL). By contrast, the mean score was M=1.50 when the participants responded to the statement 'Grammar lessons can improve my listening/speaking' (coded ARGSL) after the teaching treatment. The finding indicates that grammar teaching for language awareness could provide an interface between grammar learning and listening/speaking skills. In addition, the participants remain perceiving a close relationship between learning grammar and writing/reading skills after the teaching treatment. The mean score was M=1.33 when they responded to the statement 'Grammar lessons could improve my writing/reading (coded ARGWL)' after the treatment. The following citations from interview data provided more research data to these findings:

'.. I learn grammar from reading materials…(S5).'

'… I learn grammar by talking in English and writing passages. (S7).'

'.. Apart from remembering the grammar rules, I put grammar into use in my everyday composition… (S10).'

'… and through reading, I learn grammar…. (S1).'

'…Connect grammar with speaking, reading, listening and writing…(S9).'

V. CONCLUSION

The case study was undertaken to investigate the affective effectiveness of teaching grammar for language awareness within classroom contexts with a focus on learner perceptions such as feelings, attitudes and beliefs. Research findings have showed that the participants displayed their positive changes in feelings of, attitudes towards, and beliefs in learning grammar, and a majority of participants applied more affective-cognitive strategies to learn grammar after receiving the teaching treatment. To a greater extent, the case study has been illuminative and provided research evidence on the affective effectiveness of implementing language awareness pedagogy in the Chinese EFL context. The study has a pedagogic implication for teaching grammar for language awareness as a viable alternative approach. In the future, more research into language awareness pedagogy in global EFL contexts will give better insights into its potentials, applicability and practicability in language classrooms.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 112-120, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.112-120

EFL and ESP Learners' Use of Language Learning Strategies: A Study of Collocations

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***Abstract*—The present study was intended to explore language learning strategies used by Iranian EFL and ESP learners when dealing with collocations in reading passages. Additionally, the survey was aimed to explore differences between strategy use by EFL and ESP participants who were 182 EFL and 146 ESP learners from three universities in Isfahan, namely Islamic Azad University-Najafabad Branch, Islamic Azad University-Khorasgan Branch, and University of Isfahan. Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was used, which is a fifty-item questionnaire and participants were required to use a scale of 1 to 5 for each statement. To find the types of language learning strategies, the results were subjected to Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The PCA for both EFL and ESP participants revealed the presence of five components or factors. These factors included Metacognitive, Socio-Affective, Cognitive-Compensatory, Cognitive-Memory, and Memory-Social for EFL participants and Cognitive, Compensatory-Social, Metacognitive Memory, Cognitive-Metacognitive, and Cognitive-Affective for ESP participants. As the results indicate, EFL and ESP participants used quite different strategies. In fact, in contrast to EFL participants who preferred Social strategies, those in the ESP group resorted to Cognitive strategies. In addition, ESP participants did not seem to benefit from Affective, Social, and Memory strategies the way EFL participants did.**

***Index Terms*—language learning strategies, collocations, SILL, reading, EFL, ESP**

I. Introduction

Cognitive psychological studies have shown learners are actively involved while they are learning a second or foreign language. Since the mid-1970s such studies have shown that successful language learners develop certain learning strategies (Rubin, 1975). Numerous studies have shown the substantial efficacy of learning language strategies among EFL learners with different first language backgrounds (e.g., Hsu & Huang 2004; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). One such study is Mayer (1996) who explored vocabulary acquisition by English learners and concluded that learners using more learning strategies are more responsible for learning and more proficient. Another study conducted by Lawson and Hogben (1996) showed that learners who utilize more learning strategies had better performance than other learners on learning vocabulary.

Oxford (1990) outlined a host of learning and communication strategies that have been successful among learners. Her taxonomy includes direct and indirect strategies, which are classified as six categories; for example, metacognitive ones which direct EFL learners to make necessary adaptations to their own learning. regulate their learning. The other categories consist of Affective strategies, the ones related to emotions and affects, social strategies, the ones related to requirements necessary to interact with the language of the target community. Similarly, there are Cognitive, memory, and compensation strategies (For a more comprehensive introduction of these strategies, see Oxford, 1990).

The use of such strategies while learning collocations makes language learning more efficient and leads to positive effects on learners' language (O'Mally & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1996; Wenden & Rubin, 1987). Within the same line of research, raising awareness of collocations for students is necessary as Herbst (1996) stated "competence in a language involves knowledge about collocations" (p. 389), and a reading course is a means by which teachers can help students learn collocations much more efficiently. One common problem EFL/ESL learners encounter is that they have difficulties with reading comprehension; therefore, providing them with concrete strategies for approaching reading tasks is necessary (Malena & Atwood-Coker, 1987).

Research has also demonstrated that explicit instruction of reading strategies can improve the reading comprehension skills of students, and students lacking these skills who receive such instruction often become indistinguishable from more skilled readers (Dowhower, 1999). Research has indicated that skilled and less so skilled readers employ quite different strategies while dealing with a particular text. While the former prefer strategies such as paraphrasing and making the information more individual, the latter do not seem to resort to any special strategies, except underlining and repeated reading (Dowhower, 1999).

Both research and classroom observation have shown that many language learners find it difficult to use collocations correctly and appropriately and previous studies have indicated that even advanced EFL learners have some common problems with collocations (e.g., Farghal & Obiedat, 1995).

It has generally been found that in many reading classes even in situations where teachers devote much time teaching collocations and students spend plenty of time learning their meaning and practicing them through different tasks and activities, results have been disappointing, and still students have a lot of problems to recall, relate, and use collocations they have learned.

Although language learning strategies, as a part of the language learning process, have received much attention in the late 1970s in different areas of EFL learning in Iran, few studies have considered the use of strategies for learning collocations among Iranian EFL and ESP learners in reading classes. This study was intended to investigate different strategies used by Iranian EFL learners to learn collocations while reading English texts. The purpose of the study is to look for empirical support exploring different strategies used by EFL and ESP learners in order to learn collocations and to find out whether there is any difference between performance of EFL and ESP learners in learning collocations through reading. If learners know these strategies, they will be more active in the language learning process making them more efficient and positive in their approach to learning (Hedge, 1993), and finally, the knowledge of learning strategies has an effect on learners' motivation, self-efficacy, autonomy, and language proficiency which results in the ultimate aim of language learning.

Based on the above-mentioned considerations the following research questions are formulated:

1-What language learning strategies are used by Iranian intermediate EFL learners while dealing with collocations in reading classes?

2- What language learning strategies are used by Iranian intermediate ESP learners while dealing with collocations in reading classes?

II. Methodology

A. Participants

Iranian EFL and ESP learners were the population of the study. In order to choose the participants, two groups were formed. The EFL participants were 182 intermediate EFL undergraduate students, consisting of 65 males and 117 females, majoring in Translation and TEFL. These participants were selected from a sample of 250 EFL learners based on the Solution Placement Test (Edwards, 2007). The ESP participants were 146 undergraduate students (selected from a larger sample of 185 ESP learners after taking the placement test) majoring in Electronics, Nursing, and Medicine. Of these participants, 58 were male and 88 were female. All the participants were from IAU-Najafabad Branch, University of Isfahan, and IAU-Khorasgan Branch.

To ensure the homogeneity of the EFL and ESP groups, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results of the t-test comparing the EFL group (M = 36.10, SD = 1.71) and ESP group (M = 36.14, SD = 1.64) showed no significant difference in proficiency, $t_{(326)} = .25$, $p = .84$.

B. Instrumentation

The instruments employed in this study were Solution Placement Test, a Collocation Test, and Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990).

First, to make sure that the ESP and EFL participants of the study were homogeneous in terms of language proficiency, Solution Placement Test was used. The test has three independent parts: 50 multiple-choice tests targeting grammar and knowledge of vocabulary, 10 items checking participants reading comprehension, and a writing task.

McCarthy and O'Dell's (2007) and Marks and Wooder's (2007) were the main sources of the test, consisting 15 multiple-choice items following reading passages. Considering the fact that the test was researcher made, it was imperative that the reliability and validity of the test be checked. To do so, it was first piloted on a sample of EFL/ESP learners who were similar to the participants of the study, especially in terms of foreign language proficiency. The results of the pilot study were subjected to KR-21, which indicated that the test had a relatively high internal consistency (r = 0.79).

In addition to being reliable, it was critical for the test to be valid too. Therefore, the test was given to three experts in the field. This was done because as Chapelle (1994) pointed out "construct validity is central to all facets of validity inquiry, as most researchers have agreed for some time" (p. 161). Based on the experts' feedback, some minor changes were made.

Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) is the version of the test used for speakers of other languages learning English (Oxford, 1990). It consists of 50 close-ended questions with a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 5. In fact, the participants read the items, and then give a scale of 1 to 5 based on the instruction given.

C. Procedure

After choosing the participants and placing them in relevant groups, EFL and ESP intermediate learners in each group took the collocation test. In this section, they were asked to read a passage, containing different collocations, and

then they were instructed to complete the test. After that, the questionnaire (SILL) was given to the participants and they were asked to remember the strategies they have used while learning collocations in reading.

III. Results

A. EFL Questionnaire

PCA was run to analyze the fifty items of 'the strategy inventory for language learning' (SILL). In order to be sure if PCA or Factor Analysis must be run, data's suitability must be confirmed. The results showed that the correlation matrix enjoyed plenty of coefficients which were at least .30. Similarly, to ensure the factorability, KMO was run, which was .69 (more than the suggested value of .60 put forward by Kaiser, 1970; 1974). For a similar purpose, the results indicated statistical significance for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, as suggested by Bartlett (1954). The results of the analysis can be seen in Table 1 which presents the results of KMO and Bartlett's Test for EFL participants.

TABLE 1.
RESULTS OF KMO AND BARTLETT'S FOR EFL PARTICIPANTS

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.69
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4.84
	Df	1225
	Sig.	.000

The results of PCA or Factor Analysis revealed the presence of five components (factors), which is to a great extent compatible with Oxford's (1989) six categories of language learning strategies. The results indicate five components, with eigenvalues exceeding 1, constitute 19.755%, 6.437%, 5.707%, 4.665%, and 4.538% of the variance, respectively.

Table 2 shows the results of factor analysis, 'Rotated Component Matrix' for EFL participants, for 50 items in the questionnaire. As mentioned above, the results from the questionnaire yielded five factors.

TABLE 2.
ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX FOR EFL PARTICIPANTS

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
38. I think about my progress in learning SL.	.779				
37. I have clear goals for improving my SL skills.	.686				
31. I pay attention to my lapses and benefit from them to perform better.	.647				
32. I try to notice as others are speaking SL.	.624				
33. I do my best to become a better SL learner.	.549				
12. I practice the sounds of SL.	.532				
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my SL.	.476				
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in SL.	.471				
22. I try not to translate word for word.	.449				
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in the SL.	.428				
20. I try to find patterns in the SL.	.410				
24. To understand unfamiliar SL words, I make guesses.	.393				
10. I say or write new SL words several times.	.333				
27. I read SL without looking up every new word.					
47. I practice SL with other students.		.780			
3. I try to remember the word by making connection between the sound of new words and a mental picture.		.612			
48. I ask for help from SL speakers.		.610			
14. I start conversations in the SL.		.568			
40. I encourage myself to speak SL even when I am afraid of making a mistake.		.519			
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using SL.		.511			
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning SL.		.496			
11. I try to talk like native SL speakers.		.494			
49. I ask questions in SL.		.494			
5. I use rhymes to remember new SL words.		.429			
50. I try to learn about the culture of SL speakers.		.399			
6. I use flashcards to remember new SL words.			.628		
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in the SL.			.574		
21. I try to figure the meaning of SL words breaking them into parts.			.540		
15. I watch SL language TV shows spoken in SL or go to movies spoken in SL.			.538		
35. I look for people I can talk to in SL.			.516		
2. I use new SL words in a sentence so I can remember them.			.513		
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study SL.			.495		
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in SL.			.389		
25. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in the SL, I use gestures.			.357		
16. I read for pleasure in the SL.			.306		
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in the SL.				.562	
29. I try to use a similar word, if I can't find an SL word.				.528	
18. I first skim an SL passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.				.502	
1. I make relationships between things I know and the ones I learn.				.496	
9. I try not to forget new words by remembering their locations.				.480	
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in the SL.				.468	
8. I review SL lessons often.				.461	
13. I use the SL words I know in different ways.				.446	
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using SL.				-.313	
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in the SL.					
4. I never forget a new word if I make an image of the place where it is used.					.613
46. I ask SL speakers to correct me when I talk.					.591
45. If I do not get a point in SL, I ask the interlocutors to repeat themselves.					.567
43. I keep a diary of my feelings.					.477
7. I physically act out new SL words.					-.432

B. EFL Learners' Use of Language Learning Strategies

The first research question of the study was intended to explore what language learning strategies Iranian intermediate EFL learners use in reading classes while dealing with collocations. It is essential to reiterate that the results of PCA revealed five components or factors. Factor 1, the largest component of language learning motivation for the EFL sample, 19.755% of all the items' variance, has a heavy loading from 13 statements (38, 37, 31, 32, 33, 12, 30, 36, 22, 17, 20, 24, and 10), such as '*I think about my progress in learning SL*,' '*I have clear goals for improving my SL skills*', '*I pay attention to my lapses and benefit from them to perform better*', '*I try to notice as others are speaking SL*', and '*I do my best to become a better SL learner*'. These items along with some other statements presented in Table 2 refer to underlying psychological conditions for learning which are characterized in Oxford's (1989) 'Metacognitive' strategy category. Therefore, Factor 1 was named '*Metacognitive*'.

In addition, the table presents the other factors as well. Factor 2, with 6.437% of all the items' variance, has a loading from 11 statements (47, 3, 48, 14, 40, 39, 44, 11, 49, 5, and 50), such as '*I practice SL with other students*', '*I ask for help from SL speakers*', '*I ask questions in SL*' which mainly correspond to Oxford's Social strategy, and '*I encourage myself to speak SL even when I am afraid of making a mistake*', '*I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using SL*', and '*I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning SL*' which are related to Oxford's Affective strategy. Therefore, it can be said that the second factor, Factor 2, for the EFL participants of the study can be labeled '*Social-Affective*'.

Factor 3, with 5.707% of all the items' variance, receives a loading from 10 statements (6, 28, 21, 15, 35, 2, 34, 41, 25, and 16), such as '*I find the meaning of an SL word by dividing it into parts that I understand*', '*I find the meaning of an SL word by dividing it into parts that I understand*', and '*I read for pleasure in the SL*', which match Oxford's Cognitive strategy, and '*I try to predict what my interlocutors will say next*' and '*When I can't find a suitable word during a conversation in the SL, I use gestures*' which correspond with Oxford's Compensatory strategy. Consequently, Factor 3 can be named '*Cognitive-Compensatory*'.

Similarly, Factor 4, with 4.665% of all the items' variance, receives a loading from 9 statements (23, 29, 18, 1, 9, 26, 8, 13, and 42), such as '*I make a short summary of what I face in the SL*', '*I first skim the passage then read it carefully*', and '*I use the SL words I know in different ways*', which again refer to Oxford's Cognitive strategy, and '*I make relationships between things I know and the ones I learn'*, '*I try not to forget new words by remembering their locations*', and '*I review SL lessons often*', which are Oxford's Memory strategy. Therefore, it can be mentioned that Factor 4 can be labeled '*Cognitive-Memory*'.

Finally, Factor 5, with 4.538% of all the items' variance, receives a loading from 5 statements (4, 46, 45, 43, and 7), such as '*I try not to forget new words by remembering their locations*', which come from Oxford's Memory strategy, and '*I expect correction from SL speakers when I am talking*' and '*If I do not get a point in SL, I ask the interlocutors to repeat themselves*' which come from Oxford's Social strategy. Thus Factor 5 can be called '*Memory-Social*'.

In sum, as the results of Principal Component Analysis show, the Iranian EFL learners use five sets of strategies when dealing with collocations in reading passages, namely Metacognitive, Social-Affective, Cognitive-Compensatory, Cognitive-Memory, and Memory-Social.

C. ESP Questionnaire

PCA was run to analyze the fifty items of 'the strategy inventory for language learning' (SILL). In order to be sure if PCA or Factor Analysis must be run, data's suitability must be confirmed. The results showed that the correlation matrix enjoyed plenty of coefficients which were at least .30. Similarly, to ensure the factorability, KMO was run, which was .70 (more than the suggested value of .60 put forward by Kaiser, 1970; 1974). For a similar purpose, the results indicated statistical significance for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, as suggested by Bartlett (1954). The results of the analysis for the ESP participants can be seen in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF KMO AND BARTLETT'S FOR ESP PARTICIPANTS

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.7
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4.99
	Df	1225
	Sig.	.000

Similar to the results of EFL participants, Principal Component Analysis revealed the existence of five components (factors) for ESP participants. Results indicate five components, with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explain 14.987%, 6.815%, 6.233%, 5.476%, and 4.584% of the variance, respectively.

Table 4 shows the results of factor analysis, rotated component matrix for ESP participants, for 50 items in the ESP questionnaire. As mentioned above, the results from the questionnaire yielded five factors.

TABLE 4.
ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIX FOR EFL PARTICIPANTS

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in SL.	.661				
11. I try to talk like native SL speakers.	.644				
14. I start conversations in the SL.	.630				
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in the SL.	.621				
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my SL.	.558				
16. I read for pleasure in the SL.	.541				
49. I ask questions in SL.	.488				
40. I encourage myself to speak SL even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	.484				
15. I watch SL language TV shows spoken in SL or go to movies spoken in SL.	.467				
12. I practice the sounds of SL.	.441				
13. I try to employ SL words in a variety of ways.	.390				
2. I try to contextualize new words so than I remember them.	.351				
21. I try to figure the meaning of SL words breaking them into parts.		.682			
20. I find patterns in the SL.		.610			
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in the SL.		.578			
48. I ask for help from SL speakers.		.543			
25. When I don't remember a word talking in the SL, I try to use gestures.		.542			
27. When reading, I don't check every word in a dictionary.		.485			
45. If I do not get a point in SL, I ask the interlocutors to repeat themselves.		.438			
1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in the SL.		.436			
35. I look for people I can talk to in SL.		.434			
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking SL.			.710		
24. To understand unfamiliar SL words, I make guesses.			.634		
22. I try not to translate word for word.			.564		
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of SL.			.519		
50. I try to learn about the culture of SL speakers.			.518		
7. I physically act out new SL words.			.423		
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using SL.			.420		
3. I try to remember the word by making connection between the sound of new words and a mental picture.			.352		
23. I make a short summary of what I face in the SL.			.300		
5. I use rhymes to remember new SL words.				.615	
43. I keep a diary of my feelings.				.549	
44. I try to communicate about my feelings when learning SL.				.522	
31. I notice my SL mistakes and use that information to help me do better.				.478	
47. I practice SL with other students.				.469	
6. I use flashcards to remember new SL words.				.447	
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in the SL.				.400	
37. I have clear goals for improving my SL skills.				.396	
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in the SL.				.370	
38. I think about my progress in learning SL.				.309	
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using SL.					.628
8. I review SL lessons often.					.612
29. I try to use a similar word, if I can't find an SL word.					.599
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study SL.					.559
9. I try not to forget new words by remembering their locations.					.521
46. I ask SL speakers to correct me when I talk.					.449
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in SL.					.385
18. I first skim an SL passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.					.356
4. I never forget a new word if I make an image of the place where it is used.					.334
10. I say or write new SL words several times.					.330

D. ESP Learners' Use of Language Learning Strategies

Similarly, the second research question was aimed to investigate the types of language learning strategies Iranian intermediate ESP learners use in reading classes while dealing with collocations. Like the results of PCA for EFL participants, the results revealed the presence of five components or factors. Actually, Factor 1, the largest component of language learning motivation for the ESP sample, 14.987 % of all the items' variance, has a heavy loading from 12 statements (36, 11, 14, 17, 30, 16, 49, 40, 15, 12, 13, and 2), such as '*I try to talk like native SL speakers*,' '*I start conversations in the SL*', '*I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in the SL*', '*I read for pleasure in the SL*', and '*I watch SL language TV shows spoken in SL or go to movies spoken in SL*'. These items along with some other statements presented in Table 4 refer to underlying psychological conditions for learning which are characterized in Oxford's (1989) 'Cognitive' strategy category. Therefore, Factor 1 was named '*Cognitive*'.

In addition, the table presents the other factors as well. Factor 2, with 6.815% of all the items' variance, has a loading from 9 statements (21, 20, 26, 48, 25, 27, 45, 1, and 35), such as '*I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in the SL*', '*When I don't remember a word talking in the SL, I try to use gestures*', and '*When reading, I don't check every word in a dictionary'* which mainly correspond to Oxford's Compensatory strategy, and '*I ask native speakers to help me*' and '*If I do not get a point in SL, I ask the interlocutors to repeat themselves*', which are related to Oxford's Social strategy. Therefore, it can be said that the second factor, Factor 2, for the EFL participants of the study can be labeled '*Compensatory-Social*'.

Factor 3, with 6.233% of all the items' variance, receives a loading from 9 statements (24, 22, 33, 50, 7, 42, 3, and 23), such as '*I try to notice as others are speaking SL*' and '*I do my best to become a better SL learner*', which match Oxford's Metacognitive strategy, and '*I try to remember the word by making connection between the sound of new words and a mental picture*' which corresponds with Oxford's Memory strategy. Consequently, Factor 3 can be named '*Metacognitive-Memory*'.

Similarly, Factor 4, with 5.476% of all the items' variance, receives a loading from 10 statements (5, 43, 44, 31, 47, 6, 28, 37, 19, and 38), such as '*I use rhymes to remember new SL words*', '*I use flashcards to remember new SL words*', and '*I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in the SL*', which again refer to Oxford's Cognitive strategy, and '*I notice my SL mistakes and use that information to help me do better*', '*I have clear goals for improving my SL skills*', and '*I think about my progress in learning SL*', which are Oxford's Metacognitive strategy. Therefore, it can be mentioned that Factor 4 can be labeled '*Cognitive-Metacognitive*'.

Finally, Factor 5, with 4.584% of all the items' variance, receives a loading from 10 statements (39, 8, 29, 34, 9, 46, 41, 18, 4, and 10), such as '*I frequently go over SL lessons*' and '*I try not to forget new words by remembering their locations*', which come from Oxford's Cognitive strategy, and '*I relax when I am scared of using SL*' and '*I reward or treat myself when I successfully use SL*' which come from Oxford's Affective strategy. Thus Factor 5 can be called '*Cognitive –Affective*'.

In sum, as the results of Principal Component Analysis show, the Iranian ESP learner participants of the study used five sets of strategies when dealing with collocations in reading passages, namely Cognitive, Compensatory-Social, Metacognitive Memory, Cognitive-Metacognitive, and Cognitive-Affective. As can be seen from the results, ESP participants used cognitive strategies more than any other strategy.

IV. Conclusion

The results can be compared with several similar studies. It seems necessary to mention that, originally, using factor analysis, Oxford (1989) categorized the SILL strategy groups. Oxford's attempts resulted in six factors or components, which were intended to have enough items to make a thorough understanding of learning strategies much easier for ESL/EFL learners. These strategies included *Memory*, *Cognitive*, *Compensation, Metacognitive, Affective (emotional, motivation-related), Social strategies*.

As can be seen from the results and discussion presented above, cognitive strategies form the largest category. The reason is that research has indicated that such strategies are quite versatile because of having greatest diversity. As Oxford and Ehrman (1995) pointed out this strategy contributes to a deep processing in which when learners are faced with new information, they try to analyze or synthesize it.

Another study which employed a similar factor analysis was Mochizuki (1999) who examined the kinds of strategies Japanese university students used as well as the kinds of factors that affect the learner's choice of strategies. Studying the Second Grade Test of the Society of Testing English Proficiency (STEP), he concluded that Japanese university students used compensation strategies the most often and affective ones the least. In addition, he found that more proficient participants used cognitive and metacognitive strategies more frequently than less proficient ones.

In a similar study, Kato (2005) concluded that as long as using and benefitting from strategies were concerned, his participants were average strategy users. As long as the distinction between the two genders is concerned Kato found that compensation strategies were more popular for girl students, while boys tended to resort to social ones. Using Factor Analysis, Kato presented five factors for Japanese university students, namely *Metacognitive-Affective Strategies* (Factor 1), *Memory-Compensation Strategies* (Factor 2), *Social Strategies* (Factor 3), *Cognitive Strategies* (Factor 4), and *Entrance-Exam-Measured Strategies* (Factor 5).

More recently, however, Al-Jabali (2012) investigated the level of use of foreign language learning strategies, examining their development in terms of the study-semester and gender variables by 45 Jordanian undergraduate

English Language Majors. His results indicated for all strategies college students majoring TEFL were high strategy users. They preferred Metacognitive strategies more than the other strategies. After metacognitive strategies Jordanian university students were high users of Social, Compensation, Affective, Cognitive, and Memory strategies. In addition, the study did not find any significant difference between male and female's preference of strategies.

The results of the study can have several pedagogical implications for language classes. First of all, teachers' familiarity with language learning strategies and the role they play in language learning can help them have a better understanding of the learning process. Therefore, it is imperative for teachers to become aware of such language learning strategies, which gives them a better insight of their job. In addition, the results show that language learning strategies can be implemented in various skills and subskills. Previous research has proved that these strategies result in better performance by language learners in different skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and certain subskills, such as vocabulary and grammar. This study, with the special focus on the efficacy of language learning strategies on collocations has indicated that developing such strategies in language learners (both EFL and ESP learners) does result in better learning of language, in general, and developing reading abilities in particular.

Other studies can be conducted to examine the efficacy of language learning strategies on other skills and subskills. This study dealt with the effects of language learning strategies while EFL and ESP learners are using collocations in reading passages. The same strategies can be investigated with other skills and subskills, such as writing and speaking. As mentioned in the previous section, one of the limitations of the study was that it was not possible to ask the participants about their feelings and thoughts at the time of using or choosing the strategies. Having interviews with participants, using introspection, and think-aloud protocols can be ideal candidates for further research. Another interesting area of research can be strategy training (Cubukcu, 2007) in which teachers are made aware of learning strategies more explicitly. Finally, asking teachers about language learning strategies is yet another interesting topic for further investigation. It is obvious that teachers are expected to become familiar with different aspects of language learning and teaching. It is believed that language teachers must become familiar with language learning strategies which will improve their cognition.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 121-126, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.121-126

Overuse and Underuse of English Concluding Connectives: A Corpus Study

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***Abstract*—The use of connectives has always been a tough nut to crack for Second Language Learners of English. For example, the use of English concluding connectives like "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least, eventually, and ultimately", appears to be especially problematic. The study shows that there are significant overuses of "all in all, in conclusion, and Last but not least" for Chinese learners on the one hand, and under-uses of "eventually and ultimately" for them on the other hand. This may result from their lack of proper understanding of each concluding connective's functions in the discourse. The paper makes a study of the meaning and use of those English concluding connectives by studying BNC(British National Corpus) and SWECCL (Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners), also using definitions, and examples from Collins COBUILD Dictionary, as well as comparing native speakers' use with that of Chinese learners' English.**

***Index Terms*—concluding connectives, corpus, discourse marker**

I. Introduction

Connectives are the glue that holds a text together. They join clauses together in a sentence, and they join sentences in a long piece of writing (accessed from www.paelv.edu.ar). Connectives don't have to be just one word. They can be phrases like 'in conclusion' or 'in the end'. Connectives have been called cohesive conjunctions (Halliday and Hasan, 1976), logical connectors (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973), or metadiscoursal markers (Vande Kopple, 2002). In the literature on second language acquisition, the use of connectives has repeatedly been mentioned as a problem area for learners of English, regardless of their mother tongue (for example, Granger and Tyson, 1996; Silva, 1993). Overuse, under-use, and misuse have been reported, with overuse being the most predominant, leading to problems of coherence or readability of the discourse. Conversely, the skilful use of connectives has been identified as a hallmark of language proficiency, reflective of the stage of development of both native and non-native speakers' writing (Goldman and Murray, 1992; Johnson, 1992; Lorenz, 1997). It is not surprising, therefore, that connectives have remained an area of major concern, especially at an advanced stage of second language development. In commenting on the way forward, researchers (for example, Granger and Tyson, 1996; Lorenz, 1997) have emphasized the importance of not treating connectives in a wholesale fashion, but rather, investigating them individually to identify their various patterns of functions and meanings in L1, as compared with those in L2. To shed further light on learners' problems, it would also be essential to examine learners' inter-language to uncover problems either due to L1 transfer or language universals. At the same time, as a pedagogical aid, a good dictionary of connectives would be crucial (Granger and Tyson, 1996) (as cited in Yeung, 2009). In the past decade, more research has been done in uses of connectives. It is found that form-focused instruction with explicit semantic, stylistic and syntactic properties can help learning of connectives (Tseng and Liou, 2006). Bolden finds the discourse marker 'so' is a resource for establishing discourse coherence and, more fundamentally, accomplishing understanding (Bolden, 2009). Charles investigates connectives of result in the writing of advanced academic student writers, which finds the wider discourse context could provide a rationale for the choice of both the individual connective itself and the most appropriate phraseology (Charles, 2011).

In response to the above, this paper makes an attempt to study the concluding connectives, like "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least, eventually, and ultimately", which appears to be especially problematic. The study shows that there are significant overuses of "all in all, in conclusion, and Last but not least" for Chinese learners on the one hand, and under-uses of "eventually and ultimately" for them on the other hand. This may result from their lack of proper understanding of each concluding connective's functions in the discourse. The paper makes a study of the meaning and use of those English concluding connectives by studying BNC(British National Corpus) and SWECCL (Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners), using definitions, and examples from Collins COBUILD Dictionary, as well as comparing native speakers' use with that of Chinese learners' English .

The concluding connectives are used to indicate that speaker is making final statements that cover all the supporting arguments in a very general way. The concluding connectives "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least , eventually, and ultimately "are typically overused or underused by Chinese learners. The existing literature gives little account of concluding connectives.

In the light of the above case, this study mainly focuses on the following points:

a) The kind of problems that may appear when learners do not have the proper understanding of the use of the concluding connectives "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least, eventually, and ultimately" mentioned above.

b) The typical patterns of use of those connectives in standard English and their functions in English discourses.

c) Pedagogical implications of the findings.

II. Methodology

A. Selection of Corpora

1. Experts' corpora

The study is carried out through checking BNC (British National Corpus) and Collins COBUILD Dictionary on CD-ROM 2006(COBUILD), downloaded at random from the Internet.

2. Learners' corpus

The learner corpus SWECCL (Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners) comprises Chinese learners' argumentative and expository essays (4,560,029 words).

B. Analytical Methods

1. Frequency count

A frequency count was made of the instances of use of "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least, eventually, and ultimately" in the native speakers' corpora. As there was a register difference in the native speakers' corpora, the genres in the corpora were noted for comparison with those in the learners' corpus (Yeung, 2009). The frequencies of occurrence of "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least, eventually, and ultimately" in the experts' and learners' corpora were also compared. Frequency of occurrence was taken as an indicator of the norm of usage in the respective corpora.

2. Discourse analysis

In the classical study on cohesion, Halliday and Hasan (1976) pointed out the pragmatic function of connectives in signaling a change in speech acts. Halliday and Hasan (1976) also stressed the importance of the surrounding text in the choice of the right connective. According to them, it is not the connectives themselves that reach out independently to bind the sentences together, but rather it is the particular discourse environment or the logic of the text that calls for the use of a particular connective (Yeung, 2009).

TABLE 1
FREQUENCIES OF CONCLUDING CONNECTIVES IN SWECCL VS. BNC

	SWECCL				BNC			
Connective	Item(s)	PER MIL	Written PER MIL	Spoken PER MIL	Item(s)	PER MIL	Written PER MIL	Spoken PER MIL
Ultimately	15	3.2895	3.0702	0.2193	2813	29.43	26.75	1.38
Eventually	81	17.763	14.693	3.0702	8781	91.88	81.73	6.08
Last but not least	133	29.166	26.096	3.0702	47	0.49	0.45	0.02
in conclusion	220	48.245	44.298	3.9473	294	3.08	2.7	0.24
all in all	377	82.675	77.192	5.4824	298	3.12	2.77	0.21

III. Findings

A. Frequencies Compared

The table shows, there exist vast differences of frequencies of the concluding connectives between the Chinese learners and the native speakers. Obviously, there are significant overuses of "all in all, in conclusion, and Last but not least" for Chinese learners, where the frequencies of them among per million tokens respectively are 82.675, 48.245, and 29.166 in SWECCL, compared with 3.12, 3.08, and 0.49 in BNC. On the other hand, there are under-uses of "eventually and ultimately" for Chinese learners, where the frequencies of them among per million tokens respectively are 17.763 and 3.2895, compared with 91.88 and 29.43 in BNC. The discourse analysis below will explain why the Chinese learners overuse or under-use those connectives.

B. Discourse Patterns of Use: Use of "All in All, in Conclusion, Last But Not Least, Eventually, or Ultimately", as a Connective in the Learners' Corpus vs. BNC and COBUILD.

In COBUILD, "all in all" is defined to be used to introduce a summary or general statement.

Example 1

All in all, it is a pretty unconvincing picture.

If you say that children are completely non-rational then you have to account for the fact that they become rational, and to do that it appears from these examples that you have to assume that they already are.

Example 2

All I wish to do here is to suggest that there are other ways of understanding or looking at extremes of penitential life which can suggest in them sources, not of neurotic repression but of freedom and self-ownership.

All I would be was a punchbag for his escaping fury, the entity he saw as a new unbearable threat to his dominance in Tremayne's stable; the interloper, usurper, legitimate target.

All in a flurry of dust it came towards her and then she heard Ferdinando shout her name and the neighing of the horse as it was pulled in and she trembled as she opened her eyes and looked up.

All in all, it's more difficult to evaluate an actor's work on screen, particularly as actors are usually cast in a film for their total credibility in a role and the camera work is such an intrinsic part of the final effect.

All in all, it is submitted that the claim that there is a risk of liability under section 2 of the Suicide Act does not serve as a valid justification for ignoring the request of the patient that treatment be discontinued.

All in all, it seems to have diverted De Niro's energies away from the more serious and interesting business of Tribeca Productions, and in future, it may even start to eat into company funds (accessed from www.cis.hut.fi).

All in all, the entire Labour package is a massive con-trick, which a sinister shadow cabinet, behind its smiling mask of reassurance, is even now preparing to abandon under the narcotic influence of power.

Example 1 and 2 are from BNC. In example 1, “all in all” is used to introduce a general statement, while in example 2, the four repeated occurrences of “all in all” are for emphatic purposes, equivalent to “after all”.

Example 3

All in all, I believe that the function of university education is more to promote one's important of quality than to find a well-paid job. And with all these function, our college students will be have a fruitful life and successful career in future.

Like example 3 in SWECCL, it seems to show that almost every connective of “all in all” is used to introduce a summary rather than a general statement or to emphasize some point.

In COBUILD, “In conclusion” is defined to be used to indicate that what you are about to say is the last thing that you want to say.

Example 4

The charges can not leave the wire so they will accumulate at the outer and inner surface of the ring until a radial electric field is produced that will cancel the force due to the magnetic field.

In conclusion, I wish to emphasize that all the charge rearrangements discussed in this section occur very fast, much faster than the period of oscillation of the magnetic field.

Example 4 from BNC indicates that “in conclusion” is used to finish what the speaker wants to say.

Example 5

In conclusion, university education is not only to prepare for employment. It also provides us a lot of other useful things we need to learn.

Example 5 from SWECCL indicates that “in conclusion” is used to summarize what the speaker has said.

In COBUILD, “last but not least” is defined to be used to say that the last person or thing to be mentioned is as important as all the others.

Example 6

Interested listeners might look to the less renowned record labels, such as Capriccio in Germany, which has issued a superb recording of Mozart songs by Mitsuko Shirai, a soprano, and her pianist-husband Hartmut Hoell. And, last but not least, they might re-read the scores while listening. Perhaps the most laudable project of the Mozart bicentenary is the publishing by Baerenreiter Verlag in Kassel of the complete musical scores in paperback, a 20-volume set at a reasonable price. Unlike any interpretation, however persuasive, the notes on the page are, after all, what the man wrote (accessed from http://corpus.byu.edu/bnc/).

Example 6 from BNC indicates that “last but not least” is used to emphasize what the writer will say in the end is as important as what he said before: the listeners should re-read the scores while listening to the recording.

Example 7

In conclusion, may I take this opportunity of thanking the Chief Executive and Directors of Plantsbrook Group, the National Secretary, the Officers, Administration Secretary and the Staff at the National Office and, last but not least, my colleagues at work for all their support during the past twelve months.

Example 7 from BNC indicates that “last but not least” can not only be placed before a clause like in example 6, but also before a word group.

Example 8

So reading skill can improve your speaking indirectly in this way. Last but not the least, reading, somehow can be your own business, so it's a convenient way for you to communicate with yourself without being disturbed.

Example 8 from SWECCL indicates that “last but not least”, placed at the beginning of the last sentence of a passage, is used to emphasize that the last item is as important as the previous items.

In COBUILD, “eventually” is defined to mean “in the end”, especially after a lot of delays, problems, or arguments.

Example 9

From, from Yugoslavia, and we, we heard provisionally he was released about August didn't we, and then eventually a couple of months ago that he had definitely released, erm, and, were, were very pleased about that cos was he released before the end of his term, he must have been?

Example 9 from BNC indicates "eventually" meaning after "a couple of months' delays" he was released in the end.

Example 10

Apparently, KFC are developing much better than MacDonald's during one decade. KFC gradually expand its shops in large rate, which eventually make it domain the fast-food market of China. To the contrary, KFC's opponent, MacDonald's seems put not much priority on China market. Its smaller investment make it lost the domain of the market it should have obtained as what it has done in the USA.

Example 10 from SWECCL indicates "eventually" meaning the end of a situation, i.e. after solving a lot of problems KFC dominates the fast-food market of China.

In COBUILD, "ultimately" is defined: first, to mean finally, after a long and often complicated series of events.; and second, to indicate that what you are saying is the most important point in a discussion.

Example 11

As the audience take their seats for "Pamela" we can hear, from the onstage tannoy, stage management calls and, ultimately, an announcement: "Ladies and Gentlemen, please take your seats in the main auditorium; this afternoon's performance of "Coriolanus" is about to begin." As the music and dialogue of the offstage production begin, a member of the "Pamela " cast turns the volume off (accessed from http://corpus.byu.edu/bnc/).

"Ultimately" in example 11 from BNC means a long and often complicated series of events, i.e. the audience can hear stage management calls and, ultimately, an announcement.

Example 12

Public Relations is, ultimately, everyone's responsibility. everybody involved -- especially those in day to day contact with # 58B # potential customers -- must be AWARE of the effect their appearance, and that of the site, their manner and behaviour has on these very important people. Some are born ambassadors -- others need tuition. # 58C # WHEN the work is complete, some Regions take the trouble to invite local dignitaries to come and cut the proverbial tape. This is a great idea -- why don't we do it

"Ultimately" in example 12 from BNC means what the speaker is saying is the most important point in a discussion, i.e. Public Relations is, ultimately, everyone's responsibility.

Example 13

To sum up, education is a lifelong process. It could render us a stronger sense of security, ultimately bringing to us a healthy and blessed life, and thus is a advisable choice

"Ultimately" in example 13 from SWECCL means finally, after a long series of events, i.e. work hard, keep on learning, and so on, it will bring to us a healthy and blessed life.

IV. Analysis

A. Pragmatic Functions of "Concluding Connectives" –Learners' And Experts' Corpora Compared

In general, learners use the concluding connectives like "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least, eventually, and ultimately", in ways which deviate from the ones identified in the expert corpus. Such deviations can be summarized as follows:

a) Use of "all in all" is used to introduce a summary rather than introduce a general statement or emphasize some point.

b) Use of "in conclusion" is used to summarize what the speaker has said rather than what the speaker wants to say.

c) Use of "last but not least" is used to emphasize that the last item is as important as the previous items rather than to say that the last person or thing to be mentioned is as important as all the others.

d) Use of "eventually" meaning the end of a situation after solving a lot of problems rather than after a lot of delays, problems, or arguments.

e) Use of "ultimately" is used to mean "finally", after a long series of events rather than to indicate that what the speaker is saying is the most important point in a discussion.

From the above, it seems that a lack of awareness of how each concluding connective functions as a discourse marker can lead to learners' overuse and under-use of the connective

B. The Question of L1 Transfer

There appear to be several reasons for the learners' ineptness in using the concluding connectives. Direct language transfer from what is known as a "false friend" (James, 1998) in their first language seems to be the least important. Developmental problems, which are more universally shared, appear to be far more important (Yeung, 2009).

Some Chinese learners may just translate literally their connectives from Chinese into English, which may lead to overuse or under-use of some connectives. For instance, the Chinese connective expression "zǒng zhī" may be misleadingly translated as "in conclusion", "zhōng yú" as "eventually", and "zuì hòu" as "Ultimately".

"Last but not least" has become a cliché in Chinese learners' writings, which may result from their imitations of some writing templates given by the teachers in the test training courses such as CET-4(College English Test Band 4), CET-6(College English Test Band 4), IELTS, etc.

V. Pedagogical Implications

A. Register

As far as register is concerned, the Chinese learners differ a little from the native English speakers in using concluding connectives. For instance, "eventually" is used rather frequently by Chinese learners in informal style while native speakers use it mostly in formal style. And "Last but not least" is used rather often by Chinese learners both in formal and informal style, while it is rarely used by native speakers. Hence, the learners need to be shown the difference in register when using the connectives.

B. Pragmatic Functions of Connectives

From the definitions of connectives given by COBUILD, we know that concluding connectives like "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least, eventually, and ultimately" have very distinct pragmatic functions. Some is used to introduce a summary, yet some to emphasize, to indicate end of a situation, or to express a long series of events, and the like. And the Chinese learners may feel confused about such differences in meanings of the connectives. To solve the problem, the learners should be given adequate authentic examples in both ELT textbooks and the ELT classroom. They are to be encouraged to read more original English periodicals, books, and so on, to form their own sense of English language. .

C. Overuse and Underuse

To solve the problems of overuse and under-use, learners should be made to realize that logical connectors are only required when a relationship between ideas is not apparent in the discourse. For this purpose, alternative versions of the same text with and without connectives can be used for a comparative study of how redundancy can be avoided (Yeung, 2009). Learners should also be shown that apart from connectives, there are other methods of giving a text the necessary cohesion, that is, applying syntactic device like ellipsis or lexical device like synonym. A proper understanding of thematic development in continuous texts would also be essential (Yeung, 2009). Proper paragraphing presents yet another way of getting rid of redundant concluding connectives such as "Last but not least":

Example 14

Last but not least, cooperation is based on party. Learn to cooperate is learn to work with others. Power of a party is more powerful than a single one's. As known to all, learn to live harmonious with others are the most factors for one to suit the society.

To sum up, competition is bad for children are shaping of their philosophy, and even bad for developing for society. But cooperation will lead a right way for children to grow up. So children should learn to cooperate.

'Last but not least' in Example 14 from SWECCL, for instance, is replaced by another concluding phrase "To sum up", which previews the rest of the paragraph, turning into a separate transitional paragraph. Each subsequent section foreshadowed by the transitional paragraph can be made a paragraph on its own, thus avoiding the need for an exhaustive use of all the available concluding connectives. To gain an accurate sense of the use of other cohesive devices, learners should work with authentic texts which clearly show that each paragraph need not begin with a connective to show they are related to one another and to the whole (Yeung, 2009).

VI. Conclusion

This study has attempted to distinguish the functions and patterns of concluding connectives like "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least, eventually, and ultimately" in both experts' and learners' corpora. Distinctive characteristics have been described and differences in patterns of use between the expert and learner writers have been singled out for comparison. Similar to Yeung's findings (Yeung, 2009), concluding connectives are also found to be a tough nut to crack in second language acquisition, not only to Chinese learners of English, but non-native learners from various linguistic backgrounds as well. The study shows that concluding connectives should be understood not only in terms of their semantic meanings but are better grasped through an understanding of their pragmatic and stylistic functions in actual contexts of use. As the case of concluding connectives like "all in all, in conclusion, last but not least, eventually, and ultimately" shows, traditional ways of teaching and learning concluding connectives, as well as the traditional approaches adopted by many a teaching and learning tool such as dictionaries and ELT textbooks, seem to be renovated, i.e. learners are to be encouraged to read more original English periodicals, books, and the like.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 127-137, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.127-137

Match or Mismatch of the Head Parameters and Comprehension of EFL Learners

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***Abstract*—The present study examines the impacts of match or mismatch of the head parameters of some languages on listening comprehension of English as a foreign language in Iran. It is a longitudinal survey of EFL learners at some universities of Iran from 2011 to 2012. It compares 20 Mazandarani learners of English with that of 20 Persian learners of English. Since English is mostly a head initial language, and Persian and Mazandarani head final languages, and there are fewer matches between English and Mazandarani parameters than that of English and Persian, then Mazandarani learners of English are expected to have more difficulty as far as listening comprehension of English is taken into account. The findings show that the match of the parameters facilitates the L2 listening process, whereas its mismatch hinders it.**

***Index Terms*—L1 and L2 acquisition, principle and parameter theory, head parameter**

I. Introduction

The fact that Persian is mostly a head final language (Maleki, 2006; Soheili, 1989; Rahmani, 2011), Mazandarani[1] mostly a final language (Rahmani, 2011) and English mostly a head initial language (Radford, 2006), may be a culprit in the weakness of listening comprehension of Mazandarani learners of English as a foreign language in comparison to that of Persian learners of English.

Principles and Parameters in First Language Acquisition

Chomsky (1972 & 1986) believes that the process of language acquisition is regarded as the access of the limited input that a child hears, into a LAD and through processing inside the LAD, creative grammar is produced which later is called as principle and parameter theory (cited in Rahmani & Abdolmanafi, 2012).

Therefore, the principal task a child confronts in acquiring his/her mother tongue is to make a grammar of the language. As Chomsky (1986) states, the child's LAD integrates a theory of Universal Grammar incorporating:

- a set of universal *principles* of grammatical structure that are supposed to be constant across languages, and
- a set of structural *parameters* that impose rigid restraints on the range of structural variation admit natural languages.

Therefore, since the child is not forced to acquire the universal principles which belong to the genetic endowment, structural language acquisition is primarily restricted to what is called *parameter-setting.* According to Radford (1990), it has been observed that children even as young as 18 months old in the acquisition of English as L1 appear to set the head parameter at its proper setting (*head-first)* from the very initial multiword utterances they develop. Greenberg (1963) has studied the consistency of the relative position of a head and its complement at phrase level. Besides, the position of a head and its complement within a phrase at a given level of projection as discussed in Chomsky (1972), is observed to be ordered across various categories in a language. Furthermore, Chomsky (1981) proposes that the relative position of heads and complements for entire phrases requires to be set at least one time in a given language. A single generalization (a or b) suffices based on what follows instead of a long list of individual rules determining the position of the head in each phrase type.

a) Heads are *last* in the phrase.

b) Heads are *first* in the phrase.

Different types of lexical heads namely nouns, verbs, prepositions and adjectives based on Chomsky (1981), should be grouped under a single entry called X. These lexical heads are grouped under XP when they are combined with their complements (Y or Z).

[1] The name Mazandarani derives from the name of the historical region of Mazandaran in the North of Iran.

According to Atkinson (1992), the principles of X-bar theory, together with thematic properties of lexical items, decide the type of possible D-structures in a grammar once the relevant parameter governing directionality is fixed. Therefore, X-bar principles are expected to constrain the child's grammatical system from their early. Radford's (1990) observation concludes that children appear to know English is a head-first language. The information gathered by Radford (1990) from a twenty-month boy manifest the child's ordered use of verbs and prepositions ahead of their complements.

(1) a. *Touch* heads. *Cuddle* book. *Want* book. *Want* malteser. *Open* door. *Want* chocolate. *Bang* bottom. *See* cats. *Sit* down.

(1) b. *On* mummy. *To* lady. *Without* shoe. *With* potty. *In* keyhole. *In* park. *On* carpet. *On* box. *With* crayons. *To* daddy.

The *principles and parameters* model of acquisition provides, to some extent, an answer to the question of why children in such a quich and error-free fashion acquire the position of heads and complements. The *principles and parameters* model shows that acquiring this dimension of word order includes a relatively easy task of setting the binary parameter given by UG at its suitable value on the basis of minimal linguistic experience. The child automatically knows that all heads in English are commonly positioned before their complements when he starts to break down a sentence produced by adults, like *tell daddy*, and understands that it has in itself a verb phrase including the head verb *tell* and its complement *daddy*

Consequently, in a new born baby's mind, language acquisition is at its first state, called the Initial Zero State (S0). Hence, language acquisition goes on till the Steady State (Ss) where language development is partly perfected. Along with this, one might conclude that a child acquires his/her language according to the following formula: S0–S1–S2→Ss.

According to Cook and Newson (2007), depending on the input related to the language by activating the principles and parameters of UG, at the initial state, a child sets the parameters on his mind; for example, the child should start with one of the possible values of this parameter , that is head-initial or head-final considering the head parameter (cited in Rahmani & Abdolmanafi, 2012).

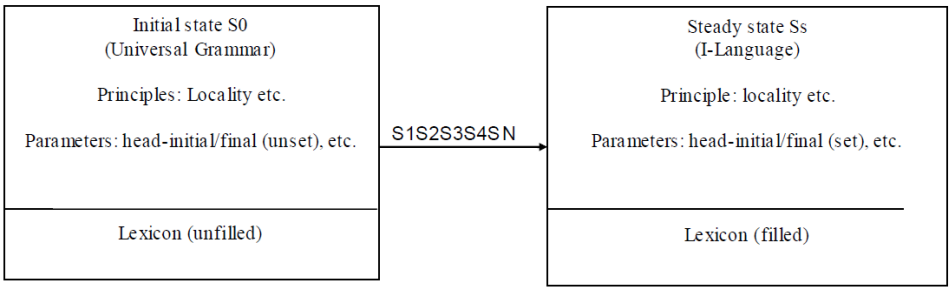


Figure 1: The language faculty from zero to final states (Cook & Newson, 2007, p. 50)

II. Review of the Related Literature

Parameter-setting Acquisition and Positive Evidence

Parameter setting might therefore begin in a neutral position in which any setting is potential and or begin from a particular value (the unmarked setting) and requires specific evidence to adopt the other setting (the marked setting) (Cook & Newson, 1996, cited in Rahmani & Abdolmanafi, 2012).

How children are able to choose the appropriate setting for a given parameter is a question posed by the parameter-setting model of acquisition. There are two types of evidence which is expected to be attainable for the language learner, namely positive and negative evidence. According to Radford (2006), if children's speech input is made up of structures in which heads come before their complements like what we have in English, then this provides them with positive evidence and by this positive evidence they are able to set the Head-position Parameter properly (cited in Rahmani & Abdolmanafi, 2012).

Parameter-setting by Negative Evidence

We have two kinds of negative evidence which causes children to set their appropriate parameter of mother tongue; they are direct and indirect evidences. Direct negative evidence normally comes from the correction of children's errors and indirect negative evidence occurs when for example, a child's experience includes no examples of structures in which complements follow their heads (like Mazandarani language), and then, he infers that a second language like English is not a head last language and so differs from his mother tongue language (Radford, 2006).

Principles and Parameters in Second Language Acquisition

Unlike a child who acquires L1 at the initial state, the adult who learns L2 based on Rahmani and Abdolmanafi (2012) would be in a dissimilar position, since the adult is already equipped with the knowledge of L1 containing the universal grammar of principles and parameters of his first language. Consequently, the initial state of SLA is shown by (Si) which actually is formed by:

Si (initial state of L2) = (S0 + Ss)

It is good to note that in L2 there is no steady state like L1, rather, there is a Terminal State (St) which is different from person to person.

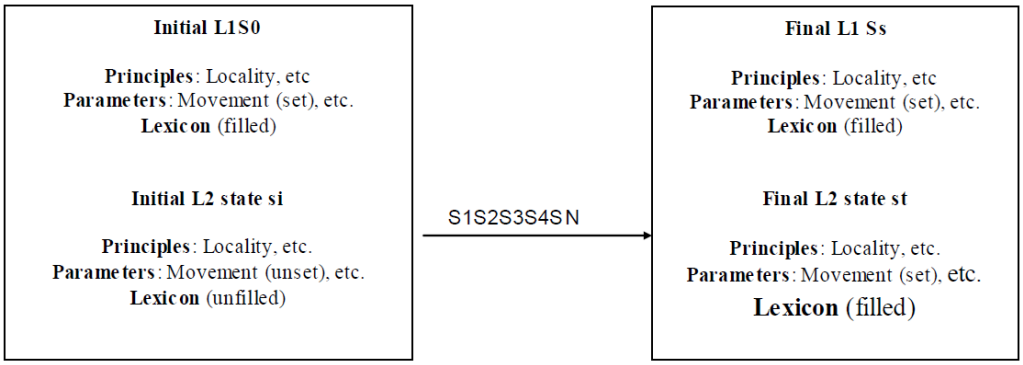


Figure 2: The language faculty from initial to final states (Cook & Newson, 2007, p. 230)

Previous Studies

Flynn (1988) studied three groups of adults learning ESL, 51 native speakers of Spanish, 53 native speakers of Japanese and 60 native speakers of Chinese, in his study, it was reported that, whereas English and Spanish are head initial and Japanese and Chinese are head-final, so the Spanish had less difficulty in imitation task of some adverbial clauses of English. She also, draws the conclusion that the Chinese and Japanese learners replicate an early pattern of L1, whereas the Spanish speakers have bypassed early stages of the grammatical developments directly applying grammatical principles from L1 to L2. In other words, where there is a match in parametric value between L1 and L2, there is no need to assign a new value to the parameter. Conversely, where there is a mis-match between the two parameters, a new value must be assigned to the parameter which results in having more difficulties in using the foreign languages.

Maleki (2006) according to a research on 75 Turkish learners of English and 75 Persian learners of English, concludes that the match of the parameters eases the second language reading process, while its mismatch hampers it and in that way decelerate down reading speed and lessens reading comprehension rate. In contrast, Newmeyer (2004) argues that the notion of parameter of universal grammar has no role to play in accounting for cross-linguistic differences in syntax, and that, instead, "language-particular differences are captured by differences in language-particular rules". He tries to show that parameter approaches have failed to live up to their promise and that " the hopeful vision of UG as providing a small number of principles each admitting of a small number of parameter setting is simply not workable" (Newmeyer, 2004, pp.181-185).

This study is aimed at investigating the parametric directionality in head parameters of English, Persian and Mazandarani languages to see their common and different characteristics to investigate whether the match or mismatch between parameters of mother tongue and English has any impact on better or worse listening comprehension of English. Hence subjects' listening comprehension of English is measured based on the parametric directionality of head parameters between first languages of Persian and Mazandarani with the foreign language of English in Iran. And it is also indicated that the match of the parameters facilitate the L2 listening processes while its mismatch hinders it and thereby decreases the listening comprehension of English as a foreign language.

Hypotheses

The present study tries to empirically find answers to the following hypotheses:

There is a significant difference between the impact of match and mismatch of the head parameters of one's *mother tongue* on his foreign language.

There is a significant difference between the impact of match and mismatch of the head parameters of one's *first language* on his foreign language.

III. Methodology

A. Participants

A longitudinal survey of EFL learners was carried out at two universities in the East and North of Iran named Birjand and Mazandaran University during 2011 and 2012. Twenty Persian learners of English are compared with twenty Mazandarani learners of English to examine the impact of match or mis-match between their mother tongue and foreign language head parameters on listening comprehension of English texts.

The subjects are within the age range of 18-23 and are kept similar in terms of linguistic background, socio-economic status, motivation, attitude and educational (previous exposure to English language) orientation. This study is done by

observations, questionnaire, library studies and then syntactic analysis of phrase structures in English, Persian and Mazandarani languages on the perspective of X- bar Theory[1].

B. Instruments

Language Proficiency Test

The NELSON test was used in order to have two homogenized groups consisting of four parts: Cloze tests, structure, vocabulary, and pronunciation and the time allotted for the test was 35 minutes.

Gardner's Questionnaire (1985)

This is a Likert-scale questionnaire on motivation which was developed by Gardner (1985).

C. Procedures

To accomplish the purpose of the study, through administering NELSON English language test, series 300B, over the first session a homogeneous group was identified. Then, in order to have homogenous learners in terms of motivation, the investigator administered the motivation questionnaire to the learners over the second session (next day). It is to be noted that in this study both male and female students participated. The administration of the two tests (proficiency test, SES) took 60 minutes, which were completed in two separate days.

The subjects heard some English dialogues in which there were different kinds of every lexical phrase, for example in *many people* the head noun *people* is positioned after its complement *many* and in *place with new customs* the head noun *place* is positioned before its complement *with new customs.*

Considering the head parameters in the aural text of English with those in Persian and Mazandarani, we would expect that L1 speakers of Persian and Mazandarani use the L1 values of the head parameters of their mother tongues and consult the abstract dominant configuration in listening English as a foreign language. Because there is mismatch between the head parameters of English with Persian and Mazandarani, it seems to act as a hindering factor in listening English text.

IV. Discussion

NPs in the understudied languages:

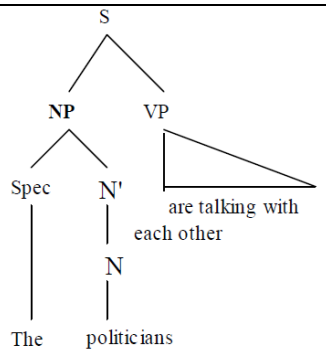
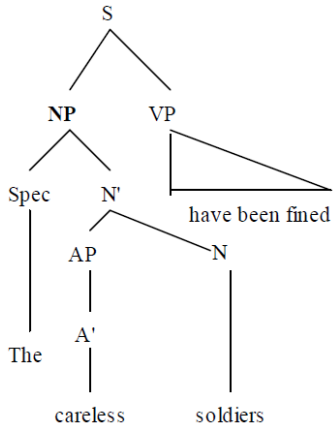
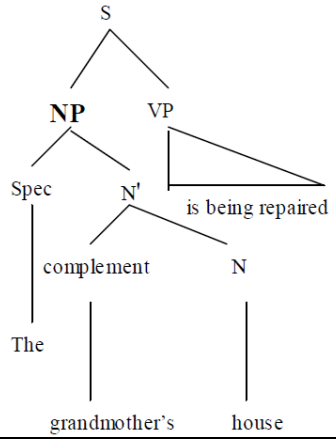
Complements that precede their head nouns

According to Rahmani and Alizadeh (2012), there are three complements which precede their head nouns in English NPs; they are: Specifiers, Attributive adjectives and Nominal dependents. They are positioned before head nouns in English and are ordered based on the phrase structure rules of:

1. $X'' \rightarrow Spec\ X'$,
2. $X' \rightarrow Complement\ X$

[1] It should be added that since there has been no syntactic book of Mazandarani especially regarding lexical/functional Phrase of X', then intuitions of five people aged 55, 47, 46, 46 and 32 are taken into account.

TABLE 1:
THE COMPLEMENTS WHICH PRECEDE THEIR HEAD NOUNS IN ENGLISH

The complements which precede their head noun in English:	complement	Head noun	X-bar structure of NPs
1- specifiers e.g., ***The*** politicians are talking with each other.	The	Politicians	
2- attributive adjectives e.g., The ***careless*** soldiers have been fined.	careless	soldiers	
3- nominal dependents e.g., My ***grandmother's*** house is being repaired.	grandmother's	house	

Complements that follow their head nouns

There are five complements based on Rahmani and Alizadeh (2012), which follow their head nouns in English NPs, which are: Appositive phrases, Participial phrases, Gerund phrases, Propositional phrases and Adjective clauses. They are positioned after their head nouns based on the phrase structure rules of: 1- $X'' \rightarrow Spec\ X'$ & 2- $X' \rightarrow X\ complement$

TABLE 2:
THE COMPLEMENTS WHICH FOLLOW THEIR HEAD NOUN IN ENGLISH

The complements which follow their head noun in English:	Head noun	complement
1- appositive phrases e.g., Mr. Harris, *in a hurry to get home*, took a taxi from the airport.	Mr. Harris	in a hurry to get home
2- participial phrases e.g., The girl *talking to the teacher* is very intelligent.	The girl	talking to the teacher
3- gerund phrases e.g., Her cleaning *the house everyday* is not necessary.	cleaning	the house everyday
4- adjective clauses e.g., Here is a book *which describes animals*.	book	which describes animals
5- Prepositional phrases e.g., reason of the war	reason	Of the war

(Based on Marcella, 1972: chapters 3, 5, 6 & 10)

So, in English, more NPs, are ordered based on the phrase structure rule of *X′ → X complement* and hence, their NPs are considered head-initial (Rahmani & Alizadeh, 2012).

Persian NPs:

Complements that precede their head nouns

There are four complements in Persian based on Rahmani and Alizadeh (2012), which precede their head nouns, they are: Specifiers, interrogative dependents, numeral dependents, and exclamatory dependents**;** they are ordered on the basis of the phrase structure rules of: *X″ → Spec X &* **2-** *X′ Complement X.*

TABLE 3:
THE COMPLEMENTS WHICH PRECEDE THEIR HEAD NOUNS IN PERSIAN

The complements which precede their head noun in Persian:	complement	Head noun
1- specifiers (determiners): e.g., In márd doste mán ást. The man friend my is	in	márd
2- interrogative dependents: e.g., kodam ketab mâle tost? Which book is yours?	kodam	ketab
3- numeral dependents: e.g., se márd zakhmi shodand. Three men injured were	se	márd
4- exclamatory dependents: e.g., ájab havaye khobi! What a weather nice	ájab	havaee

Complements that follow their head nouns

Since more NPs are ordered on the basis of the phrase structure rule of *X′ → X complement* than that of *X′ → Complement X* in Persian, hence, Persian NPs is considered head-initial.

Based on Rahmani and Alizadeh (2012), there are also, five complements which follow their head nouns, such as: Attributive adjectives, nominal dependents, appositive phrases, propositional phrases, and adjective clauses (sentential clauses); they are ordered on the basis of:

X″ → Spec X′ & 2- *X′ → X complement.*

TABLE 4:
THE COMPLEMENTS WHICH FOLLOW THEIR HEAD NOUN IN PERSIAN

The complements following their head noun in Persian:	Head noun	complement
1- attributive adjectives: e.g. ketabhaye khob va sodmand … books good and fruitful	ketabhaye	khob va sodmand
2- nominal dependents: e.g., payambare eslam farmodand ke … Prophet Islam said that …	payambare	eslam
3- appositive phrases: e.g., Golestan, neveshteye sady, …. Golestan written by Sady …	Golestan	neveshteye Sady
4- prepositional phrases: e.g., ketab darbareye naghde tarihk, …. Book about critique history	ketab	Darbareye naghde tarihk
5- adjective clauses (sentential clauses) e.g., ketabi ke Ali nevesht, … book which Ali wrote	ketabi	ke Ali nevesht

(Based on Bateni, 2008: chapter 7 & Gholamalizade, 2007: chapter 4)

Mazandarani NPs:

Noun phrase in Mazandarani is head-final, because six complements precede their head nouns in this language and just three complements follow them.

Complements that precede their head nouns

The complements which precede their head nouns in Mazandarani are specifiers, interrogative dependents, numeral dependents, exclamatory dependents, attributive adjectives, and nominal dependents. They are ordered on the basis of the phrase structure rule of:

1. X″ → Spec X′

2. X′ → Complement X

TABLE 5:
THE COMPLEMENTS WHICH PRECEDE THEIR HEAD NOUNS IN MAZANDARANI

The complements which precede their head noun in Mazandarani:	Complement	Head noun
1- specifiers (determiners): e.g., inta márdi	inta this	márdi man
2- interrogative dependents: e.g., kemin ketab teshe?	kemin which	ketab book
3- numeral dependents: e.g., se márdi zakhmi baine.	se three	márdi men
4- exclamatory dependents: e.g., ájeb hevaee hasse	ájeb	hevaee
5- attributive adjectives: e.g., kechike váche	kechik little	váche child
6- nominal dependents: e.g., eslame peighamber	eslam Islam	peighamber Prophet

Complements that follow their head nouns

The complements which follow their head nouns in Mazandarani are: appositive phrases, propositional phrases, and adjective clauses or sentential clauses. Because most of the NPs complements in Mazandarani are ordered on the basis of *X′ → Complement X* than *X′ → X complement,* then its NP is considered head-final.

TABLE 6:
THE COMPLEMENTS WHICH FOLLOW THEIR HEAD NOUN IN MAZANDARANI

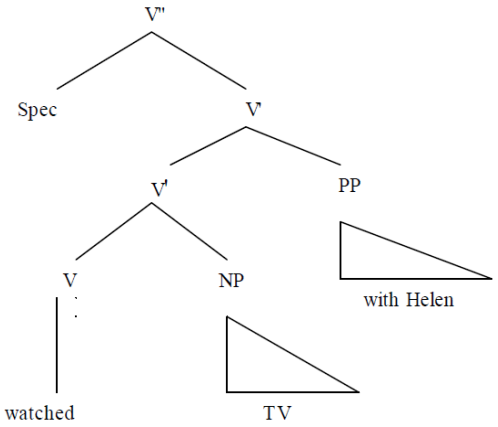
The complements following their head noun in Mazandarani:	Head noun	Complement
1- appositive phrases: e.g., Golestan, sáádiye bánvesht	Golestan Golestan	Sáádiye bánvesht Saadi's work
2- adjective clauses (sentential clauses): e.g., ketabi ke ve banvishte, …	Ketabi book	ke ve banvishte which he wrote
3- postpositional phrases: e.g., telash zendegiye vesse…	Telash effort	zendegiye vesse life for

Accordingly, in most of the cases, in the NPs of English and Persian, the heads appear on the left of the complements and conversely in Mazandarani, most of the head nouns appear on the right of the complements.

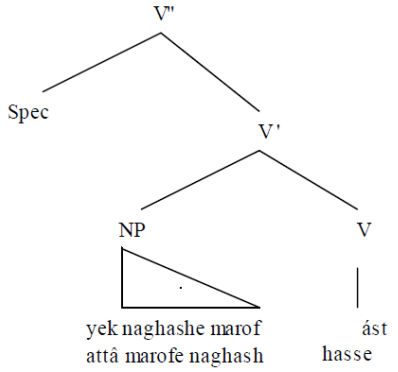
VPs in English, Persian and Mazandarani:

In the VP of English, based on Rahmani and Alizadeh (2012), the head verb appears on the left of the complement but it is vise versa in both Persian and Mazandarani as the below diagrams show:

English VP: watched TV with Helen



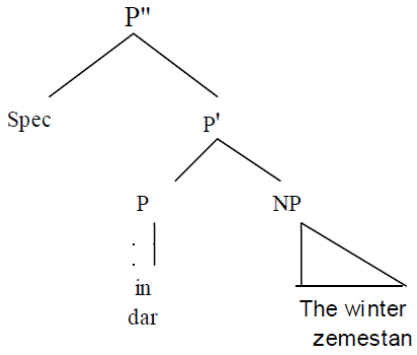
Persian and Mazandarani VP: yek naghashe marof ást.
attâ marofe naghash hasse.



PPs in English, Persian and Mazandarani:

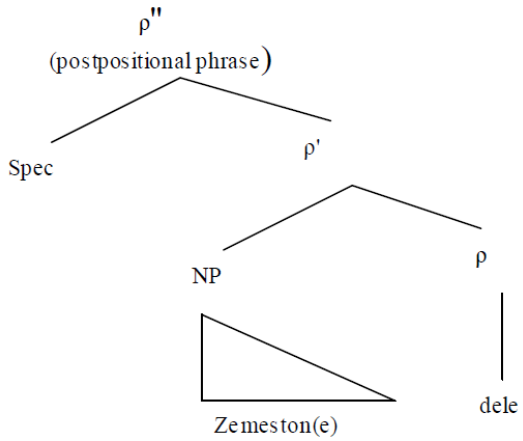
The head preposition, appears on the left of the complement in both English and Persian but Mazandarani is very different in this regard too because there is postposition in this language which comes on the right of the PP complement.

English and Persian PP: In the winter



Mazandarani Postpositional phrase: zemestone dele

winter in



APs in English, Persian and Mazandarani:

In most of the English APs, the head adjective as shown in the following, precedes its complements and that is why in English adjectives also along with the other lexical phrases are considered as head-initial (Rahmani & Abdolmanafi, 2012).

A) Some of the complements which follow the head adjective in English are:
   1- prepositional phrases: envious *of someone*
   2- enough (adv): warm *enough*
   3- that clause: so beautiful *that*

B) Some of the complements which precede the head adjective in English are:

determiners[1]: *rather* cold

Adjective phrase has a simple structure in Persian language, it is followed and preceded by one complement. Quantity adverbs as complements precede head adjectives in Persian and prepositional phrases as complements follow them (Gaholam-Alizade, 2007, pp. 107-108).

1- Quantity adverb: kheily dostdashtani
Very lovable

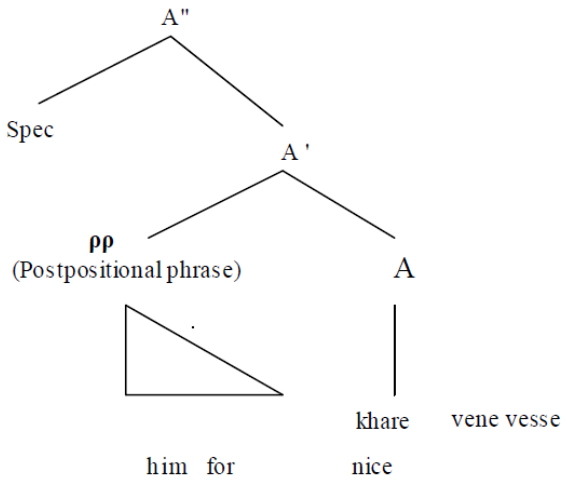
2- Prepositional phrase: bolandtar áz borje Milâd
taller than tower Milad

As it is shown in the above examples, Persian head adjectives can be followed and preceded by PPs and quantity adverbs respectively; as far as I studied different Persian structure books, none of them answered the question why adjectives are head-initial in Persian; anyway the writers think that it is because the frequency of Persian adjectives which are preceded by quantity adverbs are higher than those of which followed by PP.

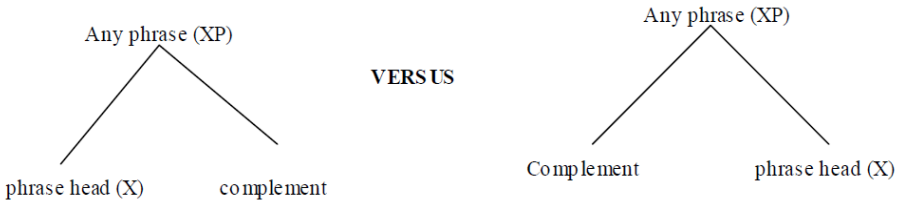
In Mazandarani, there are two complements such as quantity adverbs and postpositional phrase which both of them precede their head adjectives:

1- Quantity adverbs: khâle khâre
very nice

2- Postpositional phrase: vene vesse khâre
him for nice



Thus, there are at least two possibilities for the structure of phrases in human languages; Head-initial or head-final:



Head parameters in English aural text and in subjects' first languages

Examples of head-final languages are Persian and Mazandarani, but the most different point which should be taken into account here, is that Mazandarani is a totally head-final language but Persian is a mostly head-final one. In the other words in Mazandarani, heads in every phrase such as: AP, NP, VP and PP follow its complements but in doesn't occur in all phrases of Persian. Conversely "In English all heads (whether nouns, verbs, prepositions, or adjectives etc.) normally precede their complements" (Radford, 2006, p. 19).

According to the above statements, there are fewer matches between English and Mazandarani than that of English and Persian, because while all heads in English is positioned before its dependents, all heads are positioned after dependents in Mazandarani.

Taking the head parameters in the aural text of English with those in Persian and Mazandarani into account, we would expect that L1 speakers of Persian and Mazandarani use the L1 values of the head parameters of their mother tongue languages and consult the abstract dominant configuration in listening English as a foreign language. Because

[1] Determiners co-occur with nouns to express a wide range of semantic contrasts, such as quantity or number; articles, like the,a, … and all of which have a distribution of article position like, each, every, this, that, some, any and etc.

there is mismatch between the head parameters of English with Persian and Mazandarani, it acts as a hindering factor in listening English text.

Concerning NPs, VPs, PPs and APs, evidence that Persian and Mazandarani L2 learners of English confer with the value of the head parameters for English grammar and allot a new value to this parameter constant with the value of the target language is expected. Both Persian and Mazandarani are head-final languages, but because Persian and English have almost two phrases in common namely PPs and NPs, then Mazandarani learners of English would have more problem regarding listening of English aural text because while English is a totally head-initial language, Mazandarani is a totally head-final language.

Measures of central tendency and variability

The impact of the head parameter on listening English as a foreign language was investigated and the central tendency and variability in subjects' listening tests are given in the following chart; the results of the study supported this hypothesis that the match of the parameters eases the second language listening process; while, its mismatch delays it.

TABLE 7:
CENTRAL TENDENCY AND VARIABILITY

learners	mode	median	mean	variance	SD
Persian learners of English	16.50	16	15	4.48	2.12
Mazandarani learners of English	14.50	15	14	2.65	1.63

So far, the points of structural differences between subjects' mother tongue and foreign language are identified as typological distinction, which are thought to be areas of potential difficulty in foreign-language learning, although CA hypothesis has been under question by the 1980s, writers of this paper think CA can be thought to be areas of difficulty as far as parametric directionality and computational system of UG are concerned.

In view of some controversies surrounding the CA Hypothesis, the writers of this paper think that one should be aiming at an elaboration of the structural specifications of languages rather than rejecting the CA Hypothesis totally.

As far as educated learners of a foreign or second language are concerned, identifying areas of difficulty besides producing appropriate teaching materials to overcome the difficulties seems to be fruitful for them. "Lado claims that the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning lies in the comparison between native and foreign language." So, the native language of the learner can interfere with the learning of the target language especially as far as parameter setting is concerned and it should be added that interference from the mother tongue doesn't constitute the main cause of the difficulty in learning due to existence of other different factors which aren't so much pertained to this study. Meantime it seems that this CA assumption which says: *the greater the difference between the structure of the source and the target language, the more difficult it is to learn a foreign language* can not be so inconceivable at least as far as parameter setting of UG is concerned.

V. CONCLUSION

Hence for a child who acquires Persian as L1 he mostly encounters with head final parameters and vise versa a child who acquires English, he totally encounters with head initial parameters and hearing structures, containing head final parameters would be positive evident for children acquiring Persian as a first language and would be negative evident for children acquiring English as a first language. Since there is mis-match between the parameter of their mother tongue and that of they are hearing, "acquiring a language entails setting all the parameters of UG befittingly. They are powerful in their effects but limited in numbers, for example in order to acquire English rather than another language, the child should first determine the values for the head parameter, and a handful of other parameters." (Chomsky, 1988, p.134)

In accordance with positive and negative evidence in parameter setting, L1 learners of Persian and Mazandarani's speech input is made up of structures in which heads usually follow their complements, and then listening the L2 with different head position provides them with negative evidence. According to their experience, the new input includes few examples of structures in which complements precede their heads and then, learners infer that the English language is not a head-final language and so differs from their mother tongue.

Concerning to Principles and Parameters in L2 Acquisition**,** the initial state of SLA is named Si, initial state of L2, which actually consists of S0 and Ss. According to this statement Persian's initial state of L2, is to some extent different from Mazandarani's, because they are equipped with different knowledge of L1 containing the universal grammar of principles and parameters, due to the fact that while *most* phrases are head-final in Persian, almost *all* phrases are head-final in Mazandarani.

Taking the head parameters in the aural text of English with those in Persian and Mazandarani into account, when L1 speakers of Persian and Mazandarani listened to English texts, they confronted with a new parameters while having the L1 values of the head parameters of their mother tongue as initial state of L2 and then assigned another value as head-initial parameters. Since *heads* in all phrases of APs, NPs, VPs and PPs of Mazandarani follow its complements but not in all phrases of Persian and in contrast all heads in English normally precede their complements, there are fewer matches between English and Mazandarani than that of English and Persian. Then Mazandarani learners of English

have more problems regarding listening the aural texts of English. Therefore it is concluded that the match of the parameters facilitates the L2 listening process whereas, its mismatch hinders it.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 138-143, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.138-143

The Possibility Survey of Applying CBI to College English Teaching in WTU

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***Abstract*—Content-Based Instruction (CBI) has been found to be an effective approach to teaching English as foreign language (EFL), in which the EFL students can develop their linguistic ability, as well as gain access to meaningful content knowledge. This study covers a questionnaire survey in part of Grade 2010 and 2011 Non-English majors in Wuhan Textile University (WTU); it is about the possibility of applying CBI to College English teaching in WTU. It's been found out that, most of the students are very willing to accept this concept in the curriculum instruction, and they also think it is feasible, though a small number of students do not understand it thoroughly owing to brief introduction to CBI in the front of the questionnaire.**

***Index Terms*—CBI, college English teaching, questionnaire survey, possibility**

I. Introduction

The English level of university students in China is not all good enough; some of them are even shy to open their mouths to speak English. The traditional college English grammar-translation teaching mode in China is inefficient. Recently Content-based Instruction (CBI) mode gained remarkable success in America, soon in Europe, Southeast Asia, Australia and other countries and regions.

CBI has been defined, by Richards & Rodgers, as "the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught" (2001: p.204). This teaching approach is considered by many researchers an effective and realistic teaching method in terms of combining language and content learning.

In recent years, some Chinese EFL educators began to prove into CBI and practice CBI in the classroom. Luo (2006) believes CBI countries and the societies require the foreign language teaching raising the foreign language learners' comprehensive ability and training complex language talent requirements. Yu (2005) believes foreign language teaching complied with the request, for domestic magnificent and victorious foreign language teaching reform added new content. In the recent years, Dalian University of Foreign Languages has opened the CBI courses for English majors at the basic stage, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Suzhou University and so on, also practiced the CBI mode based on the CBI courses.

Our university (Wuhan Textile University) has made some preparations for some EFL teaching reform. As an English teacher, I am thinking whether it is possible to apply CBI concept to the college English teaching in our university. If the survey is positive, I will send a College English teaching project to the authorities.

II. Content-based Instruction

Content-based Instruction (CBI) is a significant approach in language education (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989). CBI is designed to provide second-language or foreign language learners instruction in content and language. It integrates language instruction with content instruction, but allows the content to determine the nature and order of the linguistic syllabus. CBI in language teaching is not new; however, as a formal approach with theoretical underpinnings, in the past 10 years it has gained popularity, particularly in ESL environments (Snow & Brinton, 1989). The relationship between the content and the language in CBI, and the extent to which the content and language are conceived of as opposite ends of a methodological continuum, is the subject of some debate. Grebe and Stroller (1997) locate what they see as strong pedagogical support for CBI in second language acquisition research, training studies, educational and cognitive psychology and program outcomes. Brinton *et al.* argue that CBI provides a meaningful context for language development, as it not only builds on students' previous learning experiences and current needs and interests, but also takes account of the eventual purpose for which students need the language (1989).

CBI is supported by Kristen's Monitor Model: "if students are given comprehensible input, it is less difficult to learn the target language, and as a result, they can acquire it". He emphasized ways of decreasing learner anxiety, such as providing interesting texts as well as meaningful activities, which are comprehensible to learners, and CBI has the following essential features: "learning a language through academic content, engaging in activities, developing

proficiency in academic discourse, fostering the development of effective learning strategies" (1982, pp.20-30). Thus, this methodology puts emphasis on learning about something rather than learning about language. There are several issues which teachers should consider for an effective use of Content-based EFL instruction, including types, syllabus design, and materials of CBI (Davies, 2006).

CBI teaching mode originated in the form of "immersion program" in Canada in 1965. And it gained popularity thanks to its remarkable success. CBI has been practiced in ESL/EFL teaching in the world since the 1870s, the United States, Canada, Japan, Great Britain, India, Singapore, Germany and other countries (Adamson, 1993). And these countries have policy and laws and regulations supporting the CBI teaching mode, and they are picking CBI teaching mode having been many successful experiences. Particularly, CBI can be used for different academic field of applied research, such as literature, movie, culture and civilization.

"Higher Education under the environment of CBI teaching mode", in which CBI is discussed in higher education settings, edited by Professor JoAnn Crandall and Bauman, introduces the CBI English teaching situation. It is one of case study series of Dr. Jill Burton of TESOL teaching practice of South Australian University. In recent years a total of eleven teaching cases about the CBI on English teaching pattern of research results had been recorded in it (Stryker, S. & Leaver, B. 1997).

In China, some EFL educators began to dig into CBI and practice CBI in the classroom since 1990. Luo (2006) believes CBI teaching raising the foreign language learners' comprehensive ability and training complex language talent requirements. Yu finds (2005) foreign language teaching complied with the request, for domestic magnificent and victorious foreign language teaching reform added new content. However, the teaching theory in our experience, introducing recommended, short-term silence, the new emphasis on and began to practice application process, and for the CBI study and practice of the application has gradually aroused the attention of the Chinese foreign language experts (Li, 2002).

Cai (2002) found that the relevant domestic research on CBI theory was late by nearly 10 years compared with that in the foreign countries. Shu and Zhuang (1996) thought that the relevant domestic research of the teaching method is different from foreign teaching development. The theory of CBI mentioned first in our country, afterward the practice in education.

Wang Shixian first introduced the basic concept and the original model of CBI into China in 1994, discussing the possibility of applying CBI to Chinese foreign language teaching; Cai (2002) provides theoretical support and practical strategies from the teaching mode for the second language teaching model; Dai & Lv (2004) and Yuan (2006) make a comprehensive discussion on CBI as foreign language teaching.

Recently a lot of articles about the CBI teaching idea emerged in China. Since 2005 the experts published their all kinds of foreign language teaching modes in teaching practices, or test CBI mode and method of the report. Yuan (2008) found that implementation of the teaching content had a good influence on the students' English learning motivation and strategies, and made students use English more actively. In addition, some researchers demonstrated interest in the application of CBI to English teaching in China (Zhang, 2002).

Since the establishment of Bilingual research centers, Bilingual curriculum materials research center, and the Bilingual education research center, East China Normal University has held the nationwide conference regularly (Yuan, 2006). And dozens of articles about CBI have been published in various foreign journals.

Recently, Dalian University of Foreign Languages has opened the CBI model system courses for English majors at the basic stage. Some key universities, such as Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Beijing University, Tsinghua University, Zhejiang University, East China Normal University, South China Normal University, Beijing Normal University, Suzhou University, also opened the CBI mode program based on the CBI courses (Li, 2009).

III. Survey

200 students from thirteen schools in WTU are chosen to do a questionnaire on the possibility of applying CBI to our college English teaching in our university. Actually, 194 valid questionnaires are received. All of them are non-English majors of freshman and sophomores, of whom are 81 girls and 113 boys, 74 of liberal arts and 120 of engineering. They have studied English for at least 6 years. One of their present aims in English is to pass the College English Test Band 4 or Band 6(CET-4 or CET-6).

42 participants are from School of Mechanical Engineering and Automation, of whom are 28 sophomores and 14 freshmen, 12 girls and 30 boys. 50 are from School of Management, in which, 28 are sophomores and 22 are freshmen, 28 girls and 22 boys. 9 participants from School of Economics, in which, 4 are sophomores and 5 are freshmen, 6 girls and 3 boys. 30 are from School of Chemistry and Chemical Engineering, 5 sophomores and 25 freshmen, 3 girls and 27 boys. Among the 10 participants from School of Accountancy, 8 are sophomores and 2 freshmen, 8 girls and 2 boys. There are 15 students from School of Mathematics and Computer Science, 5 sophomores and 10 freshmen, 6 girls and 9 boys. There are 9 participants from School of Electronic and Electrical Engineering, of whom are 8 sophomores and 1 freshman, 2 girls and 7 boys. 10 students are from School of Textile Science and engineering, 7 sophomores and 3 freshmen, 6 girls and 4 boys. There are 3 from School of Environmental Engineering, sophomores, 1 girl and 2 boys. 9 are from School of Textile Science and Engineering, in which, 2 are sophomores and 7 are freshmen, 3 girls and 6 boys. 3 students are from School of Media and Communication, and 2 are sophomores and 1 is freshman. All are girl students.

4 boys from School of Art and Design are also invited to take part in this survey.

A questionnaire on CBI in order to understand the possibility of applying the CBI teaching mode to our College English curriculum teaching is designed, in Chinese(See Appendix 1), so as to facility the students understanding.

A brief introduction to CBI is printed at the very top of the questionnaire. 10 questions are designed to assess the students' interest on this new teaching mode, and the four choices are arranged from disagreement to absolute agreement. The students make the choices according to their real situation. Among the 10 questions, 2 of them are about personal information, 2 of them are about the level both of the students and teachers, and others are about CBI, such as its function and features.

Among the total of 194 valid questionnaires received, 79 are paper questionnaires and 115 are electronic ones.

I asked my colleagues and friends for help who are the student leaders of School of Mechanical Engineering and Automation and School of Management. When they meet a regular meeting, they had 10 minutes to do the paper questionnaire. It was difficult for some of them to understand what CBI is only by the print description. If any of them had any questions, they were encouraged to ask me immediately. So, I verbally introduced what CBI was, so they could easily understand them. A good understanding would increase the accuracy of their responses. Finally I collected 90 paper questionnaires, but only 79 are valid.

At the same time, I asked my students and friends in our university help me send the electronic questionnaires to their classmates, 110 students, via QQ and email. I have told them those who have filled the paper questionnaires need not fill it again. Four days later, I collected 115 e-questionnaires valid. I sorted out the choices in the 194 questionnaires, took a statistical collection of different categories and of the number of each question (See Appendix 2).

IV. Results and Analysis

After all the answers are collected and carefully analyzed, it is found out as the following tables tell.

For the first question: the understanding degree of CBI concept

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	19.6%	35.1%	38.7%	6.7%

According to the above table, we can see that 19.6% students are not clear about what CBI concept is, 35.1% students have basic understanding of it, 38.7% students are clear about it, and 6.7% students can definitely comprehend it. Survey results show that more than 80% of the students know CBI concept in different degrees.

Compared the percentage of students who know the concept and the other who are not clear about it, we find that most students can understand the concept. The reason why those students do not know the concept is that there are 62 surveyed students of electronic questionnaires choice A; the electronic questionnaires are filled in by the computer, some of them did not understand what CBI is just by the brief introduction to CBI, however, those students who filled in the paper questionnaires could understand it better, because I can oral explain What CBI is in detail.

(2) Teachers' emphasis in English classes

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	11.3%	26.3%	56.2%	6.2%

From an overall perspective, only 11.3% students think that teacher's emphasis is teaching grammar and translation with the traditional teaching mode. 26.3% students probably agree that teacher is emphasizing subject content rather than grammar and translation in this new teaching mode. 56.2% students agree with that and 6.2% students go all the way with that. The survey results enunciate that about 90% students agree that teacher prefer subject content to traditional teaching mode.

(3) The advantage of CBI mode

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	13.4%	35.1%	47.4%	4.1%

To this question only 13.4% students' answers are no, 35.1% students think that is possible they will get high marks under this new mode, 47.4% students agree with that, and 4.1% students are in full agreement to that. The research shows that students look forward to carrying out this teaching mode, and they are eager for a new way to be educated, the reason why they say yes to this question is that the traditional teaching mode no longer meets their needs for English study in the 21st century.

(4) Students' quality

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	5.7%	37.6%	41.2%	15.5%

According to the above table, 5.7% students can't accept the whole teaching of English under CBI mode. 37.6% students just want to have a try, and they do not know whether they can accept this teaching mode or they have the

quality to accept the whole teaching of English or not, 41.2% students can accept this teaching style, 15.5% students are interested in this style.

It shows that, on the one hand, the students had already have a certain English basis, which can meet the basic requirements of CBI teaching mode; on the other hand, students' English level are uneven, and this needs to be fully considered when the teachers have different students , who should be taught in accordance with their aptitude.

(5) CBI mode can improve the comprehensive language ability to learn English?

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	10.3%	38.1%	40.2%	16.5%

From an overall perspective, 10.3% students think that this teaching mode can't improve their comprehensive language ability. 38.1% students are not quite sure about it. 40.2% students feel this new teaching mode can improve their comprehensive language ability, and 16.5% students consider they are bound to benefit from this new teaching mode.

This result implies that half of the students think CBI mode can improve their comprehensive language abilities.

(6)The content of CBI teaching mode related to our life can stimulate your interest in learning English?

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	4.6%	39.7%	44.3%	11.3%

About whether it can stimulate the students' interest in learning English, 55.6% of the surveyed students choose "yes" or "definitely", 39.7% of the students choose "maybe", only less than 5% of the students said "no". The research shows that most people think that CBI teaching mode can stimulate their interest in learning English, for the implementation of this teaching mode laid a good foundation.

(7) Will CBI teaching mode help to broaden your social knowledge about western countries?

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	6.2%	34.5%	54.1%	5.2%

For question 6, 59.3% of the students believe that CBI teaching mode will help to broaden their social knowledge about western countries. 34.5% of the students said "maybe", only 6.2% of the students choose "no". It shows that the traditional teaching mode can't satisfy the student's requirements to the knowledge of social country. In this new teaching mode, they will get abundant knowledge what they want; they will be more and more knowledgeable.

(8) Teachers' quality

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	7.7%	38.7%	45.9%	7.7%

About question 7, 53.6% of the students think college English teachers in WTU can be qualified for the task if implementing the CBI teaching mode in our university. 38.7% of the students are not clear about that situation, and 7.7% of the students disagree. The data here show that half of the students have basically recognized the teachers' English level, but the teachers' English quality remains to be continued to improve.

(9) Students' English level

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	23.7%	36.6%	31.4%	8.2%

About question 9, a private question about the students' English level, 23.7% of the students haven't passed them, 36.6% of the students haven't taken CET4 and CET6 examinations, 31.4% of the students have passed CET4, and 8.2% of the students have passed CET6.

Survey results show that the percentage of students who have passed CET4 and CET6 is not high, the reason is that the students being surveyed are all freshmen and sophomores, and freshmen haven't take these examinations.

(10) Students' interests

Options	A	B	C	D
Percentage	20.6%	31.4%	43.3%	4.6%

About the interest in learning English, in the last question, 43.3% of surveyed students have interest, 4.6% of the students have strong interest in English learning, 31.4% of the students said they just to complete their studies, 20.6% of the students are not interested in learning English. Students' interest in English learning has laid a good foundation for smoothly organizing and improving their English level.

According to the above survey result data analysis, we can find that, because it briefly introduces CBI in the questionnaire, a small number of students do not understand it clearly, while most of the students are very willing to accept it in college English curriculum teaching, and they also think it is feasible. They hope a class with greater

flexibility and adaptability in the curriculum; most of them think carrying out this new teaching mode would develop their comprehensive language ability of learning English and it would broaden their knowledge; they consider that most teachers in our school have the ability to this teaching mode; most of them have had the ability to accept this teaching mode.

V. Conclusion

CBI can help learners develop their language skills for academic use, and provide them with access to new concepts through meaningful content (Crandall, 1999). CBI fits in well with broader principles of language teaching and learning, and it can be applied in various situations. It could be used effectively in ESL as well as EFL classrooms (Grebe & Stroller, 1997).

At present, WTU has made teaching reform preparations, for example we have started an advanced course in English for those students, whose English comprehensive ability are very good, and get good marks in CET4 and CET6. Besides, WTU has started oral English concentrating program. Fortunately, most of them became the translators of some organizations and occasions, such as EC, UNCTD (stationed in China) and the Asian Basketball Championship, their outstanding performances win the applause of the foreign friends.

The survey results are fairly satisfied for the author to carry out the CBI program at WTU, though it is not perfect. Because it just very briefly introduces CBI in the questionnaire, a small number of students do not understand it clearly, while most of the students are very willing to accept it in college English curriculum teaching, and they also think it is feasible. Our university has made some trials, and students are interested it and eager for it. So it is possible to apply CBI mode to our college English class in the future at WTU.

Appendix 1. The Possibility Questionnaire Survey of Applying CBI to College English Teaching in Our University

Dear students:

This questionnaire is to survey whether it is suitable to apply the Content-based Instruction (CBI) to our College English teaching for the future at WTU. Please give the true answer. This questionnaire only uses for research and do not relate with your college English final grade.

This questionnaire is divided into two parts, the first part is the introduction to CBI, and the second part is your choices based on your understanding of the first part.

Thanks for your cooperation!

School: _____

Major Class: _____

Gender: _____

Part I:

CBI teaching concept lies in language teaching based on a subject teaching or some kind of theme teaching. It is a second language teaching mode, in which theme content or academic content completely merge with content of language teaching activity. In brief, through the study of native English national culture and history, geography and culture to understand the foreign countries in College English course, at the same time to improve our English comprehensive abilities, and eventually improve the educational insult.

Part II:

1. Do you understand what CBI is after reading the above introduction?
   A. no B. basically clear C. yes D. definitely clear
2. Teacher's emphasis is on teaching subject content, not on grammar and translating. Do you agree?
   A. no B. basically agree C. yes D. definitely agree
3. Do you think that you will achieve the best in CBI English class?
   A. no B. basically agree C. yes D. definitely agree
4. Can you accept the whole teaching of English under CBI mode?
   A. no B. just a try C. yes D. eager for it
5. Do you think that carrying out this teaching mode can improve the comprehensive ability to learn English?
   A. no B. maybe C. yes D. definitely
6. The content of CBI mode is related to your life; do you think it can stimulate your interest in learning English?
   A. no B. maybe C. yes D. definitely
7. Will CBI mode help to broaden your social knowledge about foreign countries?
   A. no B. maybe C. yes D. definitely
8. Do you think college English teachers in our school are qualified for the task if implementing CBI mode in WTU?
   A. no B. not clear C. maybe D. yes
9. Have you passed CET4 and CET6?
   A. no B. not attending it C. TEM4 D. TEM6
10. Are you interested in English learning now?

A. no B. complete studies C. interest D. keen interest

APPENDIX 2. QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY RESULTS

Questions	**Frequency (N=194)**			
Options	A	B	C	D
1	19.6% (38)	35.1% (68)	38.7% (75)	6.7% (13)
2	11.3% (22)	26.3% (51)	56.2% (109)	6.2% (12)
3	13.4% (26)	35.1% (68)	47.4% (92)	4.1% (8)
4	5.7% (11)	37.6% (73)	41.2% (80)	15.5% (30)
5	10.3% (20)	38.1% (74)	40.2% (78)	16.5% (32)
6	4.6% (9)	39.7% (77)	44.3% (86)	11.3% (22）
7	6.2% (12)	34.5% (67)	54.1% (105)	5.2% (10)
8	7.7% (15)	38.7% (75)	45.9% (89)	7.7% (15)
9	23.7% (46)	36.6% (71)	31.4% (61)	8.2% (16)
10	20.6% (40)	31.4% (61)	43.3% (84)	4.6% (9)

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 144-153, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.144-153

An Investigation into the Role of Iranian EFL Teachers' Critical Pedagogical Views in Their Educational Success

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***Abstract*—Critical pedagogy (CP) brings a new sociopolitical concept of linguistics and language teaching that is beginning to influence the teaching of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL). Having this in mind and in line with previous studies done on this field, the present study investigated the possible relationship between EFL teachers' critical pedagogical views and their professional success evaluated by students. In so doing, the Farsi version of Yilmaz Critical Pedagogy questionnaire was used to obtain the measures of the critical pedagogical views of 76 Iranian EFL teachers (Yilmaz 2009). Additionally students were to estimate teachers' professional success through the Successful Iranian EFL Teacher Questionnaire (SIETQ) (Pishghadam&Moafian, 2009). A statistically significant relationship between the two sets of measures was demonstrated through the Pearson product-moment correlation analysis (r = 0.6, p≤ 0.05).In addition by scrutinizing the details it was concluded that two of the three aspects of critical pedagogy sub-dimensions as defined by Yilmaz (2009) namely 'function of schools' and 'emancipator school', are significantly positively correlated with SIET scores using the multiple regression analysis. Implications of the study are further discussed.**

***Index Terms*—critical pedagogy, teacher success, teaching enhancement, partial correlation, political education**

I. Introduction

A. Critical Pedagogy

Preparing individuals for informed citizenship in a democratic society has become one of the major goals of teacher education in the past decade. Therefore studying teachers' teaching approach and the way such approaches can shed light on what constitute informed and critical individual has recently become a promising area of research and contributed to the field of education as well. In the past decades with the emergence of critical pedagogy the teaching approaches got new shape and this caused a complete change in social studies curriculum in general and the educational system trend in particular. Critical pedagogy is an educational theory which tries to make student informed of hidden curriculums inherent inequalities and encourage them to facilitate and perpetuate systematic forms of oppression both within and outside the classroom. This aim can be fulfilled through helping student think critically. Though critical thinking is basic component of critical pedagogy but critical pedagogy extends over critical thinking by making students aware of oppressions, inequality and social injustices and asking them to get brisk steps toward equal society (Freire, 1973).Critical pedagogy was considered as an essential part of teaching by many researchers because of the complicated sociohistorical and political aspects of language teaching and learning. Language is not is not just the way of communication or expression but according to Norton and Toohey (2004),"a practice that constructs the ways learners understand themselves, their sociohistorical surrounding and their possibility for the future". At first glance, one might wonder where the intersection is that the critical pedagogy construct and teaching standards would meet each other. Critical approach to education with the focus on democratic society, civil involvement and oppressed voices' empowerment on one hand seems not to have anything to do with set of principles designed to guide the expectations and assessment of teachers on the other. However reviewing the studies done on this field we claim that not only do these entities have an intersection point but when seeking for a democratic society, educational system establishes a firm niche for itself as fundamental factor leading to this change and it is also the goal of teacher education to prepare critical individuals toward democratic society. (Gibson, 1986; Count, 1978; McLaren, 2003; Case and Clark, 1997; Mayo and McLaren, 1999; Calderon, 2003; Fabillar, 2003; Bassey 1996).So it is obvious why a large range of social educational research has dwelt on the principles of critical pedagogy and the ways such principles can induce the enhancement of informed individual which in turn can lead to democratic society. Nevertheless, the literature review on teachers' principles of critical pedagogy and its effect on their attitudes and opinions, in particular their level of educational success, divulges that critical pedagogy has not yet fully been the focus of attention in the realm of EFL teaching.

B. Teacher Success

1. Characteristics of successful teachers

In their book, Brown and Marks (1994) stated that pedagogically successful teachers determine the strong and weak points of their teaching by comparing their own approaches and methods of teaching with those of others; successful teachers enthusiastically delve into details about how they are acting in classroom. Brookfield (1995) states that successful teachers have some traits like avoiding the unnecessary parts, using different kinds of instructional approaches, teaching with level adaptation but stopping regularly to have on the spot correction or feedback, dwelling on the content and their instructional aims. Lowman (1996) believes that the teachers who are the creators of successful concepts of learning for students are successful ones.

Considering the claims which were mentioned above different kinds of views can be attributed to successful teachers. Ryans (1967) believed that regarding teacher specific characteristics, people may have different viewpoints about what good teaching is supposed to be and good teaching criteria may vary with respect to different communities perspectives. (as cited in Suwandee,1995, p. 9).

2. Teachers role

According to Pettis (2002) teacher success can be focus of many studies since with better understanding of the concept teachers can largely improve the quality of teacher education programs. According to Brown (2001) teachers can be considered as change agents to the extent that they can shift the condition from competition to cooperation, from chaos to order, from bias to understanding and from weakness to empowerment (p. 445). According to Sanders and Rivers (1996) teachers are the only most essential factor who is directly influencing student achievement. According to King (2003) teacher quality is considered as a vital essence of teaching program which in turn affects the students' performance. The key role teachers play in the process of language learning has been ascertained by these and many other similar studies. Therefore, it is not amazing that by surfing the related literature, we can find large numbers of successful, effective and good teachers.

II. Literature Review

A. Critical Pedagogy

1. Critical pedagogy overview

Kincheloe(2004) claims that the concept of critical pedagogy is concerned with people oppression and oppressive power relations throughout the community and it originates from critical theory(p. 45). Kincheloe (2004) also claims that different kinds of theoretical schools have dealt with critical pedagogy and have asked for seeking various oppression perspectives such as gender, race, and class, sexual, cultural, religious, colonial, and ability-related concerns. In a similar vein, critical theorists have investigating new theoretical insights in order to find new and interconnected ways of recognizing power and oppression and the way human life and experience are influenced by them(p. 49). Freire (1973) developed critical consciousness or critical engagement as a way to explore the democratic imperative by deconstructing power relations. Critical consciousness means questioning the assumptions behind an individual‘s actions and attitudes which results in inclusionary and exclusionary practices. This notion is supported by critical pedagogy which is grounded in changing power relationships within the classroom.

2. Critical Pedagogy's background

Critical pedagogy has deep historical roots as a philosophy of education. Karl Marx is the first foundation of Critical Pedagogy. The philosophy of the Frankfurt school came after Marxism and critical social theory is precursor to critical pedagogy.

The work of Karl Marx and specially his ideas about labor influenced the Frankfurt School and developed the critical theoretical tradition. For Marx socioeconomic inequality is the vital societal problem. According to Eisner (2002) Marx believed that working toward a socialized economy is necessary for all people that each person receives according to her needs and contributes to her ability. Also Marx argued that economic conditions are necessary for social justice. The "Critical Theorists of the Frankfurt School" that established in 1923 has a less unified social criticism; however, embracing some of Marx's ideas as they related to schools and education. At first Theodor Adorno, Max Horkheimerand most prominently, Herbert Marcus argues that the procedures of schooling obstacles the opportunities for learners to make their own aims and goals, and most importantly serves to de-skill the learners (Apples, 1982; Kincheloe, 2004).

According to Gibson (1986) Marxism which is a political/economic view of society based upon the writings of 19th century German philosopher Karl Marx. Marcus and Tar (1984) argue that, in that philosophy, for achieving the last goal of revolution a critique of society is necessary, ending with the aim of having equal society and economy based on socialism. Marcus and Tar (1984) think that Marxism is critical of capitalism looks it as a sick society that achieving equality of people and economy by means of socialism is dismantled (as cited in Hollestein, 2006).

According to Marx "In the social production which men carry on they enter into definitive relations that are indispensable and independent of their will; these relations of production correspond to a definite stage of development of their material forces of production. The sum of these relations of production constitutes the economic structure of society- the real foundation, in which rises the legal and political superstructure and to which correspond definite forms

of social consciousness. The mode of production in material life determines the social, political and intellectual life in general. It is not the consciousness of men that determines their being, but, on the contrary, their social being that determines their consciousness" (p.365). (as cited in Hollestein, 2006).

B. Studies Done on Teacher Success

The importance of teachers' role in the process of learning in general and language learning in particular have been verified by many studies. Therefore, it is not unusual that by browsing the same kind of literature, we can encounter many effective, successful and good teachers. Although these evaluations have focused on teachers 'thinking skills, other characteristics such as affective, cognitive and personality traits have been widely extended by many L2 researchers. For example, the relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' emotional intelligence (EQ) and their professional success have been scrutinized by Hashemi (2008), but no significant relation was found between the two variables.

A more panoramic view of successful teacher qualities has been suggested by Elizabeth, May and Chee (2008). Professional qualities, Personal qualities and contextual are three groups that they find as the features which are causing influence on teacher success.

III. Purpose of the Study

As mentioned before, some research has been done on the field of critical pedagogy and on successful teachers' characteristics but little if any has been done or reported on the relationship between these two. Because the critical pedagogy concept and characteristics of successful teacher are of high significance in all levels of education and because they contribute to teaching effectiveness, the necessity for further research is felt to examine how these features are related specially in EFL realm. In conclusion, the current study tries to investigate the relationship between EFL teachers' view on principle of critical pedagogy and their educational success. It also tries to indicate how much teachers' critical pedagogical view contributes, if any, to the prediction of teachers' success that in turn contributes to realm of education. More specifically, the study addresses the following questions:

1. Is there any relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical pedagogical view and their educational success in teaching?
2. Is there any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and years of teaching experience?
3. Is there any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and their age?
4. Is there any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and their educational degree?
5. Is there any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and their gender?

Considering the research questions above this study aims at testing the following null hypotheses:

1. There isn't any relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical pedagogical view and their educational success in teaching.
2. There isn't any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and years of teaching experience.
3. There isn't any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and their age.
4. There isn't any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and their degree.
5. There isn't any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and their gender.

IV. Methodology

A. Participants

This study consists of two groups of participants. Because the critical pedagogical views of teachers were to be analyzed, the first group of participants was selected from 76 EFL teachers aged between22 and 34 years old with a range of between 1 and 6 years of teaching experience. They consisted of 38 females and 38males from various socioeconomic backgrounds, the majority of whom had majored in the different branches of English—English translation English literature, and English teaching.

In order to see how successful the above-mentioned teacher are the second group of participants was chosen to complete questionnaires about their teachers' success. This group consists of 760 EFL learners (students of the above-mentioned teachers). They were 371 males and 389 females whose age varied from 14 to 66 and came from various socioeconomic backgrounds. Their educational level varied from high school to MA and their language proficiency varied from elementary to advanced level.

B. Instrumentation

In the current study, two instruments namely "principle of critical pedagogy" designed by Yilmaz (2009) and "characteristics of successful teacher" by Moafian and Pishgaman (2009) were applied to get information from participants. This questionnaire developed by Yilmaz (2009), involves 31 items with three sub-dimensions namely "Educational system" 15 items "Functions of Schools" 11 items "emancipator School" 5 items. In Turkey, it has been

used in a study. Factor load values of the scale items ranged from .31 to .80.As Bachman (1990) claims that this method can be considered as one of the most powerful approaches of estimating construct validity. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale turned out to be .7.5.The Farsi version of the appraisal was used by the researcher, since the English one was time consuming and difficult for them whose mother tongue was not English. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was estimated to be .75.The scale responses were designed as follows: 1- Strongly Disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Fairly Agree, 4- Agree, and 5- Strongly Agree. Total score of the responses indicated the extent to which they agreed with the principles of critical pedagogy.

The Persian translation of the questionnaire was applied since answering a 31- item questionnaire in English was time- consuming and difficult for respondents whose mother tongue was not English so a translation version could put them at ease. A copy of the questionnaire's Persian and English translation is provided in Appendices section.

The researcher employs the 'Characteristics of successful EFL teachers' questionnaire, to evaluate language teachers' performance and success in language teaching which has been designed by Moafian and Pishghadam (in press) and includes 47 items ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The results of reliability analysis show that the total reliability of the questionnaire is very high (Cronbach's alpha 0.94).The results of factor analysis indicated that the questionnaire measures 12 constructs: teaching accountability, interpersonal relationships, attention to all, examination, commitment, learning boosters, creating a sense of competence, teaching boosters, physical and emotional acceptance, empathy, class attendance, and dynamism (Moafian and Pishghadamop.cit.). The total reliability of the questionnaire was 0.95 that estimated via Cronbach's alpha (Ghanizadeh and Moafian, 2010).

C. Procedure

The employment of an ex post facto design for obtaining measures of teachers' view about the principles of critical pedagogy is considered as an important factor. Yilmaz Principles of Critical pedagogy Scale was given to the teachers to answer in their free time. To the purpose of the research each was shortly introduced and they were instructed on how to answer some the appraisal form. Furthermore, at the end of the term students were supposed to air their views about their teachers' success by completing the Successful Iranian EFL Teacher (SIET) questionnaire in their regular class time. The researcher started the data analysis after collecting the data, to answer the research question as to whether EFL teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy could be a forecaster of their student-evaluated professional success.

D. Data Collection

The study was conducted in several private institutes such as Jahad- e- daneshgahi, Shokuh, Safir, ZabanGostar, Kavoshgaran, Kanunzabane Iran in Urmia, a city in north-western Iran, between May and October 2011. The researcher selected them because of their feasibility and credibility criteria in Urmia. The teachers were asked to complete the CP test, at the end of the term (Appendix B). At the same time, the "Characteristics of the Successful EFL Teachers' Questionnaire" (Appendix C) was given to the teachers' students. The questionnaires were filled at home by them and, next session, were delivered them back to the researchers. The researchers explained the aim of completing the questionnaire because they wanted to receive the reliable evaluation by the learners, and also researchers assured the learners that their views would be confidential; moreover, teachers' and students' questionnaires were coded numerically and participants were asked not to write a name on them.

E. Data Analysis

The 16th version of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used for analyzing the data. As the first step they tried to discover whether there is any significant correlation between the participants' questionnaire score and their total CP scores. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for the two sets of the scores was computed, as two continuous variables were involved. After obtaining significant correlation, multiple regression analysis was to be run with the three aspects of critical pedagogy underlying CP- questionnaire designed by Yilmaz (2009) as the set of independent variables and the obtained questionnaire scores as the dependent variable.

V. RESULT

Descriptive statistics was to run in order to obtain the normality of the distribution. Descriptive results of the two instruments- Critical Pedagogy test and questionnaire- used in this study was summarized in the Table 5.1. According to descriptive statistics (Table 5.1)all the 76 teacher-participants who answered the Critical Pedagogy test and questionnaire were considered as active valid subjects in the data analysis procedure. The range of the participants' scores was between 46 to 133 on Critical Pedagogy test and 138.20 to 220 on SIET questionnaire.

TABLE5.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CP TEST AND SIET QUESTIONNAIRE

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
CP	76	46.00	133.00	1.0003E2	30.41797
Success	76	138.20	220.00	1.8723E2	28.72712
Valid N (listwise)	76				

According to the first null hypothesis there is no significant correlation between Iranian EFL teachers' critical pedagogy views and their professional success. In so doing Pearson product moment correlation was employed to test this hypothesis. Table 5.2 shows the coefficient of this correlation between total Critical Pedagogy test and questionnaire scores. The correlation coefficient obtained is 0.635 which shows it is significant at 0.01 level of significance ($r = 0.635$, $p \leq 0.01$). In other words, because of this correlation null hypothesis is rejected and we can notice that the two variables at issue are significantly positively correlated.

TABLE 5.2.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN CP TEST AND SIET SCORES

		Success	CP
Success	Pearson Correlation	1	.635**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	76	76
CP	Pearson Correlation	.635**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	76	76

Having rejected the first null hypothesis a significant correlation between teacher student-evaluated success and their critical Pedagogy's views was determined. The next step in the data analysis was to determine where the correlation lay in terms of the three aspects of critical Pedagogy as designed by Yilmaz (2009).In a further date analysis regression analysis was done which indicated that the total score of CP is a key factor influencing the dependent variable which is teachers' success (Table 5.3).

TABLE 5.3.
COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN CP TEST AND SIET QUESTIONNAIRE

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	127.236	8.861		14.359	.000
	CP	.600	.085	.635	7.073	.000

a. Dependent Variable: success

Another multiple regression analysis was employed in order to find the correlation between the teacher-participants' scores on the three aspects of critical Pedagogy as the set of independent variables and their questionnaire scores on as the dependent variable. The results of the Pearson product moment correlation analysis of these variables are presented in Table 5.4. An approximate value of 0.6 was estimated regarding the correlation coefficient between the set of independent variables, namely measures of the three aspects of critical pedagogy, and the dependent variable, namely measures of the participants' professional success, which, according to table of ANOVA (Table 5.5) is statistically significant. So the null hypothesis is rejected. Moreover, the R Square, as "the percentage of the variance of the predicted (dependent) variable that is due to, or explained by, the combined predictor (independent) variables" (Best & Kahn, 2006, pp.432-433) (as cited in Moafian and Pishghadam, 2010), has a value of 0.546. In other words about 50% of the variance of the teacher-participants' questionnaire scores is justified by their total scores on CP.

TABLE 5.4.
MODEL SUMMARY OF CP SUB DIMENSIONS

M Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.751[a]	.564	.546	19.35635

a. Predictors: (Constant), CP3, CP2, CP1

TABLE 5.5.
ANOVA FOR PARTIAL CORRELATION OF CP TESTS WITH SIET SCORES

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	34917.414	3	11639.138	31.065	.000[a]
	Residual	26976.127	72	374.668		
	Total	61893.540	75			

a. Predictors: (Constant), CP3, CP2, CP1

b. Dependent Variable: success

To delve into details and find the correlation between each of the three components of CP and EFL teachers' professional success a partial correlation analysis was conducted. Table 5.6 indicates the extent to which each of these components of Critical Pedagogy is important to EFL teachers' professional success. As it is shown in the table of partial correlations, only two of the components of critical pedagogy, namely 'function of school' and 'emancipator school' show significant correlation at 0.05 level of significance (Beta = 0.446, $p \leq 0.05$ for 'function of school' and Beta = 0.508, $p \leq 0.01$ for 'emancipator school'). The "education system" sub dimension is not significant at alpha level.

TABLE 5.6.
COEFFCIENTS AND PARTIAL CORRELATIONS OF CP WITH SIET QUESTIONNAIRE

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	98.224	10.153		9.674	.000
	CP1	-.344	.396	-.167	-.869	.388
	CP2	.961	.422	.446	2.275	.026
	CP3	3.511	.827	.508	4.244	.000

a. Dependent Variable: success

Regarding the statistical perspective, the second null hypothesis there is no significant correlation between Iranian EFL teachers' critical pedagogy views and their teaching experience. Pearson product–moment correlation was used to test this null hypothesis and specify the role of teaching experience in teachers' critical pedagogical views. Based on findings no significant correlation was found between teachers' years of teaching experience and the total scores of critical pedagogy views. (Table 5.7)

TABLE 5.7.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' EXPERIENCE AND CP PRINCIPLES

		Experience	CP
Experience	Pearson Correlation	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.226
	N	76	76
CP	Pearson Correlation	-.141	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.226	
	N	76	76

According to the assumption behind the third null hypothesis there isn't any significant correlation between Iranian EFL teachers' critical pedagogy views with respect to their age. The Pearson product-moment correlation was employed to investigate the relationship between teachers' agreement with principles of CP and their age. According to the results obtained it is revealed that there isn't any significant correlation between teachers' age and total CP scores. (Table 5.8)

TABLE 5.8.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' AGE AND THEIR CP VIEWS

		CP	Age
Cc CP	Pearson Correlation	1	-.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.871
	N	76	76
Aaage	Pearson Correlation	-.019	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.871	
	N	76	76

Based on the assumption behind the fourth null hypothesis there isn't any significant correlation between Iranian EFL teachers' critical pedagogy views and their degree. To determine whether there is any significant correlation between the teachers' CP views and their educational degree, Pearson product– moment correlation was used. The results show that there is not a significant correlation between EFL teachers' educational degree and their CP views (see Table 5.9).

TABLE 5.9.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS DEGREE AND THEIR VIEWS ON CP PRINCIPLES

		CP	Degree
CP	Pearson Correlation	1	.051
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.663
	N	76	76
Degree	Pearson Correlation	.051	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.663	
	N	76	76

According to the fifth null hypothesis there isn't any significant correlation between Iranian EFL teachers' critical pedagogy views and their gender. To test the role of teaching gender in teachers' CP views, Pearson product–moment correlation was used. The findings indicated that there is no significant correlation between teachers' gender and the total scores of CP views (see Table 5.10).

TABLE 5.10.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN TEACHERS' GENDER AND THEIR VIEWS ON CP PRINCIPLES

		CP	Gender
CP	Pearson Correlation	1	.069
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.552
	N	76	76
Gender	Pearson Correlation	.069	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.552	
	N	76	76

VI. CONCLUSION

A. Discussion

As stated before, the goal of this study is to probe at first if there was any relationship between EFL teachers' attitudes toward perception of critical pedagogy and their success. According to the results there was a significant positive relationship between CP and teachers' success. Because of the degree of this correlation it is revealed that the closer EFL teachers' methods are toward principles of critical pedagogy, the more likely they are to be viewed successful in their job by their pupils. This is in regard to previous theoretical and empirical studies done successfully. This is not surprising because critical pedagogical views of teachers can be said to influence almost all their pedagogical decisions about how best to improve learner participation, how to group learners and how to make them free in discussing social problems, what additional materials, tasks and discussions related to their future to draw upon, and numerous other '*how's*, '*what's* and '*why's*.

As said before, function of schools and emancipator school, among the CP components were key factors with respect to teachers' success.

This is not surprising since there was a shift from traditional teacher-centered classes toward communicative language teaching setting specially in private institutes where free discussion, cooperation, pair work are the focus of attention (Ghanizadeh and Moafian, 2010).According to Williams and Burden (1997) the facilitative role of a positive and warm classroom climate that is conducive to learning has been indicated he great amount of research about teacher effectiveness.

According to the second component of CP in this study, namely "functions of schools", some issues such as social problems and inequalities are to be discussed in the class, for such view makes students more willing to participate in class activity since their futures are to be quarantined in more just and equal community. Another principle of critical pedagogy is criticism of teacher by students.

Students like to have more flexible teachers who accept criticisms made by students to improve their behavior, approach, or even style of his or her teaching.

One Principle of second dimension of critical pedagogy is for students to take contribution in class. According to this view teacher is not the only authority in the class who orders commands and rules but he or she is a facilitator helping

students to share their ideas toward solving and improving their problems and lives respectively. The more cooperative the atmosphere of the class is, the more enthusiastic the students will be.

Another principle underlying the second dimension of critical pedagogy is that not only teacher and knowledge but also students should be the center of attention. This view supports the idea that since the forthcoming future will be made by students and they are to carry the heavy burden of being in charge of society so it is students who must be the focus of attention and be aware of the social problems in society.

The third dimension of critical pedagogy designed by Yilmaz (2009) which enjoys the most attention consists of some principles. One of these principles is that education is a must to gain a solid footing in society. It believes that in order for a society to have firm establishment, it should be based on education.

Problems of society can be well elaborated by taking educational issues into consideration.

Another principle of this third dimension of CP is that students are supposed to be emancipated. They should be set free in order to discuss social problems and they are not to be penalized by any authority for any criticism they made. Authorities and responsibilities are another factor of this session. Critical pedagogy believes that in the classroom students and teachers must share their responsibilities and authorities.

Since teachers play an important role in the educational system, this study also aims at investigating their views regarding principles of critical pedagogy according to certain variables such as age, experience, gender, and degree.

Considering teachers critical pedagogical views based on other variables on this study no significant difference was noticed. In all of these variables observed values for t score were not greater that the critical value and none of the null hypotheses were rejected and it can be claimed that there is no significant difference between teachers' views on critical pedagogy principles according to their age, degree, and gender.

educational system in Iran represents top-down approach which means that authority, discipline, and good work habit must be prioritized and there is some sort of limitation in changing educational system and making improvement because of religious beliefs but most of Iranian EFL teachers indirectly apply principles of critical pedagogy in the education which leads to better teaching environment.

B. Conclusions of the Study

As indicated earlier this study aims at testing the following null hypotheses:

1. There isn't any relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' critical pedagogical view and their educational success in teaching.
2. There isn't any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and years of teaching experience.
3. There isn't any relationship between EFL teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and age.
4. There isn't any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and their educational degree.
5. There isn't any relationship between teachers' view on principles of critical pedagogy and their gender.

According to the results obtained in the fourth chapter only one null hypothesis of this study was rejected. The results thus indicated that there is not a relationship between Iranian EFL teachers' pedagogical views and their educational success. According to this view the more teachers believe in principles of pedagogy the more successful they are viewed by students.

On the other hand there was not any significant difference between teachers' views according to their years of educational experience, gender, age, and educational success.

EFL/ESL research on the prevailing concept of critical pedagogy has for the most part rotated around improving social equality and injecting it into educational system. In an attempt to extend this line of research to EFL teacher effectiveness and teacher education studies, the present researcher aimed to answer the question of if the critical pedagogy's views of Iranian EFL teachers of adults have any effect on their student-evaluated professional success. For this aim, the three-component model of critical pedagogy as defined by Yilmaz (2009) is the basis of analysis. Based on the statistical analysis ways employed a rather high significant positive correlation between the teacher-participants' total critical pedagogy scores on CP questionnaires and their professional success measures on SIETQ was determined ($r \approx 0.6$), therefore the first null hypotheses is rejected. More analysis showed that correlation coefficient obtained was the accumulated influence of two of the three elements of the critical thinking model used in this study: *function of school and emancipator school.* It can be inferred that the more critical teachers we are the more successful EFL teachers we will be. Having this in mind, some implication can be obtained regarding EFL/ESL teacher success, teacher education program.

According to Suwandee (1995), students can be considered the best source for teachers' performance estimate. They are at vantage point to decide the classroom teaching's quality.

C. Implication of Critical Pedagogy in Education

The results of the current study show that teacher critical pedagogical points are significant in teaching. Therefore, if shift and flexibility appear to affect practices of teaching, it is important to specify contributing factors toward the development of teacher educational programs. In a similar vein it is necessary to develop and design programs for EFL teachers the focus of which is critical pedagogy. This will in turn help them to cope with their flexibility in a suitable way, conduct more productive classes and establish more intimate relationships with students in the class.

CP's application in the realm of education also contribute to the process of teaching and learning as political and language use is " a practice that constructs the ways learners understand themselves, their socio-historical surroundings and their possibility for the future" (Norton & Toohey, 2004).

In addition interest and needs of learners are the focus of attention in critical pedagogy and curriculum is based on these factors. In CP classroom environment is to be enjoyable one in that students are allowed to choose the topic of a course and they are even allowed to criticize their teacher so that there is a share power among teachers and students.

As teachers, we should attempt to provide the best possible education for our students, regardless of their socioeconomic background or what makes them different from one another. The prime goal is to use those differences to create powerful learning environment and meaningful experiences in the classroom that they will take with them in the world and set out to change society to be a better place through acts of peace. We need to take it to account that there are still many conflicts in the world regarding race, language, and social class. As educators, we must also recognize that not all of the problems have been solved, nor will they ever be solved. Yet, if we take the time to pay attention to these problems we will be much closer to giving our students the opportunities they deserve.

Being one of the post method approaches, CP believes that for a selection of appropriate method or technique teachers need to analyze the teaching context and the learner need in order to make the right choice for a given teaching situation and using of different kinds of CPs' issues, discussions and student points of view can improve the process of learning.

D. Limitation of the Study

The main limitation of this study was to get participants to respond thoroughly and honestly to the questionnaire they were given at the beginning of the study. The participants were supposed to be as forthcoming in their responses as possible. If any of the participants answer the questions by chance that might have changed the findings.

Another limitation for this study was that the sample drawn from a single city (Urmia), so the results may not be generalizable to the whole country. Also because of religious limitations some of the teachers might not be able to answer the questionnaire in the way they want to.

According to Dornyie (2007) the inferences made based on the correlational studies should be made cautiously because of the post hoc fallacy thread which means that the observed correlation may not account for cause-effect relationship or on the other hand it may not fail to account to substantiate a significant correlation between two of the components of critical pedagogy, namely ‘function of schools' and ‘emancipator school', and EFL teacher success.

E. Suggestions for Further Studies

Questionnaires are the only means that we used for measuring the capabilities of the teachers. In forthcoming studies, researchers could make use of other kinds of evaluation means like observation, interviewing students, or a mixture of different evaluation devices to evaluate effectiveness teachers in classroom settings.

At the present study, we added limited numbers of variables. The relationship between success of teachers and CP principles could be scrutinized in terms of other variables.

Because of researchers' knowledge, they did very little to find the relationship between EFL teachers’ CP views and their success by a questionnaire that is specifically designed for EFL teachers. Therefore, this study should be replicated.

Because this study was done just in language institutes, we need more research for comparing the results in high schools.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 154-162, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.154-162

Interpreting the Construction of the Multimodality of E. E Cummings' "Eccentric Typographical" Poem "l(a"

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***Abstract*—Kress and Van Leeuwen, who introduced the meta-function into visual circumstances and established the Grammar of Visual Design which is developed from the theoretical framework of Halliday's systemic functional grammar and provides a theoretical foundation for researches on multimodality, holds that not only verbal semiotics but also visual semiotics can express meaning. Therefore, based upon the theory of systemic functional grammar and the theory of multimodal discourse analysis, this paper takes E. E cummings' poem "l(a" as an example and attempts to propose a model of multimodal approach to visual poems. The particular focuses of the study are laid on interpreting the construction of its verbal modality which includes the ideational metafunction, interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction, and the construction of its visual modality (typographical aspects) which includes the establishment of visual grammar systems and the ways the grammatical structures of visual modality realize representational metafunction, interactive metafunction and compositional metafunction so as to explore different possibilities of interpreting the poem. It is proved by the study that multimodality approach proves a systemic and more through way in interpreting such poems. Meanwhile, it further verifies the fact that multimodal analytic approach to discourse integrates language and language-related resources, with the result of making the discourse interpretation more comprehensive and approximative. Hopefully, the provoking result of this study will inspire further studies on multimodal approach to visual poetry.**

***Index Terms*—visual poetry, typography, multimodality discourse analysis, metafunction**

I. Introduction

A. Research Background

Visual poetry is poetry or art in which the visual arrangement of text, images and symbols is important in conveying the intended effect of the work (Dong Chongxuan, 2004). In other words, Visual poetry is a medium that explores the tension that lies between the semantics and the visuality of written language, and treats words, letters or symbols as primary material, enriched by the dynamic nature and physical possibilities of technology. It is sometimes referred to as concrete poetry, a term that predates visual poetry, and at one time was synonymous with it. Visual poetry was heavily influenced by Fluxus which, a name taken from a Latin word meaning "to flow", is an international network of artists, composers and designers noted for blending different artistic media and disciplines in the 1960s and thus is usually described as being Intermedia (O'Dell & Kathy, 1997). Intermedia work tends to blur the distinctions between different media, and visual poetry blurs the distinction between art and text. Whereas concrete poetry is still recognizable as poetry, being composed of purely typographic elements, visual poetry is generally much less text-dependent. Visual poems incorporate text, but the text may have primarily a visual function, for it often incorporates significant amounts of non-text imagery in addition to text.

B. Literature Review

Visual poetry has been widely studied at home and abroad and opinions about it have differed among traditional literary critics, which can be recapitulated and classified into following aspects:

(a) literary criticism: to explore the forms, skills, language, words and titles of these visual poetry (Zhang Shuyuan 2003; Duan Jingwen 2002).

(b) narrative stylistics and rhetorics: to investigate the deviation, salience and metaphor represented in these visual poetry (Kidder 1979; Widdowson 1992; Zhao Cuilian 1994; Luo Yimim 2004).

* Supported by the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities of 2014: "A Cognitive Construction Grammar Approach to English Cognate Object Constructions" (NO.SWU1409353) and the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities of 2013: "An Empirical Study of the Acquisition of English Phrasal Verbs: From the Perspective of Cognitive Linguistics" (NO.SWU1309462).

(c) functional stylistics: to probe into the discourse cohesion and coherence of these visual poetry (Li Bingmei 2006; Yu Xueyong 2007).

(d) phonology: to inquire into the visual speech of these poetry, namely, to define the signified of these orthographic words with the help of visual forms of the poetry (Cureton 1985b; Griffiths 1980; Funkhouser 1984)

(e) cognitive linguistics: to study the poetic effect and its underlying mechanism (Cureton 1985a; Hiraga 2005; Ren Yuxin 2008)

(f) multimodal discourse analysis: to analyse the meaning textured in these visual poetry by integrating language and language-related resources so as to overcome the deficiencies of traditional test-based analyses of these poems (Welch 1984; Leeuewn 2006; Wang Huamin 2004; Hu Dan 2007; Xin Zhiying 2008).

Based on the above-listed literature review, it is evident that these studies are limited in two aspects. First, except the multimodal discourse analysis emerging in the late 1990s, other traditional test-based analyses ignore the non-linguistic semiotic systems comprising the visual poetry. Second, though the multimodal discourse analysis overcomes the deficiencies of traditional test-based analyses, it focus on the study of film and TV, multimedia, posters and visual advertisements while the relevant study of visual poetry is still in its infancy and needs to be further advanced. Therefore, this paper takes e. e cummings' poem "l(a" as an example and attempts to explore the construction of its verbal modality which includes the ideational metafunction, interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction, and the construction of its visual modality (typographical aspects) which includes the establishment of visual grammar systems and the ways the grammatical structures of visual modality realize representational metafunction, interactive metafunction and compositional metafunction so as to verify the fact multimodal analytic approach to visual poetry integrates verbal semiotic and visual semiotic and thus is a more thorough way in interpreting such poems, for it makes discourse interpretation more comprehensive and approximative.

II. Typography as a Semiotic Mode

A. *Modality, Multimodality and Multimodal Discourse*

Modality refers to the channel and medium by which signs are transmitted (oral, gesture, written) and includes the semiotic systems of language, image, color, music and so on (Zhu Yongsheng 2007). Multimodality seamlessly combines graphics, text and audio output with speech, text, and touch input to deliver a dramatically enhanced end user experience (Li Zhanzi 2003). When compared to a single-mode of interface in which the user can only use either voice/ audio or visual modes, multimodal applications gives them multiple options for inputting and receiving information. This makes the service application much easier to use or more intuitive. Kress (2001) pointed out that all modalities are meaning potential. Mutimodal discourse is a kind of "new writing" in which different modalities interact with and complement each other to create meaning in context (Yang Xinzhang 2009). After getting a general idea of mutimodal discourse, we move onto the following questions: how should we analyze it ? What is its theoretical foundation?

B. *Multimodal Discourse Analysis: A Systemic Functional Exploration*

Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) in their book *Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design*, used Halliday's metafunctional theory (Halliday, 1978) to argue that the image constitutes a semiotic mode in its own right, a kind of "language". According to Halliday (1985), spoken and written texts always and simultaneously fulfill three broad communicative functions or "metafunctions", and specific linguistic resources, specific lexicogrammatical and discourse-level "systems" can be matched to each of these three metafunctions--the ideational, the interpersonal, and the textual functions. Kress and Van Leeuwen (2006) proposed that images, too, can fulfill all three of these metafunctions, and that the "grammatical" resources of images, too, can be matched to specific metafunctions.

To briefly gloss the metafunctions, the ideational function is the function of constructing representations of what is going on in the world and in our mind. The most important linguistic systems which realize it, are the lexicon and the grammar of transitivity, which outlines the different kinds of processes (e.g. material and mental processes) that make it possible to create different representations of what must ultimately be the same phenomena. In images, Kress and Van Leeuwen argued, this function by the name of "representational metafunction", which includes "narrative representations" and "conceptual representations" is fulfilled by certain aspects of composition (e.g. Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996, pp.79-89) and by systems of vectoriality (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996, pp.56-71).

The interpersonal function is the function of language to constitute social interactions and express attitudes towards what is being represented. One of the lexicogrammatical resources for the former is the grammar of mood, which allows us to do different things with language, such as making statements, asking questions and so on. The linguistic resources for expressing attitudes have recently been formulated in the theory of "appraisal" systems (Martin, 2000). In images, the interpersonal function by the name of interactive metafunction is fulfilled by the systems of the gaze, size of frame, and angle (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996).

The textual function, finally, allows us to use language to reorganize individual representations-cum-interactions into coherent texts and communicative events, linguistically through the systems of cohesion, thematic structure, and given-new information. In images, the textual function by the name of compositional metafunction, is fulfilled through the systems of composition, framing and salience (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996).

In this part, the author has outlined the theoretical framework of multimodal discourse analysis but a question arises:

can typography--a main device employed in visual poetry, fulfill all three of these functions?

C. The Multimodality of Typography

As to the question alluded in the last part, Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) give an answer of affirmation. In their eyes, typography can, and is, used ideationally, to represent actions and qualities, which means to perform representational function of visual images. Typography can also enact interactions and express attitudes to what is being represented, namely the interactive function of visual images. A word can be changed into a "warning" or a "question" through typography, and typography can also be used to express attitudes towards what is being represented. It can interpret, or, you might say, "perform" texts, or parts of texts, as modern, or traditional, capricious or serious, exciting or dull and so on.

The way typography can realize textual meaning, that is to say, the compositional metafunction, is verified by the fact that typography can demarcate the elements, the units, of a text and express their degree of similarity or difference as textual elements, and it can foreground key elements of a text and background less important elements. Many typographical signs that are not letter forms realize textual meaning, the most obvious example being punctuation marks greatly exemplified in Cummings' visual poetry, and they, too, are now rapidly developing new uses and new signs.

Kress and Van Leeuwen introduced meta-function into visual circumstance and establish the grammar of visual design, which provided a theoretical foundation for researches on multimodality. Therefore, based upon the theory of systemic functional grammar and the theory of multimodal discourse analysis, this paper takes E. E cummings' poem "l(a" as an example and attempts to propose a model of multimodal approach to visual poems.

III. E. E Cummings and His Unique Poetic Forms

A. A Brief Biography of E. E Cummings

According to Kennedy (1980) and Chang Yaoxin (2001), Edward Estlin Cummings (October 14, 1894 – September 3, 1962), popularly known as E. E. Cummings, with the abbreviated form of his name often written by himself in lowercase letters as e.e. Cummings, was born in Cambridge, Massachusetts, to liberal, indulgent parents who from early on encouraged him to develop his creative gifts. While at Harvard, where his father had taught before becoming a Unitarian minister, he delivered a daring commencement address on modernist artistic innovations, thus announcing the direction his own work would take. He began to write avant-garde poems in which conventional punctuation and syntax were ignored in favor of a dynamic use of language. Cummings also experimented with poems as visual objects on the page. These early efforts were included in Eight Harvard Poets, a collection of poems by members of the Harvard Poetry Society (http://www.poetryfoundation.org/). As well as being influenced by notable modernists including Gertrude Stein and Ezra Pound during his years at Harvard, Cummings' early work drew upon the imagist experiments of Amy Lowell, which characterizes the use of visual images to represent the content of poetry.

After graduating from Harvard, Cummings spent a month working for a mail order book dealer and then left the job because of the tedium. In April of 1917, with the First World War raging in Europe and the United States not yet involved, he volunteered for the Norton-Harjes Ambulance Service in France. Here he and a friend were imprisoned (on false grounds) for three months in a French detention camp. At the end of the First World War Cummings again went to Paris to study art. His visits to Paris exposed him to Dada and surrealism, which in turn permeated his work. Generally self-taught, he considered himself a professional painter throughout his life. In the late 1920s, however, Cummings settles into a more representational, subjectivist mode of painting and notably breaks with the aesthetics of "objectivity, calculation and detachment" (Cohen, 1987). His goal was to stay connected to reality to a greater extent than the abstract art movement cared to. In fact, all of his works, even the colorful cubist abstractions and suggestive impressionist portraits, display his positive commitment to experience and a direct tie to it. As he himself claimed "The day of the spoken lyric is past... The poem which has at last taken its place does not sing itself; it builds itself, three dimensionally, gradually, subtly, in the consciousness of the experiencer" (http://www.anb.org/articles/16/16-00394.html). His paintings hold onto the inner dynamism of the experience he wants to relate, while his poetry is informed by images, colors, and shapes. He never draws a distinct line between poetry and painting, both of which stream from the same creative source, as he sees it.

B. Unique Poetic Forms of E. E Cummings

Among the most innovative of twentieth-century poets, according to Chang Yaoxin (2001) and Peng Yu (1995), E. E. Cummings experimented with poetic form and language to create a distinct personal style. He has been known for his unusual way of lines distribution and outstanding writing skills. He resorted to various unique syntactic structures in many of his poems to create his unique "eccentric typography". Many of them do not only involve graphological or punctuation innovations, but also syntactic ones.

1. Multimedia and Multisensory

E. E. Cummings is an artist as well as a poet who blurs the line between the two forms of art. His synesthesia inoculates him against postmodern disintegration of meaning or form. He rebels against traditional poetic forms and invents a new language of multisensory and multimedia processing. He makes orthography and page design sculpt the spontaneous experience he wants to convey (Nikitina, 2009).

His "twin obsessions" with poetry and painting make him unique innovators even in the age of wild and ubiquitous experimentation of the early twentieth century (Kidder, 1979). He stands out because his bold demolition of traditional poetic forms did not lead to disintegration of meaning or self-absorbed formalism. This happened because his "poempictures" and the merger of the visual and verbal sensibilities led to the "hardening" of his image making and inoculated it against postmodern deconstruction (Cohen, 1987). He crossed the line from painting to poetry on a daily basis and deployed the kind of explosive under the foundation of conventional poetic rhyme and line. He found in himself the power to celebrate births not burns, life not language, experience not experiment. His drive for unity of form and content, the visual and the verbal, is present in all his works, because he "not only thought and heard his poems, but saw them as well" (Cohen, 1987).

A union of the verbal and the visual delivers "the emotional substance of experience" in all its vitality and integrity (Lane, 1976). Convergence of different media is attempted in his works not as a formal exercise, but as a way to reinforce the message and protect it from disassembly. In translating across media, he distilled and solidified the essence of the image, making it signify, for he hoped for a true convergence of media and perception, "in which the artist and viewer actually become the work of art — presumably, by imaginatively entering into it so thoroughly as to obscure the boundaries separating subject and object" (Cohen 70).

Merging media is a strikingly contemporary idea that is being realized actively in interactive media where the path to the integrity of meaning seems to lie through synesthesia. Cummings put the sound, rhythm, color to work to overcome the analytical flatness of the poetic message. Poem-crafting in his hands involved tinkering with words as if they were also musical bars or design elements with which to give shape to experience. Their synesthetic sensibility — bringing the verbal and the visual together — possibly inoculated Cummings, in particular, "against the galloping stagnation which seems to carry off so many of our younger American poets" (Slater Brown , 1984).

2. Formal Innovations

The breaks that proved much more positive and productive for E. E. Cummings were his formal innovations. These innovations involved radical rethinking of all poetic material: words, their connections to other words, and their placement on the page as semantic devices. Such breaks signal a new relationship between the poet and his material, informed by a sensibility of a visual artist. The poet treated a word as a unit of meaning as well as a design piece. The visual aspects of the word expressed through its graphics and placement on a page are not extraneous to meaning, but an essential part of it.

Several linguistic innovations includes word-making, loosening of syntactic ties, line and orthography breaks. As Perkins (1987) claimed, "He experimented with the ellipsis, distortion, fragmentation, and a grammatical juxtaposition that make some of his poetry difficult. He dismembered words into syllables and syllables into letters, and though his fragmentation activated rhymes and puns, the reasons for it were also typographical--the look of the poem on the page"

The poet is also a tireless word-maker. He created words by merging several stems into compounds ("shout-lipped," "puddle-wonderful," "mud-luscious"), by moving the words between grammatical categories (a noun becomes a verb, an adjective becomes an noun), and by turning an abstract concept into countable nouns.

He also practised the loosening of logical and linguistic ties between words in the sentence. Loosening of syntactic ties and the use of associative logic in such poetry grant words more stylistic, graphic and semantic independence, turning them into "individual syntactic values" (Vinokur, 1967), which would be hard to single out if words were tightly bound in grammatical constructions. Cummings achieved the effect in dissolving bonds between the words and even letters and playing them out as single notes carrying their own color, rhythm, and pitch.

His formal innovations look like clean breaks from tradition, without any precedent. On a deeper level, however, his linguistic sensibility, informed by visual thinking, could be seen as a return to the ancient conception of a word as an ideogram -a sign, which blends the visual and the verbal and bridges the gap between the signifier and the signified. His kind of "linguistic creativity is traditional but not in the sense of direct borrowing from these or those close or remote cultural traditions, but in the sense that it serves as a constant reminder of the origins of this linguistic culture" (Vinokur, 1967). In the very act of breaking words and lines apart, Cummings restored language to its original holism based on the fusion of the verbal and the visual, which got severed with time. This explains why his poetry is best experienced visually and orally, as speech and image, not text.

These bold experiments in the deviant poetic language have become one of the focuses of the linguistic study. Linguists attempt to analyze his poems from different linguistic perspectives.

Based upon the theory of systemic functional grammar and the theory of multimodal discourse analysis, this paper takes E. E cummings' poem "l(a" as an example and attempts to propose a model of multimodal approach to visual poems. The particular focuses of the study are laid on interpreting the construction of its verbal modality which includes the ideational metafunction, interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction, and the construction of its visual modality (typographical aspects) which includes the establishment of visual grammar systems and the ways the grammatical structures of visual modality realize representational metafunction, interactive metafunction and compositional metafunction.

IV. On the Construction of Multimodality of E. E Cummings' "l(a"

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by e.e cummings (Complete Poems 673)

This is not an arbitrary construct, though at first glance it may appear to be. What Cummings did was to take the word *loneliness*, break it in two, and insert a short sentence, *a leaf fall*s, into the break; thus, the sentence is "parenthesized" by the word. Not satisfied, however, with merely saying, in effect, "loneliness: a leaf falls," Cummings further disguised his sentiment by applying the schema of dispersion: scattering the lines of the original according to some pattern different from its original structure, perhaps breaking it up into lines that are really phrases or a few words, or by breaking lines in half at the caesurae, or by enjambing two or more lines. This haiku-like poem has been described as the "most delicately beautiful literary construct that Cummings ever created" (Kennedy, 1980). Consisting of just four words, which the poem splits into two distinct phrases— "loneliness," and "a leaf falls"—the poem has generated a wide range of critical analysis. The connection between the two phrases seems at first tenuous. The falling of a leaf is a concrete act, whilst the word "loneliness" is an abstract concept. However, conventional criticism has made the link. Rushworth Kidder (1979), who described the poem as a "brief description of autumn," states that "the single leaf falling is a metaphor for both physical and spiritual isolation". Barry Marks (1964), in a highly detailed reading, asks the reader to hold the two phrases simultaneously together so that various possibilities emerge. Thus, "Loneliness is like a falling leaf," or "The feeling of loneliness is the feeling a man gets when he watches a single leaf falling." Marks (1964) concludes that "It does not take much ... to ... think of autumn, the end of the growing season, the death of the year". Autumn (fall) and the autumn of a man's life—death is a lonely business (http://www.gvsu.edu/).

Such speculation is interesting indeed, but to the critics, not the point of the poem— "it [the poem] asks us to look at the printed page" (Marks, 1964). The form of the poem does indeed foster an attitude of internalisation, of drawing attention to itself as an artifact, a work of art.

A. On the Construction of Verbal Modality

Consisting of just four words, which the poem splits into two distinct phrases— "loneliness," and "a leaf falls"—the poem has generated a wide range of critical analysis. The connection between the two phrases seems at first tenuous for it can be reorganized into two different compositional structures. Firstly, it can be rearranged into: "a leaf falls in loneliness". The word "in" does not exist in the original manuscript, but given the peculiar visual effect of the punctuation mark: parentheses, we paraphrase it into its counterpart "it". Secondly, it can also be considered as two independent clauses: 1) a leaf falls; 2) loneliness, with the second clause as an elliptical sentence.

To begin with, we will analyse the first combination from the perspective of Halliday's systemic functional grammar, namely "a leaf falls in loneliness". As to its ideational function, this clause contains a material process, which was represented by the verb "fall" and this process has a participant (namely, actor) "a leaf" and a circumstantial element "in loneliness". With regards to its interpersonal function, this clause is in indicative mood and in this way the readers get the impression: "A leaf falls alone, and no one cares or notices except the narrator". The textual function of this clause is embodied in the way that "a leaf" function as both the theme and the departure of information, and "falls in loneliness" as the rheme or the new information.

Then we move onto the analysis of the second combination: 1) a leaf falls; 2) loneliness. The ideational function of the clause "a leaf falls" is fulfilled still by "a leaf" functioning as an actor in the material process and the interpersonal function still embodied by its indicative mood, so this is same with the first combination. However, the difference lies in the textual function. In the second combination, we regards "loneliness" as an elliptical sentence with the element "it is" omitted rather than a circumstantial element and in this way the clause "loneliness" is loaded with much more meaning and emotion than just functioning as a circumstantial element. As Huang Guowen (2006) claimed, a clause usually describes a situation which can express both dynamic meaning and stative meaning. So the clause "it is loneliness" in the second combination, can convey, dynamically, the meaning "a leaf is falling" on the one hand, and statically, the

unified and grave loneliness brought about by the scene of "a falling leaf" and the evoked meditation of life. When we integrate the two combinations to interpret the poem, we can get the impression that not only the leaf is in loneliness but also the narrator is also in loneliness and this interpretation can also be verified by the analysis of its visual modality which will be shown in the following parts.

B. On the Construction of Visual Modality

1. The Construe of Representational Meaning

In images, Kress and Van Leeuwen argued, "representational metafunction", which includes "narrative representations" and "conceptual representations" is fulfilled by certain aspects of composition and by systems of vectoriality. Based on this theory, this part will analyse the representational meaning of this poem from the perspective of alignment of type, word-spacing and line-spacing, which is detailedly shown in the following parts.

1.1 Alignment of Type: Vertical Linear

To begin with, the poem dribbles down the page, at once suggesting the descent of a falling leaf, whilst also visually resembling the figure "1", or a vertical stroke on a page . The reader's progress is slowed down by the shattered syntax, and the reader's eye is forced into a similar movement as that when watching a descending leaf, both finally coming to a rest on the "ground" ("iness"—the longest and last line).We see that the poem is organised into stanzas of alternating lines of 1-3-1-3-1, whilst the first four lines alternate vowels and consonants, both indicating, perhaps, the twisting motion of the leaf as it falls. The downward movement is enhanced by lines 5 ("ll") and 8 ("l"), which can be seen as visually enacting the journey. Without even reading the words and using fields of representation perhaps unusual in poetry (the visual in this case), the reader is drawn toward one of the main themes of the poem—that of "one-ness or loneliness" , which is consistent with the proverb " A picture paints a thousand words". Thus, "Loneliness is like a falling leaf," or "The feeling of loneliness is the feeling a man gets when he watches a single leaf falling." It is no surprise that this poem was the first poem in Cummings' book 95 Poems and was numbered "I", further impressing the main theme upon the reader.

1.2 Word-Spacing: Deconstruction of Words

It is once the reader begins to read the poem that the form becomes vital. Starting with the first line, we see that the letter "l" is the same character on the typewriter keyboard as the number "1." Thus, moving into another field of representation (the numerical), we see the number one repeated throughout the poem. Furthermore, the next letter "a" is the indefinite article and its singularity at once supports the concept of "loneliness" and "one-ness." However, pushing into yet another field of representation, this time the French language (Cummings at least has a acquaintance with French for his stay in Pairs during World War I), we see that "la" is the French equivalent of "a" as well as a singular article. Immediately following this comes: "le," at once another "one" (the "l") and also another singularity (this time male—as if even the sexes are separated). Lines three and four enact the twisting of the leaf as it is seen from different sides. Line five repeats the "one-ness' motif (ironically in a pair) as well as visually enacting the downward movement of the leaf. Line six indeed, has a sonic level. It is full of soft sounds and sibilances: it makes a moaning, windy noise, and the esses sound like leaves rustling along the ground, strengthening the dismal mood of loneliness. Line seven explicitly states "one," whilst line eight numerically does the same. Finally, line nine, "iness," can be interpreted as "I-ness', (remembering that Cummings always used the lower-case "i" to represent "I") or "one-ness."

Meaning is thus enhanced by the overlapping fields of representation, promoting a kind of unification of meaning—a "one-ness." Yet the closer we examine the poem the more the concept / numeral "one" is shown to be both fragmented and multiple. Thus, the themes of "one / singular / alone" are only perceptible, paradoxically, through the diverse, and shattered syntax. The "I / 1" is, literally, seen to be many "1's" at the same time.

Furthermore, the very arrangement, while seemingly arbitrary, contains its own order and functions to reinforce the content of the poem. Specifically, the disconnected aspect of the poem in terms of its arrangement amplifies the theme of loneliness. Dilworth (1996) in his examination of the poem remarks that “the image of the falling leaf gives narrative definition to the concept loneliness”. A leaf falls alone, and no one cares or notices except the narrator. Besides, since "falls" extends from stanzas two, through three, and into four just as "loneliness" starts in stanza one, skips two, moves through four, and finishes in stanza five, the phrasing of these passages paradoxically produces a continuously fragmented commentary on loneliness. This arrangement also suggest that what may binds us to one another, again paradoxically, is the possibility that ultimately we are each alone (http://www.etd.lib.fsu.edu/).

1.3 Line Spacing: Formation of Stanzas

We see that the poem consisting of just four words, which the poem splits into two distinct phrases— "loneliness," and "a leaf falls", is organised into five stanzas of alternating lines of 1-3-1-3-1, and seemingly recounts the life stages of a leaf during the year, which metaphysically links "a leaf falls" with the "autumn" years of a person's life. As Marks (1964) concludes that "It does not take much ... to ... think of autumn, the end of the growing season, the death of the year". Autumn (fall) and the autumn of a man's life—death is a lonely business.

In the beginning, the line "l(a" symbolizes that the leaf has just sprouted with brightly green freshness, and then lively and dynamically, nod and smile to us as indicated by the lines two "le", three "af" and four "fa". However, as soon as the leaf turns out and grows, you know that summer is near. In the season of relentless sun and oppressive heat, the leaf gradually loses its freshness and vitality and stops swaying in the wind, and temporarily retracts to rest, conforming to the visual image of line five "ll". When autumn (fall) comes, the leaf struggles to clinch to the branch but the cold

and bleak breath of autumn still blows it away, leaving it floating up and down in the air, which is the right visual reflection of lines "s)" "one" and "l" . Finally, when the cold winter approaches, the leaf also reach its final stage of life and rests on the "ground" as is explicitly represented by the line nine "iness"--a state of "grave" loneliness. So the device of line-spacing here vividly show us the life journey of the leaf and this also can also make us associate the "a leaf falls" with the "autumn" years of a person's life--there death is also a lonely business.

2. The Construe of Interactive Meaning

In images, Kress and Van Leeuwen argued, "interactive metafunction is fulfilled by the systems of the gaze, size of frame, and angle. Based on this theory, this part will analyse the interactive meaning of this poem from the perspective of spatial configuration and letter fit, which is detailedly shown in the following parts.

2.1 Spatial Configuration: Visualization of Blank

In the original printing of 95 Poems (1958), "l(a" appeared opposite a blank page—thus at once suggesting the loneliness explicit in the poem. The twenty-three characters (including the title) seemed lost, overwhelmed by the white space, and one's eyes are automatically drawn to the fragile construction. Metaphorically, then, the poem enacts the vastness of space and the smallness of man within that space. This has existential undertones and implicitly suggests another theme of the poem—that of death (autumn). Compared with the unmeasured vastness of the universe, the mankind is extremely small and insignificant, just like the falling leaf in the bleak autumn. Being poor or rich, great or negligible, no one can escape the destiny of human beings--death.

2.2 Letter Fit: Decapitalization

In this poem all the letters are in lower-case even where it should be capitalized. Perhaps, this is Cummings' way of protesting. He was a strong believer in equality and the rights of all people. He wanted to show that we are all equal not just as people but also in our names. Even to the point that every "letter" was equal, and that no letter should carry more weight than any other letter. He even wrote his own name in lowercase letters as e.e. cummings and always used the lower-case "i" to represent "I". Therefore, by having all letter lowercase and using no uppercase, he was demonstrating equality with no superiority. Furthermore, this also implies his modesty and humility towards the universe. As mentioned in the last part, compared with the unmeasured vastness of the universe, the mankind is extremely small and insignificant just like the falling leaf in the bleak autumn. Being poor or rich, great or negligible, no one can escape the destiny of human beings--death. This renders us the enlightenment or apocalypse of an important rule of life--the universe is eternal while the human life is transient, resulting in the unavoidable but futile sense of loneliness towards life.

3. The Construe of Compositional Meaning

In images, Kress and Van Leeuwen argued, compositional metafunction is fulfilled through the systems of composition, framing and salience. Based on this theory, this part will analyse the compositional meaning of this poem from the perspective of ornamentation devices, namely parentheses which is detailedly shown in the following parts.

Punctuation, Levenston (1992) teaches us, is a physical aspect of the text, and together with other physical aspects as typeface, layout, and spelling, participates in the creation of meaning, and "provides additional information not directly available from the flow of speech". Punctuation researchers have identified two prototypical functions. The first, traced by Naomi Baron (2001) back to Aristophanes around 200 BC, is assisting the reader to recreate an original oral rendition of the text, as in marking for the reader varying lengths of pause for when the text is to be read aloud. This role affirms an affinity between marks of punctuation and spoken language. The second, more uniquely associated with the written text, is that of clarification of meaning and organization of units, particularly through marking syntactical relationships.

Some have recognized the significance of punctuation in poetry: punctuation as a poetic device. Punctuation in poetry, especially in free-verse poetry, is "a matter of artistic choice" writes Alan Golding (1981). For Alan Helms (1980), "far from operating as a peripheral part of a poet's work," punctuation "is central to our understanding of poetic meaning because of its ability to influence prosody". "The unorthodox use of punctuation to increase the expressive complexity of literary texts still awaits its historian" says Gerald Janecek (1996).

So, it would come as little surprise, then, that in accordance with his penchant for linguistic estrangement, typographical play, and the creation of movement and experience, Cummings found punctuation a particularly rich arena. As available linguistic material and poetic repository, Cummings made full use of the entire range of semantic, physical, and conceptual contexts punctuation participates in creating. And among the various punctuation marks none has been more explored, used, and abused by Cummings than parentheses. Cummings is the unparalleled poet of parentheses, and the parentheses are for Cummings an extraordinarily prized poetic device, granting us a unique test case of punctuational appropriation.

In Cummings' poems, parentheses provide a dual status to the material in them: it is part of the whole text (it is on the same page and part of the same poem) but also separate. The separation is not complete or total, and this allows for many interesting manipulations which will hinge upon the question of textual autonomy: how independent is the parenthesized material and how dependent? In this most famous poem "l(a" , the parentheses is not used to create a protective shield around delicate content or to signal a part of the text for subordination or superordination. Rather, they are used to interlink two different sections of the text, causing them to exist simultaneously in isolation and in interaction. It is exactly this tension between their making sense separately and being typographically as well as

thematically intertwined that is at play here, like two parts melted into each other, or two layers of the same poem (http://www.engl.niu.edu/), and that fulfills its textual metafunction or compositional metafunction.

V. Conclusion

Visual poetry, an art creating visual images through words, is a special literature form combining poetry and painting. Kress and Van Leeuwen, who introduced the meta-function into visual circumstances and established the Grammar of Visual Design which is developed from the theoretical framework of Halliday's systemic functional grammar and provides a theoretical foundation for researches on multimodality, holds that not only verbal semiotics but also visual semiotics can express meaning. Therefore, based upon the theory of systemic functional grammar and the theory of multimodal discourse analysis, the writer proposes tentatively a model of visual grammar approach to visual poems and takes E. E Cummings' most famous poem "l(a" as an example to investigate the construction of its verbal modality which includes the ideational metafunction, interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction, and the construction of its visual modality (typographical aspects) which includes the establishment of visual grammar systems and the ways the grammatical structures of visual modality realize representational metafunction, interactive metafunction and compositional metafunction so as to explore different possibilities of interpreting the poem. It is proved by the study that the visual modality plays such an important role in constructing the meaning of the poem that it can never be neglected and only through combing the verbal and visual modality together, can we reach the full potential meaning of the poem or make the discourse interpretation more comprehensive and approximative. Hopefully, the provoking result of this study will inspire further studies on multimodal approach to visual poetry.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 163-174, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.163-174

The Comparative Study of Literary vs. Non-literary Text and Iranian EFL Learners' Performance on Cloze Tests of Inference

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***Abstract*—The present study aimed to explore whether there is any difference between the performance of EFL learners who read literary texts and those who read non-literary texts on inference demanding tests. Through convenience method of sampling, 30 Iranian senior university students of English translation B.A., studying at Islamic Azad University, Karaj Branch, Iran, who were of both male and female genders, ranging from 19 to 30 years of age took part in the current investigation. Once their language proficiency was measured by means of Oxford Placement Test, participants took part in an inference demanding test constructed by the researcher consisting of two cloze tests - one non-literary text and one literary text. The results from the t-test indicated that literary text had a more positive impact on the EFL learners' inferring ability than non-literary text. This study is particularly important given the fact that most reading materials are far from being shallow and require deeper interpretation. The major implication of the study was that incorporation of literature in general and literary texts in particular, in EFL curriculum, would serve many benefits specifically in the realm of comprehension and inference.**

***Index Terms*—EFL, reading comprehension, literature, inference**

I. Introduction

Reading plays a major role in EFL language use. Since it is a primary means of second and foreign language acquisition, its development as a skill should assume critical significance in pedagogy. Selection of EFL reading materials is equally important. Teachers have gone out of their way to utilise the prescribed reading materials which examine language learners' understanding of immediate components of reading passage, including structure, cohesion, and some other direct parts. As a result, the learners' vocabulary flourishes while their creativity and sense of inference remain untouched. It, therefore, can be argued that such objectives are hardly achieved in current reading materials prescribed by school authorities since they add little, if any, to their inferential ability, creativity, and imagination. Besides, they are by no means pleasure giving.

What EFL teachers should bear in mind is that any given text contains both explicit and implicit information. The latter is sometimes the cause of misunderstanding for many readers since the writer assumes the reader will infer the intended meaning from the text. Davoudi (2005) has put it this way: "As they construct their own models of meaning for a given text, readers and listeners alike use inference making extensively to fill in details omitted in text and to elaborate what they read" (p. 106). As a result, full understanding of a passage is not attainable simply by knowing all the words in the text and the reader must possess a sense of implication and inference to read fluently and reach to the very intention of the writer.

To build the desired interest in learners and detach them from being simply passive receivers, one way would be introducing the kind of books and texts that awaken their desire to be a part of it. Brown (2000) best captured the scene holding that "love" of reading plays a major role in propelling learners in acquiring reading skills successfully. This can in turn escalate their sense of inference, imagination, and creativity and the highlight of such materials is literary text.

In this line of defence, many authors and researchers have reckoned the appropriateness of integrating literature in EFL/ESL teaching (Bagherkazemi & Alemi, 2010; Bhuvanesvari & Jacob, 2011; Carter, 1997; Duff & Maley, 2003; Gajdusek, 1988; Khatib, Rezaei, & Derakhshan, 2011; Lazar, 1994;; McKay, 1982; Savvidou, 2004). The current study, thus, was based on this assumption that not only is literature a source of individual pleasure, but also a resourceful language learning that helps EFL learners infer concealed ideas between the lines. It, therefore, sought to find out whether there was any difference between the performance of EFL learners who read literary text and those who read non-literary text on inference demanding tests.

II. Review of Related Literature

A. Literature

Since the acknowledgment of literature as a key constituent to EFL classroom as reading material, arguments for and against its incorporation were put forth as it was not popular with all scholars throughout the century. A close review of

the vindications suggested by proponents and opponents of incorporating literature in EFL classrooms will illuminate the fact that consensus and controversy over the issue ground on almost the same rationales.

1. Arguments against Integrating Literature in TEFL/TESL.

Any given argument or notion is not without its opponents; one such notion is the idea of integrating literature in language teaching. McKay (1982) mentioned three general reasons why literature does not guarantee language learning: First, structural complexity of literature and its unique use of language is no help to acquiring of grammar. This is also a matter of concern as Savvidou (2004) has noted "the creative use of language in poetry and prose often deviates from the conventions and rules which govern standard, non-literary discourse" (p. 2). Second, students with academic or occupational goals cannot benefit from studying literature. And since literature is representative of a particular culture, its comprehension is rather difficult.

Along with the aforementioned oppositions, there are a number of hardships with literature which undermine its uses in EFL/ESL classroom. A series of them have been enumerated by Lazar (1994). He believed that in the first place language grading is a noteworthy matter since "many literary texts, whether prose or poetry, are written in language which includes vocabulary, grammatical structures, and syntax considered too complicated to be included in the syllabus for learners at lower levels" (p. 115). This is well supported by Savvidou (2004) when she specified the discourse of literary texts compared to those of non-literary. In her assumption, literary discourse requires the learner to "infer, anticipate and negotiate meaning from within the text to a degree that is not required in non-literary discourse" (p. 2). The second objection according to her is the literary competence of students at lower grades which consequently raises the question whether they have been successful at making a correct interpretation of a literary text. As for the third opposition, Lazar (1994) claimed "A further problem with using literature at lower levels is that it is considered too highly specialized an activity to be of interest to less advanced students" (p. 116). This was further supported by Akyel and Yalcin (1990, as cited in Su, 2010) whose findings suggest that literary texts are interesting to advanced student while lower level students in terms of proficiency think it is unattractive and boring.

2. Arguments for Integrating Literature in TEFL/TESL.

Justifications for the incorporation of using literary texts in EFL/ESL classrooms are numerous and the great number of authors, researchers, and teachers who have written and applied literature in defense of it tells its own tale. The grounds for such decision are almost common among many: Literature is interesting, cultural driven, authentic, and a good source of linguistic knowledge.

One common ground for the utilization of literature is the interest learners take in reading literary texts. McKay (1982) reported "to the extent that the students enjoy reading literature, it may increase their motivation to interact with a text and thus, ultimately increase their reading proficiency" (p. 531). In that sense, reading proficiency is in close relationship with motivation which is in turn the result of the interest one takes in reading. Motivation is undisputedly a driving force to fulfill any action and reading proficiency is no exception. In this regard, Bagherkazemi and Alemi (2010) have noted out that "in order to interact with, rather than react to a text, reader motivation is of critical significance and literature, when approached in the right way, does guarantee this motivating effect" (p. 6). In addition, literary texts enjoy characters which readers easily identify with and so saying they share emotions and feelings which finally lead to personal involvement (Adlert, 1972, as cited in Thom, 2008; Floris, 2004, as cited in Khatib & Nourzadeh, 2011).

One obvious benefit literary style can serve is involvement and joy which facilitate learning by fostering more active and critical thinking which in turn results in an opportunity for learner-centered activities and collaborative group work (Gajdusek, 1988). When it comes to story as a perfect literary medium to teach language, personal involvement and critical thinking are major components as Carter (1997) assumed. He has argued:

A heightened degree of attentiveness to the story can be brought about by prediction. There is increased involvement as a result of the natural desire of seeing one's own expectations fulfilled or contravened… In the face of 'gaps' in the narrative, … prediction serves the function of allowing that gap to be filled by the reader. (p. 173)

Amer (2003), in defence of using authentic stories in language teaching syllabus reckoned the motivating impact of such materials on thinking skills of language learners. Similarly, since motivational benefits lie within stories, Erkaya (2005) has looked at it as a great help to acquire the four language skills – listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

So far, it can be inferred that in spite of the difficulties the practitioner can encounter, using literature is appealing to students. It gets the students drawn in trying to figure out what the text is about. It eases the expression of emotions, as literary works depict human emotions and perceptions. Therefore, his sense of accomplishment is greatly felt by himself once he draws to a close with the activity. And finally, it broadens the sense of language as more than just for monotonous practice and drill.

An alternative justification of using literary text in EFL/ESL classroom is the abundance of cultural information existing in the heart of literature (Su, 2010; Thom, 2008; Van, 2009, as cited in Bagherkazemi & Alemi, 2010). Many scholars regard this as a drawback since, they argue, a different culture from that of the language learners' own will end in confusion among them. However, the number of proponents is far more than the opponents when it comes to culture and its impact. The themes used in literature are common to all cultures and this is the treatment of the themes which is different across the cultures (Duff & Maley, 2003). It can be inferred that common to all languages there is a certain list of themes including, love, hate, death, nature, etc. which are dealt with differently from culture to culture.

Savvidou (2004) in her defence of the necessities in teaching culture through language reckoned communicative competence as a major reason. From her perspective, in order for one to gain communicative competence, mastery of structure and form does not seem to be sufficient since comprehending the intended discourse requires social and cultural contexts, and this can be easily achieved by means of incorporating literature in EFL teaching. Erkaya (2005) named this potential as higher-order thinking skills. She went on to claim that critical thinking is bare bone essential in interpreting texts and this advantage is most held by intermediate and advanced language learners. The justification of communicative competence and critical thinking was also utilised by Bhuvaneswari and Jacob (2011) who asserted:

A student can learn and use words effectively in different contexts through literary texts. Students also become more prolific and exploratory (critical evaluation) when they begin to identify the copiousness of the language they are trying to learn so as to make use of some of them with efficacy. This really improves their communicative competence. (p. 157)

Another common ground among many EFL/ESL scholars, teachers and researchers in defense of merging literature with language teaching and learning process is the concept of authenticity. In his definition of authenticity, Berardo (2006) cited Wallace (1992, p. 145) as "real-life texts, not written for pedagogic purposes." Such text is not written to emphasize its form, but content. This transference of new information was equally emphasized by Berardo (2006) since it is highly motivating. Advantages of using authentic materials in language teaching are numerous. Berardo (2006) has listed them as:

1- Having a positive effect on student motivation
2- Giving authentic cultural information
3- Exposing students to real language
4- Relating more closely to students' needs
5- Supporting a more creative approach to teaching

Many text types enjoy such feature including travel timetables, city plans, forms, pamphlets, cartoons, advertisements, newspaper, magazine articles, and literature. This can provide appropriate reading material which can in turn serve different purposes. There are four types of authenticity which is used in language classrooms:

1- Authenticity of the texts which we may use as input data for our students
2- Authenticity of the learners' own interpretations of such texts
3- Authenticity of tasks conducive to language learning
4- Authenticity of the actual social situation of the classroom language (Breen, 1985, as cited in Berardo, 2006)

Bagherkazemi and Alemi (2010) cited Van (2009) as claiming that authenticity provides the ground for meaningful context to enhance the interpreting and inference ability in EFL learners. This is obviously in line with the principles of CLT which presses the role of authentic materials in language learning. Khatib et al. (2011), too, have identified literary texts, particularly novels and dramas, as two authentic materials which can help EFL/ESL learners in their developing of target language.

The benefits of literary texts in EFL classroom are multi-faceted and an obvious impact is on language learners' expansion of linguistic abilities. This was well supported by McKay (1982, p. 531) when she asserted "literature can be useful in developing linguistic knowledge both on a usage and use level." McKay is not alone there though. Thom (2008) equally has argued that literary text can give EFL learners ample opportunities "to use and develop such sub skills as deduction of meaning from linguistic and situational context, relating text to knowledge and experience of the world, responding to text, creative writing, etc." (p. 122).

The controversy of language usage and use was also discussed by Savvidou (2004) who regarded literature as a perfect means to instruct grammatical structures, word forms and common expressions, "Much more, however, can be gained by exploring the way such atomistic aspects of language are used in discourse, i.e. at a suprasentential level." In this respect, however, Gajdusek had a different idea (1988); he considered literature as decontextualized, but it is never looked at as a shortcoming since it enjoys two features which make literature a great ground for TEFL settings. In the first place literary texts have "internal coherence" which makes interpretation of them rather simpler. In the second place, literature enjoys "conscious patterning" which means the pattern of any given literary text is an attempt to connect intellectual, emotional and physical experiences.

Two most cited justifications of using literature are the positive effect it has on one's vocabulary and grammatical knowledge (Gajdusek, 1988; Khatib et al., 2011; Povey, 1967; Su, 2010; Van, 2009, as cited in Bagherkazemi & Alemi, 2010). There is also a consensus that literature consolidates all four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Povey (1967) and Erkaya (2005) have asserted that literature, with its extensive and connotative vocabulary and its complex syntax, can expand all language skills. Khatib et al. (2011), too, have advocated the main ideas claiming that literature provides a resourceful ground to practice all major language learning skills:

Having the learners complete a poem or short story in cloze form is very encouraging …. For speaking purposes, the events in a poem, novel, or short story can be associated with the learners' own experience in real life…. For listening purposes, … it is good for practicing reading subskills including skimming, scanning, and finding the main ideas. Reading in literature is a combination of reading for enjoyment and reading for information. Therefore, it bridges the lacks in non-literary texts. (p. 203)

B. Inference: Definition and Indication

Comprehending a text involves more than knowing the correct pronunciation of the words, identifying their meanings, and being able to find information explicitly stated (Cain, Oakhill, Barnes, & Bryant, 2001; Yeh, Mctigue, & Joshi, 2012). There are many strategies to reading comprehension such as inferring, generalizing, making connections, visualizing, synthesizing, predicting, summarizing, using context clues, drawing conclusions, monitoring, asking questions, and finding main ideas and all should be applied to be able to understand a text. One determining factor which leads to this realization is inference making (Collins, Brown, & Larkin, 1977; Davoudi, 2005; Kispal, 2008; Kopitski, 2007; Thornbury, 2005; Yeh et al., 2012). Kispal (2008) believed that "Inference can be as simple as associating the pronoun 'he' with a previously mentioned male person. Or, it can be as complex as understanding a subtle implicit message, conveyed through the choice of particular vocabulary by the writer and drawing on the reader's own background knowledge" (p. 2).

First and foremost, an operational definition seems critical. Although different researchers have put forth divergent definitions, it should be noted that all the definitions are similar in core: The inference is not explicitly stated; it is implied by the writer. "An inference is the ability to connect what is in the text with what is in the mind to create an educated guess" (Beers, 2003, as cited in Kopitski, 2007). In an attempt to define inference, Kispal (2008) held "The ability to make inferences is, in simple terms, the ability to use two or more pieces of information from a text in order to arrive at a third piece of information that is implicit" (p. 2). A comparison of the two definitions sheds light on the fact that the latter definition ignores the major role of mind which was captured by Beers (2003). A more comprehensive description of inference has been made by Pennell (2002) as "Inferential comprehension is often described simply as the ability to read between the lines. It requires a reader to blend the literal content of a selection with prior knowledge, intuition, and imagination for conjecture or to make hypotheses" (p. 1). His definition has elaborated on the 'mind' stated earlier. He adds intuition and imagination as constituents of 'mind'.

An inference is, then, a meaning that is implied rather than directly stated. Inferences are suggested through clues that lead the reader to predict and draw conclusions. For instance, instead of making a direct statement, *these people are wealthy*, an author could suggest that concept by describing an elaborate house, expensive properties, and prominent friends. Fiction and poetry writers in particular, are aware of more details than they disclose in the texts they compose. This requires inferences such as drawing conclusions, making predictions, and connections to other texts and experiences possible for their readers. Understanding an inference is what is intended as reading between the lines, as the suggestion, rather than the actual words, carries the meaning. Kopitski (2007) has regarded this type of reading as acting out much like a "detective" in search of a clue. This creates an urge on the side of reader to expand on inference ability without which comprehension seems lame.

1. Types of Inferences.

In an attempt to distinguish different kinds of inference, an extensive list was discovered as each researcher has looked at it from a different dimension. Cain et al. (2001), for instance, have differentiated between coherence and elaborative inferences. The former is essential for adequate comprehension of text while the latter enhances the text representation but is not critical in understanding it. "Generation of a coherence inference required integration of different pieces of information from within the text, whereas generation of an elaborative inference required the reader to integrate information from the text with prior or general knowledge" (ibid, p. 851). In a different study, Kopitski (2007) recognized the importance of inference in reading comprehension and categorizes it differently:

1- Recognize the antecedents for pronouns
2- Figure out the meaning of unknown words from context clues
3- Figure out the grammatical function of an unknown word
4- Understand intonation of characters' words
5- Identify characters' beliefs, personalities, and motivations
6- Understand characters' relationships to one another
7- Provide details about the setting
8- Provide explanations for events or ideas that are presented in the text
9- Offer details for events or their own explanations of the events presented in the text
10- Understand the author's view of the world
11- Recognize the author's biases
12- Relate what is happening in the text to their own knowledge of the world
13- Offer conclusions from facts presented in the text

Inference is further classified into two types, *text-based* and *model-based*. The former fills in the missing links between the surface structure with a special look at context, and knowledge about the world. This emphasises the idea that the inference process looks for meaningful associations between different suggestions in the text. Model-based view, however, holds that the purpose of inference is to make a basic model, which organises and adds to the surface structure in the text. In this view, inference is monitored by a target structure that indicates the a priori restraints on the kind of model to be created. Such target structure acts as an organizational code to steer inference procedures (Collins et al., 1977).

2. Factors Affecting Inference Making.

Several factors which might have an effect on inferring ability have been proposed in the related literature and the most frequent ones collectively accepted are: background knowledge, goal, and interest.

Each EFL classroom is one of a type and students come with different personal experiences. These personal experiences as well as cultural varieties can touch a reader's ability to infer in reading a text and this has attained widespread acceptance (Davoudi, 2005; Kispal, 2008; Kopitski, 2007; Phillips, 1989; Thornbury, 2005). Readers' background knowledge is bare bone essential in the comprehension of text via inference as it accelerates comprehension and unburdens working memory to link new information and already possessed knowledge to infer (Davoudi, 2005). Authors use inferences which require connecting old information to what is being read at the time. Clues that imply meaning may draw on a supposed knowledge of history, current issues, or social concerns. Just as in making the connection to figure out the punch line of a joke, the reader must make a connection in order to infer the implications.

Phillips (1989) recognised the role of background knowledge and enumerated three reasons why this dependence is important: First, an interaction of textual information and background knowledge is required since neither of them alone is enough to draw inferences. Second, background knowledge allows the making of alternative hypotheses in inferring. Third, with absence of background knowledge one is not able to assess the strength of inferences to generalizations and rationalizations, thereby making background knowledge an integral part of inferential reasoning.

The controversy over whether language proficiency in general and reading proficiency in particular have any impact on the number of inferences made by readers is ongoing. Kispal (2008) believed that inference ability is in close connection with readers' vocabulary knowledge. Davoudi (2005) held that competent readers can link between ideas in the text, as well as the text and their prior knowledge, to build a consistent representation of the text. Although studies have shown that less skilled readers perform poorly on texts that require inference (Graesser et al., 1992; Kispal, 2008; Pennell, 2002), it is difficult to find out whether their poor performance is the result of deficits in inferential capacity or failure to encode an accurate representation of the text.

However, Pennell (2002) is not in line with the aforementioned hypothesis. "Proficient readers are better able to remember and apply what they have read, create new background knowledge for themselves, discriminate and critically analyse text and authors, and engage in conversation and/or other analytical responses to what they read" (ibid, p. 2). Readers use both stated and unstated ideas to draw logical conclusions. They use the facts, the hints, and their prior knowledge to piece together meaning. The facts and clues lead to assumptions, which then lead to conclusions. Thus, poor readers might not extract enough evidence and clues from the text which in turn can lead to weaker inferences.

A possible route through which inference ability is influenced is the one with affective variables, such as interest, and goal. Reader's purpose might pave the way to make inferences online and they are more likely to be drawn if they address familiar topics. While the vast majority of previous studies on text processing have focused on the structural importance of the text, the affective variables have been ignored for several decades (Davoudi, 2005). Kintsch (1980) has suggested a comprehensive explanation of interest. He distinguished two types of text-based interest, *emotional interest* and *cognitive interest*. Emotional interest is aroused by occurrences with sentimental functions, such as death, sex, etc. Cognitive interest, on the other hand, is created when information in the text are related to the reader's prior knowledge and is determined by three factors: First, how much prior knowledge a reader has on the topic; second, the extent of doubt (unexpectedness or surprise) about the information; and finally, "postdictability" of the information, connoting how well the information can be meaningfully associated with other parts of the text. Cognitive interest, in that sense, is considered to be an inverted U-shaped function of the knowledge and uncertainty. That is, if a situation is very familiar or very unfamiliar, or if a state of affairs are easily expected or not expected at all, the interestingness declines (as cited in Davoudi, 2005).

III. Methodology

A. Participants

The sample in this study consisted of 30 Iranian senior university students of English translation B.A., studying at Islamic Azad University, Karaj Branch, Iran. They were of both male and female genders, ranging from 19 to 30 years of age. The convenience method of sampling was used in this study. All participants had passed a nationwide university entrance exam to be eligible for admitting in the aforementioned university and had attended reading comprehension courses during the past 6 semesters. The sample was true representative of the entire population given that they were all majoring at an English language major. Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered to homogenize the attendants based on their general language proficiency. Participants whose scores on OPT were beyond the range of ± 2 standard deviation from the mean (56.77) were set to be discarded; however, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated a normal distribution of scores.

B. Instrumentation

The study aimed at investigating the possible relationship between literary and non-literary text types and the EFL learners' performance on inference demanding tests. The researcher's assumption was the presence of a difference in the EFL learners' reading comprehension of these two text types. Accordingly, two tests contents were developed and administered in the present study.

A validated test of language proficiency (Oxford Placement Test), retrieved from *www.oup.com*, was administered as a means of homogenizing the participants in terms of their language proficiency. The test consists of 60 multiple-choice items. An analytic look at the test suggests that language components tested were grammar, vocabulary, as well as English reading comprehension. The allotted time for all 60 items was 30 minutes with 5 extra minutes to transfer the answers to the answer sheets. An answer sheet was devised to ease the process of correction.

A cloze test including 47 multiple-choice items was constructed by the researcher. The test consisted of a non-literary text with 24 items and a literary text (poetry) with 23 items. Two texts were stapled together as the booklet form. In order to determine whether the items that appeared in the inference test were of proper functioning quality, it was vital for the cloze tests to be piloted and revised. The total test can be found in appendix A.

The purpose of this process was to screen the dis-functioning items so that the most suitable distracters would be included in the final version of the cloze test. The researcher included six alternatives in each item. After the pilot administration, the items were thoroughly analysed. After item analysis, those four alternatives that had the best discrimination index values were selected for every 47 items and the residue was discarded.

The non-literary passage entitled as "why the Yogic way for food?" was chosen from the book *Essential Reading for IELTS* (Gordon & Harding, 2007) with a readability of 19.80. The poetry is chosen from one of the collections of Maya Angelou under the name *Phenomenal Woman* (1978).

Poetry is a type of text where imagination and figurative language dominates which in turn undermines the validity of readability formulas. Therefore, it was decided that the best way to control the poem's difficulty and readability would be to ask 15 EFL teachers for their reflection on the text difficulty. Twelve out of 15 felt the two texts were almost of the same difficulty. It was further supported with piloting the test on 10 upper-intermediate EFL language learners who were studying Summit 1A from Top Notch series. Four of the test takers claimed that the poem was more difficult than the prose.

Through test piloting, a sufficient test time was determined (35 minutes). The reason why poetry is chosen among a long list of literary genres and styles is the fact that poetry is symbol of literariness in literature which could best carry the aims of the present study. The questions for both texts were devised in a way that their alternatives directly tested the test takers' inference making ability.

Participants' inference making ability was tested against these misleading factors; some of which might have triggered them to choose the correct response which was considered as one of the research imposed limitations. Participants' ability to guess, infer and retrieve the original response was desired.

C. Data Analysis

The tests administered among all participants were scored by the researcher. In the placement and inference tests, every true response to each item was awarded 1 point; while, for each item that was unmarked or marked erroneously, zero score was assigned. Since the number of questions varied among the test and that the researcher intended to come to a correlation between them, percentage of each score would act as a true indicator of values. Different statistical procedures were performed for the analysis of the scores. Measures of central tendency including mean scores and standard deviations of the placement and inference tests were tabulated.

The data were undertaken test of normality to decide on the parametric/nonparametric tests. To study the difference between the performance of the participants on literary and non-literary tests, paired-samples t-test was conducted. As it was clarified earlier, an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered in order to determine the participants' language proficiency level (n=30). Fig. 1 shows the frequency of the scores obtained in the test.

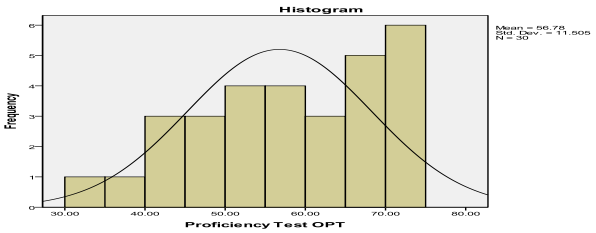

Figure 1. Distribution of participants in Oxford Placement Test (OPT).

It can be seen from the Fig. 1 that scores of two test takers were below 40 and accumulation of scores is between 40 and 70 which consist of over 73 per cent of total scores obtained. Accordingly, 20 percent of participants had a score over 70. As Table 1 shows, minimum and maximum scores obtained in the OPT were 30 and 73 respectively which suggests a range of almost 43, and a mean of 56.77. The variance for all the scores obtained equals 132.36 with a standard deviation of 11.50 from the mean.

TABLE I.
STATISTICAL DESCRIPTIVE DATA OF THE PARTICIPANTS IN OXFORD PLACEMENT TEST

Test	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	Variance	Std. Deviation
Oxford Placement Test	30	43.33	30	73.33	56.7753	58.33	50	132.364	11.50494

Based on the obtained results from Table 2, consistency of items in OPT was measured through reliability formula (K-R 21= 0.99). And the Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test approves the distribution function of the results as normal. The result of the performed test appears in the Table 3.

TABLE II.
RELIABILITY OF OXFORD PLACEMENT TEST

Number of Students	Number of Items	K-R 21 Method
30	60	0.9934

TABLE III.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST FOR OXFORD PLACEMENT TEST

N		30
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	56.7753
	Std. Deviation	11.50494
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.708
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.697

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

The following boxplot in Fig. 2 visualises the degree of dispersion and skewness in the data, and identifies outliers. It also eases the study of the distributional characteristics of scores in OPT.

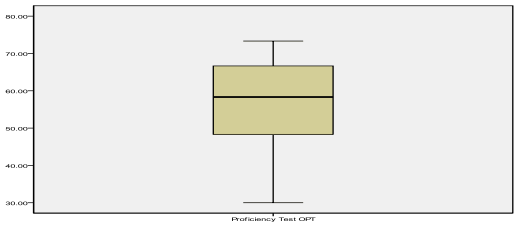

Figure 2. Boxplot for OPT.

According to Fig. 2, range of scores in OPT is relatively wide and the lower whisker is a tall one suggesting that 25% of scores below the lower quartile are dispersed across a wider range compared to upper whisker. The box, however, has a median right in the midpoint of quartile 2 and 3 to show a symmetric dispersion with a small skewedness. It can also be seen from the figure that there is no outlier in the score which implies that all scores lie within the lowest and highest value. This, in turn, suggests that distribution of the population from which sample was taken is normal. An analytic look at the following figures indicates that distributions of the two tests are bell shaped, thus normal since many scores accumulated in the center.

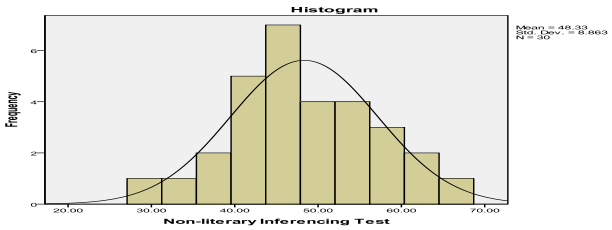

Figure 3. Distribution of participants in non-literary inference test.

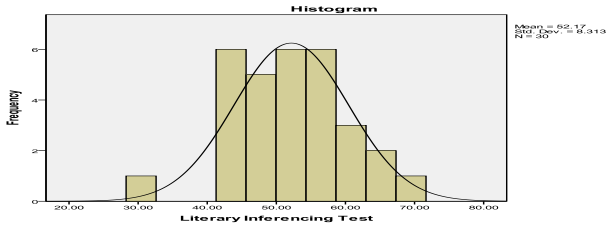

Figure 4. Distribution of participants in literary inference test.

The following figure depicts the degree of dispersion and skewness in the data, and identifies outliers in non-literary and literary inference tests.

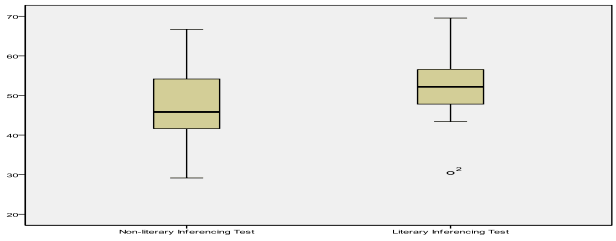

Figure 5. Boxplots for (non)literary inference tests.

An analytic look at Figure 5 implies that the height of non-literary inference test boxplot is normal, suggesting that distribution of scores is relatively consistent. Lower and upper whiskers are almost equal in size, but the second and third quartiles have different height and the median is closer to lower quartile. This shows that the top 50% of scores have greater variety. It can also be seen from the figure that there is no outlier in the scores which implies that all scores lie within the lowest and highest value. This, in turn, suggests that distribution of the population from which sample was taken is normal.

The boxplot for literary inference test, however, is situated in the upper part of the scores range. The lower whisker is a short one suggesting that 25% of scores below the lower quartile are dispersed across a shorter range compared to upper whisker. The box, however, has a median right in the midpoint of quartile 2 and 3 to show a symmetric dispersion. It can also be seen from the figure that there is only one outlier in the score which implies that almost all scores lie within the lowest and highest value. This, in turn, suggests that distribution of the population from which sample was taken is normal.

The obtained mean scores of non-literary (NL) and literary (L) inference tests for total number of participants (N=30) were (NL = 48.32, L = 52.16) and a standard deviation of (NL = 8.86, L = 8.31). Non-literary inference test had a range of 37.50 while the range for literary inference test was 39.13.

TABLE IV.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS IN (NON)LITERARY INFERENCE TESTS

Test	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	Variance	Std. Deviation
Non-literary Test	30	37.50	29.16	66.66	48.3297	45.83	45.83	78.550	8.86282
Literary Test	30	39.13	30.43	69.56	52.1683	52.17	43.47[a]	69.102	8.31276

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

As the Table 5 demonstrates, the participants' responses to both tests were relatively consistent. The calculated Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in Table 5 implies the normal distribution of the two tests (NL = .791, L = .626) and the feasibility of the parametric paired-samples t-test.

TABLE V.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST FOR NON-LITERARY INFERENCE TEST

		Non-literary Inference Test	Literary Inference Test
N		30	30
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	48.3297	52.1683
	Std. Deviation	8.86282	8.31276
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.791	.626
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.559	.828

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

The researcher collected the quantifiable data from participants by means of non-literary and literary inference cloze tests. With regard to the nature of the present investigation which is mainly concentrated on comparing the mean scores of the two groups, the *paired-samples t-test* formula was used to describe the significance of the difference between the mean scores of the two tests which were administered to a single group of participants. Considering the 0.95 level of significance and *p-value* <.05, the decision making principle is as follows:

1- If the significance of two-tailed t-test is less than or equal to (0.05), the null hypothesis is rejected (*p-value* ≤ *.05*).

2- If the significance of two-tailed t-test is more than (0.05), the null hypothesis is confirmed (*p-value* > *.05).*

The hypothesis of this study states that: "There is no difference between the performance of EFL learners who read literary texts and those who read non-literary texts on inference demanding tests." To discuss this hypothesis, at first the mean, standard deviation, and standard error of the mean for both tests were computed which are shown in Table 6.

TABLE VI.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF INFERENCE TESTS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Non-literary Inference Test	48.3297	30	8.86282	1.61812
	Literary Inference Test	52.1683	30	8.31276	1.51770

The participants' mean score of non-literary inference test was 48.32 with the standard deviation 8.86 and literary inference test's mean was 52.16, with the standard deviation 8.31. Although participants were similar in both groups, it can be inferred from the mean scores of the tests that they outperformed on the literary passage compared to non-literary passage.

In order to compare the mean scores of participants in both tests *paired-samples t-test* was carried out. Based on the t-test results in Table 7, differences between mean scores of the two tests was found to be significant ($t(29) = -2.214$, $p < 0.05$). Based on the given data, a difference existed between the performance of EFL learners who read literary texts from those who read non-literary texts on inference demanding tests. That is to say, since the mean score in literary inference test was greater than the mean score in non-literary inference test, it could be concluded that literary text had significantly a more positive impact on the learners' inference making ability than non-literary text, thus the results rejected the first null hypothesis.

TABLE VII.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR (NON)LITERARY CLOZE TESTS

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Non-literary & Literary Inference Test	-3.83867	9.49548	1.73363	-7.38434	-.29300	-2.214	29	.035

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Conclusion

The present study was set up to determine the impacts of literature on EFL learners' inference ability. As a finding in the present study, there was a significant difference between the performance of EFL learners who read literary texts and those who read non-literary texts on inference demanding tests. In other words, as the t-test results showed, participants had a better deal with inference demanding questions when they read literary text compared to non-literary one.

One explanation for this result is that literature has internal coherence and conscious patterning (Gajdusek, 1988). By internal coherence, a given sentence in a literary discourse is closely related to other sentences in the same literary work. This, in turn, "engages the reader in interpretation, meaning negotiation and the generation of coherent discourse-based meaning" (ibid). Conscious patterning, too, emphasises the recrudesce of many features such as sounds, meanings, and structures.

An additional consideration is that literature is widely accepted as authentic (Bagherkazemi & Alemi, 2010; Berardo, 2006). Authenticity of language in literary texts causes the reader to be exposed with the kind of language in use in real world, thus perceiving and comprehending it with more ease and comfort.

In conclusion, it is unquestionable that literature is of great importance in EFL learning since the benefits it serves are numerous as it is a multi-dimensional means to create a safe ground for language learning and teaching.

B. Implications

The implications of this study can be discussed from applied perspectives. The results are useful in teaching foreign languages. They will enable the foreign language material developers to design the kind of texts that assist language learners in the process of learning. One critical missing element in the current EFL textbooks is literature. The present study outlined the many reasons why literature in general and literary texts in particular might prove helpful in the course of language learning; thus, their incorporation in EFL textbooks should be considered.

First and foremost, literature can be used with students of all proficiency levels. What should simply be done is considering the natural grading of literary works to fit different language proficiency levels. Another major justification for the use of literary texts as EFL material is the interest language learners take in such discourse. The cause of such interest is perhaps the life-like nature of literature. Novels, for instance, consist of characters that the reader might identify with. Identification with characters not only can trigger more interest in readers, but help comprehend the text better. One explanation for such phenomenon is a belief that literary texts call for negotiation and transaction; therefore, far from being a passive reader, one makes his/her own meaning.

Another reason why literature should be integrated into EFL materials is the importance of teaching EFL learners the target language culture where the language is used (Duff & Maley, 2003). In short, social and cultural contexts help them comprehend the intended discourse. Improving linguistic knowledge is an alternative rationale for the use of literature. It is a perfect means to instruct grammatical structures, word forms and common expressions (Savvidou, 2004). Finally, literature is perfectly authentic. This should be noted that the way students learn a language becomes easier when they get to know how the language is used in real contexts.

The results from the present research shed light on how literary text can make readers delve into the deeper layers of the reading passages which is technically called inference. After all, comprehending reading passages is far more than knowing the meaning of the individual words. Inference making ability is a necessity of comprehension since many

passage features can be approached through inference making. Likewise, this study demonstrated how EFL readers could perform better in their dealing with grammatical inferences when they read literary text. The vindication might be the natural predictability of the language in literature which triggers word recognition. In the spirit of natural language acquisition, literature is not grammatically sequenced. Therefore, it is suggested that teachers consider literature in teaching grammatical and lexical inferences in EFL classrooms.

APPENDIX A. (NON)LITERARY INFERENCE TESTS

INSTRUCTIONS: *Choose the most appropriate answer. You will have* ***15 minutes****.*

Phenomenal Woman by Maya Angelou

Pretty women wonder where my secret lies.
I'm not cute or built to ….1…..a fashion model's size
But when I ….2…. to tell them,
They think I'm ….3…. lies.
I say,
It's in the….4…. of my arms
The span of my hips,
The stride of my step,
The curl ….5…. my lips.
I'm a woman
Phenomenally.
….6…..woman,
That's me.

1	**A** fit	**B** meet	**C** the requirements of	**D** suit
2	**A** start	**B** commence	**C** begin	**D** mean
3	**A** liking	**B** telling	**C** loving	**D** saying
4	**A** grasp	**B** range	**C** scope	**D** reach
5	**A** in	**B** at	**C** of	**D** on
6	**A** phenomenal	**B** wondrous	**C** magnificent	**D** terrific

I walk into …7… room
Just as cool as you please,
….8…. to a man,
The fellows stand or
….9…. down on their knees.

Then they swarm ….10…. me,
A hive of honey bees.
I…11…..,
It's the fire in my eyes,
….12…. the flash of my teeth,
The swing….13…. my waist,
And the joy in my ….14…..
I'm a woman
Phenomenally.
Phenomenal woman,
….15….'s me.

7	**A** the	**B** a	**C** my	**D** this
8	**A** next	**B** a	**C** first	**D** then
9	**A** drop	**B** go	**C** come	**D** fall
10	**A** around	**B** above	**C** aloud	**D** about
11	**A** deny	**B** tell	**C** say	**D** cry
12	**A** and	**B** but	**C** with	**D** or
13	**A** in	**B** at	**C** on	**D** of
14	**A** eyes	**B** feet	**C** hands	**D** heart
15	**A** this	**B** it	**C** she	**D** that

Men themselves have wondered
What…..16…. see in me.
They try so much
….17…. they can't touch
My inner mystery.
….18…. I try to show them
They say ….19…. still can't see.
I say,
It….20…. in the arch of my back,
The….21….of my smile,
The ride of my ….22….,
The grace of my style.
I'm ….23…. woman
Phenomenally.
Phenomenal woman,
That's me.

16	**A** people	**B** friends	**C** enemies	**D** they
17	**A** however	**B** while	**C** but	**D** whenever
18	**A** when	**B** if	**C** as	**D** whenever
19	**A** people	**B** friends	**C** enemies	**D** they
20	**A** is	**B** ’s	**C** isn’t	**D** is not
21	**A** shine	**B** sun	**C** love	**D** fun
22	**A** bikes	**B** breasts	**C** cheeks	**D** horses
23	**A** the	**B** that	**C** a	**D** this

INSTRUCTIONS: *Choose the most appropriate answer. You will have* ***20 minutes****.*

Why the Yogic way for food?

Yoga is the only science that has placed great emphasis on food over centuries. In fact, there is a whole branch - ……1…..… Anna Yoga - devoted to food for health and ……2……..

Over centuries, Yoga has developed a concept …..3…… a balanced whole-food diet and an eating …….4……. . These principles of good eating use powerful ……..5…….. which help in maintaining a strong and …….6……..body, a stress-free mind and a positive ……7…….. within this mixed-up world.

Never has ……8…….. Yogic philosophy of a balanced whole-food diet been ……..9…….. more than today when 97% of all ……..10……. disorders can be traced to a faulty …….11…….. and diet.

It has been observed that (East) …….12…….. civilizations suffer least from bowel problems, constipation, ……13…….. and other food related disorders such as ……..14…….... Do you know why? Because the Indian …….15……. of cooking and eating draws heavily from …..16…… yogic philosophy of eating!

Yoga does not …..17……. food into vitamins, minerals, protein etc..The ……18……philosophy is that the true benefits of these …….19…… can be had only when they are ……20……. isolated but are kept as much in their natural form as possible.

The key to ……21…… health is to have a balanced whole-food ……22…….. . A balanced diet ensures that all the …….23…….. of digestion work smoothly-absorption, assimilation and elimination. ……..24…… balanced whole-food diet ensures a healthy you!

1	**A** dubbed	**B** called	**C** named	**D** denominated
2	**A** delight	**B** gratification	**C** pleasure	**D** happiness
3	**A** in	**B** at	**C** on	**D** of
4	**A** philosophy	**B** possibility	**C** philosophies	**D** possibilities
5	**A** techniques	**B** approaches	**C** approaches	**D** ways
6	**A** healthier	**B** healthy	**C** healthily	**D** health
7	**A** feeling	**B** atmosphere	**C** spirituality	**D** belief
8	**A** that	**B** such	**C** --	**D** this
9	**A** required	**B** demanded	**C** needed	**D** desired
10	**A** healthier	**B** healthiest	**C** healthily	**D** health
11	**A** nutrition	**B** nutriment	**C** nourishment	**D** nutrient
12	**A** Swedish	**B** Indian	**C** Canadian	**D** Belgian
13	**A** indigestion	**B** headache	**C** fatigue	**D** backache
14	**A** obesity	**B** fatness	**C** bigness	**D** heaviness
15	**A** philosophy	**B** lifestyle	**C** logic	**D** possibility
16	**A** --	**B** this	**C** the	**D** such
17	**A** provide	**B** analyze	**C** dissect	**D** synthesize
18	**A** yoga	**B** yogi	**C** yogic	**D** --
19	**A** components	**B** ingredients	**C** elements	**D** constituents
20	**A** never	**B** not only	**C** --	**D** not
21	**A** true	**B** real	**C** truly	**D** really
22	**A** style	**B** nourishment	**C** improvement	**D** diet
23	**A** aspects	**B** sections	**C** faculties	**D** means
24	**A** the	**B** a	**C** one	**D** --

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 175-182, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.175-182

Facework Strategies in EFL Classroom

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***Abstract*—Facework strategy, which takes learners' face-needs into account, is a dispensable part in teaching strategies. Based on researches done on facework, this study examines college English teachers' application of facework strategies within EFL classroom, mainly by means of qualitative and quantitative methods. It presents a picture of how teachers use facework strategies in the EFL classroom, especially how teachers use different facework strategies to satisfy learners' face-needs in class. The analysis of the study proves that no matter what types of facework strategies are applied, the purpose is to create a pleasant and harmonious context for the learners, to initiate their self-esteem and enthusiasm in their study, and achieve effective teaching.**

***Index Terms*—face, facework strategies, EFL classroom, face-needs**

I. Introduction

Face is defined as "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact" (Goffman, 1967, p.9), which, however, "is only on loan to him from society" and "it will be withdrawn unless he conducts himself in a way that is worthy of it" (Goffman, 1972, p.322). In order to maintain face, a person takes into account his or her position in society and normally refrains from carrying out actions or taking part in activities that would be awkward to other interactants.

Facework is broadly defined as the actions taken to deal with the face-wants of one or another. It involves the enactment of verbal and nonverbal moves, self-presentation acts, impression management interaction and face strategies which can be used to diffuse, manage, enhance, or downgrade self or other's face. It concerns a set of communicative behaviors that people use to regulate their social dignity and to support or challenge the other's social dignity. (Ting-Toomey, 1994)

Facework strategies (FS), which have been the focus of a great many researches in recent years, are essential to language classroom teaching. Since Goffman (1967) proposed the notion of face and later Brown and Levinson (1978) developed it by putting forward the Face Theory, many researchers have explored it in various fields.

II. Implementation of the Study

Over the past few years, there have been numerous studies examining facework and conflict styles across cultures. However, researches focus only on a narrow range of face concern and face management. We feel that measures or survey of face concerns and facework patterns in EFL classroom should be included for our current study, especially for further research on language teaching. Therefore, we attempt to conduct it by questionnaires both for EFL teachers and learners.

The questionnaires were carried out in three universities in China (Central South University, Hunan City University and Changsha Social Work College). All participants completed the questionnaires in their native language. Altogether 50 teachers and 96 learners participate in the study and all participants remained anonymous in the study. The average age of the teacher participants is 38.4, and the average age of learners is 21.7. Among these participants, 73% are female and 27% are male.

A. Teachers' Questionnaire

Teachers' questionnaires were delivered to 50 participants, who all returned the questionnaires, that is, 100% response rate has been obtained.

The teachers' questionnaire is designed to reveal (1) their concern for learners' face, (2) their current application of FS (i.e. in what circumstances face is given or refused), (3) the effects of FS on EFL teaching, (4) their attitudes toward the FS applied in class.

Section 1 contains multiple choice items requiring participants to choose an item which indicates their answer to the question. Section 2 contains five-point scale items requiring teachers to evaluate their practice of FS in EFL classrooms. These scales help capture answers to the research questions quickly and in very little space.

Altogether, the questionnaire is made up of 15 items, six of which are multiple choices and nine of which are scaled items ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" (i.e. strongly agree=1, agree=2, no opinion=3, disagree=4, strongly disagree=5).

Of all the respondents 9 are male accounting for 18% and 41 are female accounting for 82%. 24 at the percentage of 48 are under the age of 30; 17 at the percentage of 34 are between 31 and 40 years old; 6 at the percentage of 12 are

between the age of 41-50; and 3 at the percentage of 6 are over the age of 50. As far as their professional titles are concerned, 50% of the teachers hold the professional title of assistants, the highest percentage in this category; 32% of them are lecturers; 18% of them are associated professors. As to their teaching history, 18% have been teaching for 5-10 years, 22% for 11-20 years, 12% for over 20 years, and 48% for less than 5 years.

This questionnaire covers four main questions, which include teachers' face-concern for the learners, their practice of FS in EFL class, the effects of FS application and the goals for applying FS.

The data are submitted to several factor analyses in order to understand the facework strategies applied in an EFL classroom and confirm the necessity of the measures. We complete separate factor analyses for face concerns, facework strategies and effects of FS application. We use the following procedures for each of the factor analyses. First, all data are standardized within the Chinese culture. Second, the data for face concerns, practice of FS and effects of FS are submitted to principal components of factor analyses with scaled rotation because of the expected correlation among factors.

The first factor analysis is for teachers' face concerns. Two factors composed of 5 items accounting for 33.3% of the variance are discovered. The first factor consists of 2 items focusing on teachers' concern for the students' poise, pride, face, and credibility. In Item 2 when asked whether they are aware of learners' hope for face-saving during the teaching process, 66% of the teacher participants indicate that they frequently do that; 32% sometimes, and only 2% seldom. In Item 6, 68% of the participants are frequently aware of learners' face-need, 14% sometimes, and only 4% seldom concern with about learners' face. The second factor consists of 3 items, accounting for 20% of the variance. The items focus on teachers' perceptions of learners' face-needs. In answering what is the main reason for learners' lacking of motivation in English class in Item 1, 50% of the participants point out that it is their fear of making mistake and losing face; 34% think that it is because of their poor foundation in English learning. The results of Item 7 reveals that 50% of the teachers think that learners care much about their images and position in others' eyes, 6% have no opinion, but 36% of them don't think so. As to Item 15, the strong disagreement and disagreement for the statement that it is unnecessary for the teacher to consider the face issues in EFL classroom are respectively 50% and 38%.

The second factor analysis is for teachers' FS in EFL classroom. Three factors accounting for 20% of the variance are discovered. The first factor consists of one item, accounting for 6.7% of the variance. The item focuses on the behavior that attempts to resolve a conflict through compromising or integrating viewpoints. In this item (Item 4), participants are asked what is the strategy they often apply in the time they have to threaten their students' face. 46% of them explain to their students, 50% try to minimize the face-threat and only 4% take no action. The second factor consisted of one item -- Item 5, accounting for 6.7% of the variance. It reveals that all the participants will encourage their students and give them support when they are in trouble with English study. The item of this factor focuses on trying to maintain composure during conflict and not getting angry. The third factor has one item -- Item 3, accounting for 6.7% of the variance. When asked what their attitudes toward students' mistake in class are, 12% choose to point out immediately, 58% usually point out individually after class, and 30% indicate they will guide them to solve the problem with patience. The emphasis on this item is the desire to avoid an argument in public.

The third factor analysis is for effects of FS application. Two factors composed of 6 items accounting for 40% of the variance are discovered. The first factor consists of 2 items, accounting for 13.3% of the variance. The items focus on effects of FS on learners. The second factor consists of 4 items, accounting for 26.7% of the variance. The items focus predominately on the influence of FS on EFL teaching.

According to the areas in the questionnaire, specific results are found. The information in table I is intended to provide an all-round view of effects of FS on teaching and learning.

TABLE I:
EFFECTS OF FS ON TEACHING AND LEARNING

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	No opinion	Disagree	Strongly disagree
10	82%	16%	2%		
11	40%	38%	14%	6%	2%
13	10%	10%	4%	56%	20%
14		2%	4%	54%	40%

Table I summarizes the degree to which teachers feel about the influence of FS in an EFL classroom. The point (98%) of Item 10 is the highest in terms of agreement for positive effect of teacher's smile and encouragement in stimulating learners' motivation in English study. As for Item 11, the point (78%) is also high in term of agreement on "learners' interest in learning can be motivated by realizing their face-needs." It shows satisfying learners' face-needs is a basic requirement for FS, such as understanding students' interests and high request for increasing face-saving and less demand for face-threatening.

It seems clear from the results that teachers have a high awareness of the fundamental roles of FS in stimulating interactive classroom activities and practicing effective teaching. The point (76%) is high in terms of disagreement on the statement of Item 13 "the construction of harmonious relationship between the teacher and learners will not be affected by the consideration of learners' face-needs". Results of Item 14 also show that, the majority of teachers (94%) are against the given statement which indicates that "maintenance of learners' face has no influence on achieving a successful teaching in EFL classrooms". These may suggest that the teachers might be influenced by the learners'

variables and consider more about their needs and interests when applying FS.

The above results of the factor analysis demonstrate that face concerns, facework strategies and effects of FS application can be measured consistently. The items for face concerns measure the teachers' face-concern for their students. These are consistent with expectations of prior theoretical research (Ting-Toomey & Kurogi, 1998). Each of these measures, furthermore, have good reliabilities. Thus, this instrument is useful for researchers and facilitators who are interested in measuring the application of facework. The items for facework strategies measure 3 distinct factors. This discovery is important because it demonstrates a wide variety of strategies that are used to manage face-needs during an EFL classroom conflict. The majority of the facework dimensions have good reliabilities.

Having reviewed the features of various facework strategies and their effects respectively, we may summarize that teachers often use FS when they are trying to accomplish the following goals such as minimizing their conflict with learners, increasing learners' interests in class, or enhancing their self-esteem. These are consistent with the data of Table I. Then Item 8, Item 9 and Item 12 attempt to investigate such goals that reversely help us to understand the reasoning behind teachers' actual practice. The results are showed in Table II.

TABLE II:
MEAN AGREEMENT WITH OPINION STATEMENTS ABOUT GOALS FOR APPLYING FACEWORK STRATEGIES

Item	Goals for Applying FS	Mean
8	It is necessary for the teachers to perceive their students' mentality in order to enhance teaching.	4.2
9	Effective classroom teaching strategies should satisfy students' face-needs as much as possible.	3.8
12	The classroom teaching which integrates with "face" issues is much promising than that which does not.	3.3

Table II shows virtually all teachers expect to spend some time leading the whole class in a non-conflict context, with each mean being above 3. The mean for applying FS to enhance teaching is 4.2, which is the highest. The mean for adopting FS to satisfy learners' face-needs is 3.8. The mean for achieving a promising teaching is 3.3, ranking third in this table. The results show teachers seem to hold beliefs about employing FS for more communicative oriented purposes than traditional transmission purposes. The results are consistent with the results shown from Table I.

Table I-II show that these participants believe that teachers who employ FS to satisfy learners' face-needs and create more enjoyable and harmonious interactions in EFL classroom are more promising than those just give the lesson to accord with the teaching plan. So the demand for teachers to adopt more FS in the classroom becomes clearer.

B. Learners' Questionnaire

Learners' questionnaires were delivered to 96 participants, and 95 of them were returned, that is, almost 99% participants give their response in the study.

The learners' questionnaire is designed to investigate (1) their face-needs in class, (2) the current application of FS by their EFL teachers, (3) their reaction and feedback to gaining or losing face, (4) the effects on their learning.

Section 1 contains multiple choice items requiring participants to choose an item which exactly indicates their answer to the questions. Section 2 contains five-point scale items requiring learners to assess their experience of teacher's FS in EFL classroom.

Like the teachers' questionnaire, it is also made up of 15 items, six of which are multiple choices and nine of which are scaled items ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree".

Of the returned 95 copies 25 respondents are male, making up 26.3%; 70 are female, making up 73.7%. 25 copies of questionnaire were distributed among first-year learners and 24 copies were returned; 6 respondents are male amounting to 24% and 19 respondents are female amounting to 76%. 42 copies of questionnaire were distributed among second-year learners; of the respondents 12 are male amounting to 28.6% and 30 are female amounting to 71.4%. 38 copies of questionnaire were handed out to third-year learners, and among them 7 respondents are male making up 18.4% and 37 respondents are female making up 81.6%.

This questionnaire covers three main questions, including learners' face-needs, current issues of teachers' FS in EFL classroom, and the impacts of FS application.

The first factor analysis is for learners' face-needs. The factor is composed of 3 items (Item 1, Item 2, Item 6) accounting for 20% of the variance. The items focus predominately on the learners' concern for freedom, self-esteem, and confidence. In Item 1, 33.7% participants indicate that they frequently hope that their teacher will give support when they meet some difficulty in English study, 47.4% sometimes, 14.7% seldom and only 4% never. When asked what do they wish their teacher to do when they make mistakes in class, 1% of the participants hope that their teacher pays no attention, 11.6% hope that the teacher points out the mistake indirectly in class, 42.1% hope to be pointed out individually after class and 45.3% hope that the teacher guide them to solve the problem patiently. The result of Item 6 shows that 12.6% of learner participants do not care about whether their teacher satisfies their face-needs or not, 50.5% point out that they will be in low spirits if their face-needs are not met, 33.7% will have a negative impression on their teacher and 3.2% will express their disapproval in class when their teacher fails to maintain their face.

The second factor analysis is for teachers' facework strategies. 3 factors accounting for 26.7% of the variance are discovered. The first factor consists of one item, accounting for 6.7% of the variance. Item 4 reveals that when in

conflict with learners' opinions, the teacher will employ various strategies. 44.2% participants indicate that their teacher will solve the problem together with them, 31.6% of the teacher will persuade them to accept his or her own opinion, 22.1% point out their teacher will avoid the topic in discussion, and only 2% indicate that their teacher will accept the learners' opinion. This item focuses on behaviors that attempt to resolve a conflict through compromising or integrating viewpoints. The second factor consists of one item -- Item 3, accounting for 6.7% of the variance. The item focuses on trying to maintain composure during conflict and not getting angry. 32.3% indicate that their teacher often point out their mischievous behavior individually after class, 12% point out publicly, 2% criticize their students strongly and 52.7% correct it indirectly. The third factor consists of 2 items (Item 5 and Item 12), accounting for 13.3% of the variance. 47.4% participants indicate most of their teachers in their former English study took measures to save their face and only 3.2% point out few of their teachers take measures. As to the statement in Item 12, 73.7% strongly agree that because many teachers still haven't changed the role of controller in classroom teaching, the students' potentiality in study cannot be exposed, 16.8% have their reservations, and only 9.4% disagree with it. These items have explored the current face management by teachers in EFL classrooms.

The third factor analysis is for the impacts of FS on learners. We can see the results from the table below:

TABLE III:
IMPACTS OF FS ON LEARNERS

Item	Strongly Agreeing	Agreeing	No opinion	Disagreeing	Strongly disagreeing
10	50.5%	37.9%	6.3%	2.1%	3.2%
11	51.6%	35.8%	9.5%	1.1%	2.1%
13	53.1%	24.4%	7.8%	2.6%	2.1%
14	2.1%	6.3%	7.4%	47.4%	36.8%
15	6.3%	15.8%	17.9%	40%	20%

Table III shows that learners are glad to see the impact of FS on their learning. These learners believe that teacher's proper FS can stimulate their responses and create more enjoyable and harmonious context for EFL class. 88.4% participants (among them 50.5% strongly) agree that teachers' face-saving acts can efface their dread in English learning. As to Item 11, 87.4% of the participants (51.6% among them strongly) agree that face concern for learners can increase their confidence in teachers. In Item 13, 87.5% of the participants state that most learners cannot boldly answer questions and show their opinions in English class because of their fear of making mistakes and losing face in public. Whereas in Item 14 and 15, most of the participants, accounting to 84% (among them 36.8% strongly disagree) and 60% (among them 20% strongly disagree) respectively disagree with the given statements. Thus overall, these learners have recognized the important role of teachers' facework strategies within their EFL classroom.

Furthermore, in order to investigate more about learners' attitudes toward the application of FS within the EFL classroom, learners are asked to identify three given statements as shown in Table IV.

TABLE IV:
MEAN AGREEMENT WITH OPINION STATEMENT ABOUT LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD TEACHERS' FS

Item	Attitudes toward Teachers' FS	Mean
7	Though many teachers recognized the function of "face" in the classroom interaction, they cannot employ relevant effective strategies to accelerate the teaching process.	3.71
8	In my English study, I prefer amiable teachers who are more considerate of their students.	4.12
9	Teachers should perceive their students' mentality profoundly so that they can employ appropriate strategies to help teaching.	3.65

Table IV shows all the learners hold the view that it is necessary for teachers to apply FS according to the specific teaching tasks, teaching contexts and especially learners' face-needs in EFL class. The mean for Item 8 is 4.12, which is the highest one in Table IV. The next mean comes for Item 7, which is 3.71. The mean for Item 9 is 3.65. The results indicate a fact that there are still many teachers fail to recognize the significance of FS. It also shows that the learners expect their teachers to be more considerate of their face-needs within EFL classrooms.

Table III to Table IV reveals that these English learners believe that FS application is significant for both EFL teaching and learning. It not only can accelerate teaching process and achieve teaching objectives, but also can stimulate learners' self-esteem and enthusiasm in study. So the demand for teachers to employ more effective FS in the classroom becomes clearer.

Altogether, results of the questionnaire survey show that teachers have recognized the importance of non-conflict teaching context to the success of interactive EFL classroom and acknowledged the value of initiating more FS. And it also indicates that learners expect their face-needs in class to be satisfied and demand their teachers to design a more effective teaching with proper FS under appropriate situations.

III. FACE ISSUES IN CURRENT EFL CLASSROOM

The questionnaire surveys outline the salient face issues as well as offer a glimpse of teachers' application of facework strategies in EFL classroom. It examines learners' face-needs and teachers' face concerns for their students in class. Then it reflects teachers' motives of applying FS and the problems they meet in designing and employing FS in

their classroom. It also reveals how teachers set their own roles in FS application and implement various types of FS within real situation.

With the data collected from questionnaires, three points are worthy of discussion: teachers' perceptions of FS application; important factors to be considered in FS application; and teachers' classroom implementations.

A. Teachers' Perceptions of FS Application

By using data sources, we learned that teachers in this study held four perceptions about FS application. They believe that (a) FS in the classroom should consider students' face-needs and emphasize harmonious interaction, (b) FS application depends on teaching contexts, teaching tasks, and teaching procedures, (c) FS should be used appropriately in EFL classroom, (d) FS are often used sequentially with some face-threatening acts. No matter what kind of FS teachers choose, it is necessary for them to apply FS on the basis of learners' needs and current development in teaching.

The survey shows that teachers recognized the importance of applying more FS to increase learners' self-esteem and interests in their English study. It also shows that teachers believe that FS could gain more positive effects for both learners and themselves in EFL classroom. They suggest that learners can be encouraged to make more progress if the purpose of FS is to stimulate learners' initiative in class. Teachers are clearly aware that different classes do provide different opportunities for the employment of FS. They agree that FS boosts the interactive language teaching, so an appropriate proportion of FS in EFL classroom is important. Although there is potential for harmonious communication in class after FS is put forth, the teachers are unsure of the extent to which they have the time to promote it and whether or not all learners are capable of giving responses as they expected.

B. Important Factors to Be Considered in FS Application

From the research sources, we come to know that FS should be viewed as a flexible teaching aid that teachers are still developing. Through teachers' practical classroom implementations, we believe that complexity in FS application involves not only the learners' variables, but also contextual elements of teaching such as teaching contexts, teaching tasks, and teaching procedures.

The most important factor might be the learners' variables. The trend from the data sources reveals that teachers' view of FS is focusing on learners. Teachers support the idea that FS can be effective when learners' needs are appropriately satisfied. According to the questionnaires, teachers' choice of FS would be influenced by the face-needs of learners. The second factor might be the specific teaching context. Teachers' practices revealed from the study demonstrate that decisions on adopting FS must be related to certain teaching context, especially in such a Chinese cultural environment. The third factor might be teaching tasks and procedures. Teachers' application of FS in their classroom shows that teachers often compromise their personal beliefs of language teaching with the procedures of particular lessons.

The data sets have uncovered the complexity which teachers constantly face in designing and using FS within EFL classroom. Through the study we know that current perceptions of face management might have influenced teachers' perceptions of FS to a certain degree. In practice, they still resort to their own personal ideas and experiences, thus developing their perceptions.

C. Teachers' Classroom Implementations

Teachers in this study have their own perceptions about face-needs and FS. For example, those teachers implement their perceptions of FS in their actual teaching according to particular learners in particular teaching contexts. They maintain such a good rapport with learners that their FS become clearer and better organized.

Teachers are found to use different strategies in implementing different facework in the EFL classrooms. Most of the FS which teachers applied in EFL classrooms support results obtained from the questionnaires, considering students' face-needs and classroom contexts.

We have known that there is no single way and no particular comprehensive set of FS that are decisive for facework application. Each teacher has his or her own profile or agenda which contributes to effective facework applying in class. Indeed, there is a small set of beliefs that seem to be of high importance for effective language teaching. However, beyond this small set, each teacher achieves his or her FS in a different way, by using a different combination of perceptions on FS application.

IV. Pedagogic Considerations

On the basis of earlier discussion, we now attempt to explore the practical implications of the research, which has a corresponding pedagogic role in EFL teaching.

A. Focusing on Learners' Face-needs

Current perspectives of language teaching and learning suggest there is a shift from a teacher-centered classroom to a learner-centered classroom which is more communicative and authentic. Thus the need for paying more attention to learners' variables is put forward.

As mentioned in former sections, teachers' FS mainly deal with learners' face-needs which refer to the needs for

protecting, supporting or enhancing their public image. So, before teachers apply a certain FS, it is better for them to focus on learners' face-needs: the needs for control, the need for approval and the need for admiration (Lim, 1991).

1. The Need for Control

Face control is concerned with individual requirements for freedom and personal authority. It is related to people's need for others to acknowledge their individual autonomy and self-sufficiency. As Lim (1991, p.425) suggests, it involves people's "image that they are in control of their own fate, that is, they have the virtues of a full-fledged, mature, and responsible adult." This type of face includes such values as "independent", "in control of self", "initiative", "mature", "composed", "reliable", and "self-sufficient". When learners claim these values for themselves, they want to be self-governed and free from others' interference, control or imposition. The claim for face control, in other words, is embodied in the desire to have freedom of action.

2. The Need for Approval

Face approval is concerned with individual requirements for affiliation and social contact. It is related to people's need for others to acknowledge their friendliness and honesty. This type of face includes such values as "likable", "acceptable", "friendly", "agreeable", "cooperative", "alike", and "affiliated". When learners claim these values for themselves, they want to be thought of as a member of an in-group. Since it is concerned with the social aspect of the learner, the loss of which makes it impossible for him/her to function appropriately within a social group. Thus face approval reflects the desire to be treated with respect and dignity.

3. The Need for Admiration

Face admiration is concerned with individual need for display of respect from others. It is related to people's need for others to acknowledge their talents and accomplishments. This type of face is similar to what the Chinese call *mien-tsu*, or prestige acquired through success and social standing. One's *mien-tsu* is built up through high position, wealth, power, ability, through cleverly establishing social ties to a number of prominent people, as well as through avoidance of acts that would cause unfavorable comment. People growing up in any community have the same claim to *mien-tsu*, an honest, decent "face"; but their *mien-tsu* will differ with the status of the family, personal ties, ego's ability to impress people, etc. This type of face-need emphasizes such issues as being "knowledgeable", "intelligent", "wise", "experienced", "influential", "prosperous", "accomplished", "attractive" and "distinguished". Thus when learners claim these values for themselves, they want others to acknowledge their capabilities, success, reputation and accomplishments.

B. Choosing Appropriate Facework Strategies

Different types of face are supported by different kinds of facework, so teachers should choose appropriate FS according to learners' face wants.

Tact facework is characterized by the effort to maximize the freedom of action of the learners and minimize the impositions that restrict their freedom of action. Thus, tact facework strategies often ask for suggestions and directions, avoid explicit directives, and use pleas and conventional indirectness.

Solidarity facework minimizes the differences and maximizes the commonalities between the teacher and the learners. Thus, strategies of solidarity facework tend to use informal or intimate language, and emphasize the necessity to cooperate, similarities, shared fate, and mutual trust.

Approbation facework is characterized by the effort to minimize blame and maximize praise of the teacher. Strategies of approbation tend to ignore or understate negative aspects of learners and to notice or exaggerate positive aspects of them.

Face-giving, which is "approach-based" (Brown and Levinson, 1987) facework, actively promotes the given face-want of learners, thus being the most supportive facework of the four. Specifically, the face-giving strategy of tact gives autonomy to the learners; the face-giving strategy of solidarity actively involves learners in the group; the strategy of approbation shows admiration for achievement of abilities. The face-giving strategy is normally used when there is no direct threat to the particular type of face. Since the face-giving strategies actively acknowledge the positive attributes of the learners, they are more supportive when they are more directly expressed.

Withdrawal, moderation, and disregard are used when teachers perform certain face-threatening acts. They, in other words, are "avoidance-based" (Brown & Levinson, 1987) facework, which are used to mitigate the threat to the face of the learners. Withdrawal, gives up performing the intended face-threatening act in order to avoid threatening the learners' face. Disregard, on the other hand, does not pay any attention to their face-want. It is the lowest in the amount of face support. Moderation performs the intended face-threatening act but attempts to mitigate the possible face-threat. Indirectness has been proposed as the most important principle for moderating face-threat.

C. Ways of Enacting Facework Strategies

There are different ways of enacting disregard, moderation, and face-giving strategies of tact, solidarity, and approbation.

Moderating tactics of facework tact attempt to express one's wish to avoid imposing upon the other. Thus, the tactics vary in the amount of face-support dependent upon the indirectness of expressing the intended imposition. "Pleading", "advice", "conventional indirectness" and "debt incurrence" are indirect, however, they do not moderate face-threatening greatly. While "unconventional indirectness", which gives hints or association clues, and

"experimenting", which explores the possibility for the learner to volunteer, are very indirect, thus significantly mitigating the threat to the learner's autonomy face. Autonomy face-giving strategies are not intended to avoid threatening the learner's face, but purported to give leeway to the learner. "Nomination" dedicates, endows, or transfers the leadership to the learner; "volunteering" expands learner's domain of control by offering service; and "submission" gives relative autonomy to the learner by limiting his/her own.

Moderating tactics of solidarity are used when a teacher needs to threaten the learner's fellowship-face, but wants to avoid directly depreciating the learner as a member of in-group. Fellowship-face-giving tactics are used when the teacher wants to actively promote the learner's want to be involved. As mentioned earlier, face-giving tactics are more supportive, when they are more direct. "Similarity", "informality", "agreement" and "pre-supposition" actually imply, but not directly state that the teacher approves of the learner as a member of an in-group. Whereas, "appreciation", which approves of the learner's character, "empathy", which shows compassion, "cooperation", which emphasizes the obligation to cooperation, and "affirmation", which reaffirms the close relationship, express the teacher's intention to include the learner more or less directly.

Moderating tactics of approbation facework express a teacher's intention to avoid disapproving of the learner. The tactics, therefore, are more face-supportive if they are more indirect in expressing the disapproval. "Resentment", which disapproves of the learner's performance, but leaves his/her competence intact; "aspiration", which implies that the performance is not bad; "diminutive", which understates the problem, are still more or less direct in the expression of disapproval. However, "suggestion", which suggests the ways to make the performance perfect, "contradiction", which approves of some related aspects and moderates the problem, and "encouragement", which approves of the potential of the learner, are very indirect in disapproval because they also express certain approval. Competence-face-giving tactics, such as "comparative approval", "positive comments", and "admiration", actually promote the learner's want to be respected by giving approvals.

V. Conclusion

The study proves that facework is a central and enduring feature of all interpersonal relationships in classroom communication. It is concerned with the communication activities that help to create, maintain, and sustain the connections between teacher and learners.

The sources together with the data collected from this study provide teachers advice about how to conduct a EFL class with proper FS. It is important for teachers to recognize their role on FS application. We hold that no matter what types of facework strategies are applied in EFL classrooms, the purpose is to create a pleasant and harmonious context for the learners, to initiate their self-esteem and enthusiasm in English study, and hence achieve more effective teaching.

The study makes a case for the contributing research into teachers' concerns and practices. It also leads us to a fuller and more realistic understanding of the role of FS in an EFL classroom. The value of this study lies in the fact that it increases teachers' awareness of their own conventional everyday behavior in an EFL classroom. It is of particular significance in providing professional teachers with first-hand data for subsequent teacher development on FS application

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 183-192, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.183-192

Perceptions of Medical Students and EFL Instructors of Their EAP Materials, Challenges and Implications for Iranian EAP Instructors

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***Abstract*—EAP textbooks and materials are probably the most important element in academic English courses in Iran. Therefore, their evaluation can help to identify their strengths and weaknesses, and hence, to improve their quality. The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of EFL instructors and medical students of their EAP textbook. It was also an attempt to find out about the challenges they may have in their teaching and learning contexts. To conduct this study, 175 medical students and 25 EFL instructors were selected from four medical universities. The instruments for gathering data were a questionnaire and interview. Statistical *t*-test and *MANOVA* were used for analyzing the data. The results of quantitative analyses showed that there was no significant difference between the students' and EFL instructors' perceptions of their EAP textbook. However, there were significant differences between their perceptions of six different aspects of the textbook. Moreover, the qualitative data showed that overcrowded classes, lack of appropriate materials to the learners' needs, lack of clear objectives in the EAP context, and shortage of time were the major challenges instructors and students are faced with. In conclusion, although there were positive perceptions of the textbook they use, most of the instructors did not think that it was enough for an EAP course. Besides, they believed that the number of the students in their classes should be reduced, there should be clear objectives for EAP courses, and based on such objectives, relevant materials should be designed and developed.**

***Index Terms*—perceptions, EAP textbook, instructors, learners, challenges**

I. Introduction

Textbooks play an important role in the realm of general and EAP language programs and are considered the next important element after the teacher (Riazi, 2005). They are an effective resource for self-directed learning, an effective resource for teachers to present materials, a source of reference for learners, a source of ideas and tasks, a syllabus that mirror pre-determined learning objectives, and a support for inexperienced and less confident teachers (Cunningsworth, 1995).

According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), in some situations where English is used as a foreign language, ESP classroom may be the only source of English. Therefore, materials play an important role in exposing learners to the language. They believe that in order to support learning, materials need to be reliable; to improve learning they must engage learners in thinking about and using the language; to motivate and stimulate, they need to be challenging and also reachable; to enhance learners' and instructors' motivation, they should provide variety of activities; and to support mixed abilities, they should provide exercises and tasks at different levels of difficulty. Good EAP materials from Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) perspective are those that suit the needs of teachers, learners and sponsors. They should encourage learners to learn, should contain interesting texts and activities which involve learners in thinking, should provide opportunity for learner to use their existing knowledge and skill, and should have content that both teachers and learners can cope with. They also mention that good materials should provide a clear and coherent unit structure that help both teacher and learner maximize the chances of learning.

While many of the researchers point to the extensive benefits of using ESL/EFL textbooks, there are other researchers have highlighted the disadvantages regarding the use of the textbooks. For example, Swales (1980) believes that EAP textbooks in spite of commercial success suffer from educational failure. He also mentions that the main reason of this failure could be either in the product of the textbook or in the primary user. According to Jones (1990), "…the majority of ESP textbooks are not regionally based but are distributed globally, often as a panacea for all ills" (p. 89). Williams (1983) calls a textbook "a tyrant". He mentions that a textbook can be a tyrant to the teacher who is covering the syllabus, feels that he/she is limited by every item which is presented by the textbook writer. Ansari & Babayi (2002) also state that no single textbook can be perfect for different groups of learners with differing learning needs and learning styles, topics in a textbook may not be relevant for and interesting to all learners, and a textbook can

be limiting in the sense that it may inhibit teachers' creativity. Therefore, teachers should have the potential to supplement a textbook with certain materials based on their own specific needs in their own specific situation.

Hutchinson and Waters (1984) believe that many of ESP textbooks have appearance of being content-based rather than language-based. However, there is no guarantee for motivation and interest in content-based materials. In fact, the content of many ESP materials is often only a vehicle for language practice, inadequately integrated with the rest of the materials in terms of subject matter. The learners must be given materials which have the right kind of content and integrated in the right way (Hutchinson & Waters, 1984).

While argument regarding whether to use textbooks continue, they still maintain enormous popularity and there is a demand for them to grow. It should be mentioned that there has been a movement since 1970's to put the learners at the center of language instruction, and the textbooks are perceived as the most important resources in achieving aims and objectives that have already been set in terms of learners' needs (Brown, 1995, as cited in Litz, 2005). However, they should not determine the aim of the course themselves or become the aim, but they must be at the service of teachers and learners (Brown, 1995, as cited in Litz, 2005). Therefore, we must do our best to establish and apply a wide variety of criteria to assess the textbooks we use in our classroom (Litz, 2005). We must also ensure "that careful selection is made, and the materials selected closely reflect the aims, methods, and values of the teaching program" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p.7).

II. The Study

Rational and Purpose of the Study

One of the important issues in language learning in general, and EAP in particular, is to examine whether the textbooks are appropriate for a given course and for a particular group of learners in a particular context or not. In this regard, knowing about the learners' and teachers' viewpoints on their textbooks can provide a basis for material evaluation. "*Medical Terminology: An illustrated Guide" 5th written* by Cohen in 2008, is one of the widely used EAP textbook in medical field in Iranian academic context. Since this book was produced to meet the specific needs of Canadian students of medicine, it seems necessary to examine its effectiveness and usefulness from Iranian students' and instructors' point of views.

By reviewing the literature we found that there are debates regarding the EAP textbooks in Iran. However, most of these discussions were based on textbooks published by SAMT center which is a governmental organization responsible for developing academic textbooks in Iran (e.g. Baleghizadeh & Rahimi, 2011; Eslami-Rasekh, 2010; Farhady, 2005; Hashemi, Lamir, & Rezaee-Namjoo, 2011; Razmjoo & Raissi, 2010; Shamsaee & Shams, 2010; Shokouhi, 2005; Soleimai, 2005; Tajeddin, 2005; etc.). Few studies focused on textbooks written by native speakers and there was a lack of evaluations made from the perspectives of both teachers and learners. Therefore, the present study was an attempt to evaluate the perceptions of both EFL instructors and medical students of their EAP textbook and also to find out the possible challenges they may have in the teaching and learning process. The finding can have pedagogical implications not only for teachers and learners, but also for EAP material writers, course designers, publishers, and ultimately for those who are decision makers for academic English courses in Iran.

III. Methodology

A. Participants

Both EFL instructors and medical students participated in this study: The sample of instructors included 25 EFL instructors who taught EAP courses at the university. They were 15 men and 10 women between 27-70 years old with teaching experience at university level ranging from two to forty years. All of the instructors were PhD holders in TEFL, English literature, and linguistics. The sample also included a number of 175 students of medicine (57 male and 118 female). Their ages ranged from 18 to 27 years and they were all undergraduates. The availability sampling was used to select the participants from four medical universities (Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Shahid-Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran Islamic Azad University of Medical Sciences, and Zanjan University of Medical Sciences).

B. Instruments

In this study, questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were used for obtaining qualitative and quantitative data. Such a method integrates both approaches to provide a much more detailed and comparative picture of what is being investigated. In this study, the qualitative data (interview) was gathered after quantitative data collection in order to deepen our understanding and interpretation of the results and to provide us with information that cannot be readily obtained through questionnaires.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire used in this study was the modified version of the one used by Balegizadeh and Rahimi (2011) that was originally based on Sheldon (1988) model (Appendix A). It had two parts: part A of the questionnaire contained items asking about the participants' demographic information. Part B of the questionnaire contained 23 likert scale items ranging from 1 (*very weak*) to 5 (*excellent*) which asked the participants to express their perceptions of their EAP

textbooks based on six categories of *practical concern, materials in relation to course objectives, subject matter, linguistic issues, skill, and variety and layout.* To make the items easy to understand and to enhance response validity, the questionnaires were translated into participants' native language (Persian) and the translated version was then piloted with 25 students. The Cronbach alpha reliability index was calculated and the result turned out to be 0.90 which was quite acceptable. Based on the results obtained at this stage and two instructors' comments, two items of the questionnaire was modified and finalized for the final data collection. The questionnaire for instructors was the parallel form of the students' questionnaire except for some difference in the questions on the demographic information (Appendix B).

Interviews

The main reason for conducting the interviews was to elicit data regarding the interviewees' perspectives concerning: (a) the challenges in teaching and learning EAP in large overcrowded classes, (b) two criteria in the questionnaire (layout and design of their textbook, and reading skill), (c) other challenges in EAP context, and (d) their suggestions for improving the teaching and learning EAP courses in medical schools. The interview questions were designed by the researcher and were checked by the supervisor of the study for their clarity and usefulness. The interview questions are given in Appendix E.

C. Procedure

Data collection procedures were carried out in about 5 months (between May and September 2012). Four medical universities (as mentioned above) in which the *'Medical Terminology'* textbook was the main course book and course material were selected. At the very beginning of the study, permission was gained from the heads of the language departments of the targeted universities who showed a willingness to cooperate. To enhance participation, the researcher informed the participants that their answers would be confidential and that they were not required to write or give their name at any stage of the study. The researcher also made the participants aware of the process they were supposed to go through. They were also permitted to ask any questions they had for clarification. About 200 questionnaires were distributed among the students at the four universities mentioned before, out of which 175 questionnaires were returned to the researcher.

The parallel form of questionnaire was distributed among EFL instructors at the same universities. Availability sampling was also used to gather data from the instructors. In order to ensure a high rate of return by EFL instructors, the researcher distributed and collected the questionnaires in each university in person. She visited each instructor in their office, informed them about the research project, and requested them to fill out the questionnaire. Some instructors returned the questionnaire on the same day; others returned them two to ten days later by email.

The qualitative data was gathered by semi-structured interviews. The interviews were conducted individually with 10 EFL instructors and 10 medical students who were available from the research population. Before conducting the interview, the researcher informed the participants about the aims of the interview. To reduce their fear of exposing their honest view and ensure better and reliable responses, the interviewees were assured that their opinions will be kept confidential. The permission was also gained for recording the full interview. The student subjects were interviewed in their universities and the instructors were interviewed in their offices. The interviews were conducted in the participants' native language (Persian) and all five interview questions were asked from the interviewees one by one. It took approximately 20 minutes for each person to be interviewed.

D. Data Analysis

After collecting the two sets of questionnaires, both questionnaires were scored on the likert scale ranging from '*excellent', 'good', 'moderate', 'weak' and 'very weak'*; each column had a particular value that was 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1, respectively. Then, the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) was used for statistical analyses.

First, an independent *t*-test was run to compare the EFL instructors and medical students' perceptions of the EAP textbook they used in their classes. Moreover, a multivariate analysis of variance (*MANOVA*) was applied to investigate whether there were significant differences between the instructors' and students' perceptions regarding the six categories addressed by the questionnaire items. For the qualitative part of the study, content analysis was used.

IV. Research Question and Hypotheses

Q1: What is the perception of Iranian medical students of their EAP textbook?

Q2: What is the perception of Iranian EFL instructors of medical EAP textbook?

Q3: Is there any significant difference between Iranian EFL instructors and medical students' perceptions of their medical EAP textbook?

Q4: Are there any significant differences between Iranian EFL instructors and medical students' perceptions of six aspects of their medical EAP textbook?

In the light of the above mentioned questions the following hypotheses were tested:

H_{01}: There is no significant difference between Iranian EFL instructors and medical students' perceptions of their medical EAP textbook.

H_{02}: There are no significant differences between Iranian EFL instructors and medical students' perceptions of six aspects of their medical EAP textbook.

V. Interviews Questions

The second part of the study is related to the challenges in Iranian EAP context. The following five questions were asked from both EFL instructors and medical students:

1. What challenges do the medical students and EAP instructors face in large overcrowded classes?
2. If a textbook doesn't have a good layout and design, what challenges does it bring to teaching and learning process?
3. The main objective of EAP courses in Iran is reading skills. Do you think the book "medical terminology" fulfill this objective? If not, give your reasons? And what are your suggestions for improvements in this regard?
4. What other challenges are medical students faced with in learning EAP courses?
5. What do you suggest for improving the teaching and learning EAP courses in medical schools?

VI. Results

A. The First and Second Research (Descriptive) Questions

As Table I shows, the mean score for the instructors was 34.46 with the standard deviation of 6.52 and the mean of the students was 32.40 with the standard deviation of 6.80. It seems that both the students and instructors were satisfied with the textbook in general.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE PERCEPTION ON MEDICAL EAP TEXTBOOK BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Instructors	25	34.46	6.52	1.30
Students	175	32.40	6.80	.51

B. The Third Research Question

The third research question was: Is there any significant difference between Iranian EFL instructors and medical students' perceptions toward their medical EAP textbook?

As Table II shows, the results of the independent *t*-test (198) = 1.42, $P = .156 > .05$, $r = .10$ indicate that there was no significant difference between instructors and medical students' perceptions of their textbook. Therefore, the first null-hypothesis as there is no significant difference between Iranian EFL instructors and medical students' perception of their medical EAP textbook was supported.

TABLE II
INDEPENDENT T-TEST PERCEPTIONS ON EAP TEXTBOOK 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	1.010	.316	1.42	198	.156	2.06	1.44	-.79	4.91
Equal variances not assumed			1.47	31.94	.151	2.06	1.40	-.79	4.91

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 1.01, P = .316 > .05). That is why the first row of Table II (Equal variances assumed) was reported.

C. The Fourth Research Question

The fourth research question was: is there any significant difference between Iranian EFL instructors and medical students' perceptions of six aspects of their medical EAP textbook? Before answering this question and testing the hypothesis it should be mentioned that assumption of *homogeneity of variances*, as tested through the Levene's test was met (Levene's $F = 1.01$, $P = .316 > .05$).

A multivariate analysis of variances *(MANOVA)* was used to compare the students and instructors' perceptions of their EAP textbook in terms of six aspects, namely, *practical concerns, materials in relation to course objectives, linguistic issues, subject matter, skills, and variety and layout.*

The results (F (3, 193) = 3.85, $P = .001 < .05$; Partial $\eta = .10$) represent a moderate to strong effect size. It can be concluded that there were significant differences between the instructors and medical students' perceptions of six aspects of their EAP textbook (as Table III illustrates). Thus, the second null-hypothesis as there is no significant difference between Iranian EFL instructors' and medical students' perception of six aspects of their medical EAP textbook was rejected.

TABLE III
MULTIVARIATE TESTS

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.924	392.917	6	193	.000	.924
	Wilks' Lambda	.076	392.917	6	193	.000	.924
	Hotelling's Trace	12.215	392.917	6	193	.000	.924
	Roy's Largest Root	12.215	392.917	6	193	.000	.924
GROUP	Pillai's Trace	.107	3.852	6	193	.001	.107
	Wilks' Lambda	.893	3.852	6	193	.001	.107
	Hotelling's Trace	.120	3.852	6	193	.001	.107
	Roy's Largest Root	.120	3.852	6	193	.001	.107

It should be noted that the SPSS produces four F-values. In cases all of the indices are significant or non- significant one may report any of the indices.

Although the F-value of 3.85 indicates, there were significant differences between the instructors and students' perceptions of the six aspects, it is worth exploring the exact places of differences between the two groups. Based on the results displayed in Table IV, it can be concluded that:

1. There is no significant difference between the instructors and students' perceptions of their EAP textbook in terms of its practical concerns. We obtained F (1, 198) = 3.42, P = .066 > .05; and *Partial* η = .017 which represents a weak effect size;

2. There is no significant difference between the instructors and students' perceptions of their EAP textbook in terms of its materials in relation to course objectives. We computed F (1, 198) = 3.83, P = .052 > .05; and *Partial* η = .019 which represents a weak effect size;

3. There is no significant difference between the instructors and students' perceptions of their EAP textbooks in terms of its linguistic issues. We obtained F (1, 198) = 1.84, P = .176 > .05; and *Partial* η = .009 which represents a weak effect size;

4. There is no significant difference between the instructors' and students' perceptions of the medical EAP textbook in terms of its subject matter. We achieved (F (1, 198) = 1, P = .316 > .05; Partial η = .005 which represents a weak effect size; however,

5. There is a significant difference between the instructors' and students' perceptions on their EAP textbook in terms of its skills. We obtained F (1, 198) = 6.38, P = .012 < .05; and P*artial* η = .031 which represents a weak to moderate effect size.

6. There is a significant difference between the instructors and students' perceptions on their EAP textbook in terms of its variety and layout. We achieved F (1, 198) = 4.43, P = .036 < .05; and *Partial* η = .022 which represents a weak to moderate effect size.

TABLE IV
UNIVARIATE TESTS

Dependent Variable		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Practical concerns	Contrast	292.571	1	292.571	3.428	.066	.017
	Error	16899.429	198	85.351			
Materials	Contrast	401.786	1	401.786	3.835	.052	.019
	Error	20743.714	198	104.766			
Linguistics issues	Contrast	104.504	1	104.504	1.842	.176	.009
	Error	11231.714	198	56.726			
Subject matter	Contrast	63.504	1	63.504	1.009	.316	.005
	Error	12463.108	198	62.945			
Skills	Contrast	457.143	1	457.143	6.383	.012	.031
	Error	14180.857	198	71.620			
Variety and design	Contrast	427.215	1	427.215	4.437	.036	.022
	Error	19062.554	198	96.276			

D. The Interviews Results

The first interview question was*:* What challenges do the medical students and EAP instructors face in large overcrowded classes?

Almost all the instructors and students were of the opinions that one of the greatest challenges of medical classes is their being much overcrowded. Most of them believed that in such situation there are many challenges such as: difficulty in handling the class, noise making, teacher-centered approach with little student involvement, lack of evaluation and assessment, diversity (multi-level students in one class), ignoring the weak and silent students, little or lack of communication and interaction between student-teacher and especially student-student because of shortage of time, risk of lower achievement, lack of chance for all the students to ask their questions.

Five instructors also believed that in large classes it is difficult and time-consuming for teachers to give quizzes to the students because it takes much time and energy on the part of teachers to correct the students' papers. They also mentioned that there is no opportunity to continuously assess the students in order to determine whether they have

understood the lesson or not. Therefore, in such situations, the teacher cannot identify the strengths and weaknesses of his teaching or get more feedback from the students.

Regarding the second question: If a textbook doesn't have a good layout and design, what challenges does it bring to teaching and learning process? Almost all the instructors and students believed that if a textbook does not have a good layout and design, it affects both students' and teachers' motivation and interest to learn or teach that book. They stated that in the medical field, it is important to use colorful and original course books. Pictures and illustrations in most cases help the students' visual memory to retain more information. The students were complaining about their textbook (MT) small font size and not having colorful pictures and illustrations (its pictures and illustrations are in black and white, while the original textbook is colorful and appropriate font size).

With regard to the third question: The main objective of EAP course in Iran is reading skills. Do you think the book 'Medical Terminology' fulfill this criteria? Most of the instructors were of the opinions that the main objective of the 'Medical Terminology' textbook (MT) is teaching medical terminology, not reading skills. They believed that this book helps the students to break the words into suffixes and prefixes, and also help them in their pronunciation. Therefore, when they are reading a text and come across with unfamiliar words, they can use their knowledge of prefixes and suffixes to guess the meaning of new words. They suggested that, a supplementary reading textbook that is based on students' needs should be added to this syllabus. However, it should be mentioned that in two universities, the "*Medical Terminology"* textbook was only the main book for EAP course. The students in these universities believed that the MT textbook could help them in their reading and comprehension ability. They reported that the medical students need to read medical texts, but unfortunately, even those short passages were usually ignored by the teachers and they just focused on vocabulary teaching.

About the fourth question: What other challenges are medical students faced with in EAP courses? Most of the instructors and students believed that there are different challenges in their EAP context but the major ones are: large classes, lack of appropriate materials to the students' needs, shortage of time, multi-level students in one class, insufficient knowledge of EFL instructors in EAP, shortage or lack of visual or auditorial equipments, students' low language proficiency. In addition most of the instructors referred to the lack of clear objectives in the medical field in EAP context.

With regard to the fifth question: What do you suggest for improving the teaching and learning EAP courses in medical schools? Most of the instructors suggested that at first, there is an urgent need to administer a placement test to divide the students into different levels. By doing this, it is possible to reduce the number of students in each class. Second, there should be clear objectives in EAP courses, then based on those objectives relevant materials should be designed and developed to meet the objectives. Third, EFL instructors' medical knowledge should be increased to teach EAP courses more efficiently. Fourth, the number of EAP instructors should increase. Most of the students also suggested that the number of students should be limited in each class; the time allocated to English course should be increased; medical students not only need to improve their reading ability, they also need to improve their listening, speaking, and writing ability; like instructors, they suggested that EFL instructors should increase their medical knowledge; and appropriate reading textbooks should be introduced to them.

VII. Discussion and Conclusion

The first phase of this study sought to determine the perceptions of medical students and EFL instructors of their EAP textbook. In discussing the findings emanating from the two hypotheses, two important facts were revealed. First, there was no significant difference between the perceptions of the EFL instructors and medical students of their EAP textbook. Second, there were significant differences between their perceptions regarding the six aspects of the textbook.

Regarding the first and second (descriptive) questions: What are the medical students'/ EAP instructors' perceptions of their EAP textbook? The results of data revealed that, generally speaking, both the instructors and students had positive perceptions of the textbook. However, the instructors were more satisfied with the textbook than the students. The findings were inconsistent with Rahimiy's (2008) study, who found that MT textbook is not suitable for Iranian universities.

As mentioned earlier, the major areas under investigation in the questionnaires were practical concerns, materials in relation to course objectives, linguistic issues, subject matter, skills, and variety and layout. With respect to the practical concerns, materials in relation to course objectives, linguistic issues, and subject matter it was revealed that most of the instructors and students were pleased with these aspects of the textbook. However, there were disagreement between their perceptions regarding the skills and layout and variety of exercises aspects of the textbook.

Regarding the reading skill, most of the students were of the opinions that the reading passages in MT textbook have helped them in improving their reading ability. On the contrary, the instructors disagreed with the students. The instructors believed that medical students needed to read medical texts or articles based on their levels and background knowledge. Therefore, reading short simplified texts or very difficult texts could not guarantee their improvement in reading and comprehension ability.

Regarding the speaking skills, results of the data revealed that both parties did not think that the textbook helps the learners in speaking ability .The main purpose of EAP teaching in Iran is to enable the learners to read specific texts in English and to translate them into Persian even if a textbook has also focused on other skills. In many chapters of the

Medical Terminology textbook learners are required to explain some diseases, drugs and compare them. It is important for instructors to provide students with the opportunities to take part in discussions. The relevant and interesting topics can motivate students to think and learn the language by content-based use of target language.

The last category was related to the variety of exercises and layout of the textbook. Regarding the variety of activities and exercises in the book, most of the participants were content with the variation of tasks and activities in the book, and they believed that they were challenging enough. Literature indicated that many authors like Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Garinger (2002), Grant (1987), Sheldon (1988) all included items related to variety of exercises and activities in their criteria checklist. Regarding the layout and design of MT book, there was little agreement between the two parties (as mentioned above). Most of the instructors were of the opinions that the textbook was attractive and its illustrations and photographs were motivating enough to encourage the learners to read about the subject. In contrast, the students seemed to disagree with the instructors in this regard. In the interviews, some students maintained that the original MT textbook is colorful with clear pictures and illustration and suitable font size. However, it was copied in Iran by an institute in a way that it's colorful and clear pictures and font size has been changed into small black and white pictures and a small font size. The students said that medical EAP course book should be colorful in order to be understandable. In the literature, physical appearance of a textbook is very important. McDonough and Show (2003) believed that clarity of layout is an important criterion for textbook evaluation.

Besides, the findings reveal that overcrowded classes are a major challenge in Iranian EAP context that cause many problems for instructors and learners. Over the past decades, the percentage of the students who want to study in medical field has continued to grow. This has resulted in the stuffing of classes. The problem is more obvious in EAP classes as instructors find it difficult to manage their classes communicatively.

Furthermore, large classes and lack of appropriate reading materials were not the only problems in the EAP contexts we studied. There were many other challenges in this context that need to be considered by authorities more seriously including lack of clearly articulated instructional objectives in the medical EAP context, shortage of time, insufficient knowledge of EFL instructors in EAP, students' low language proficiency, inappropriate teaching strategies, shortage or lack of laboratory equipment, and so on. Not all of these problems can be solved by teachers only. They need serious consideration by educational authorities in the first place. Better planning and budgeting are certainly needed. Even teacher variables need to be dealt with more systematically by those involved in decision-making at higher levels of our educational system.

APPENDIX A. STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear participants:

The following questionnaire is intended for a research on perceptions of Iranian medical students of their EAP textbook (Medical Terminology). Please read the questions carefully and express your idea by selecting one of the options. The anonymity of the respondents is guaranteed.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Part A: Personal Profile

1. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐
2. Age ……..
3. Field of study ……..
4. Place of education ……..

Part B. Please tick the box that represents your perceptions regarding the *Medical Terminology* textbook.

Items	excellent	good	moderate	weak	very weak
1. To what extent is the book available?					
2. To what extent can the accompanying materials be obtained in a timely manner?					
3. To what extent do the objectives of the textbook match the objectives of the course?					
4. To what extent is the text book appropriate for the audience?					
5. To what extent does the textbook teach basic grammatical patterns?					
6. To what extent does the presence of vocabularies move gradually from simple to more complexes?					
7. To what extent is the repetition of words appropriate for improving more vocabulary learning?					
8. To what extent is the presence of new vocabularies appropriate in each unit?					
9. To what extent does the textbook teach pronunciation?					
10. To what extent has the etymology of words been emphasized in this book?					
11. To what extent has the etymology of words improved your vocabulary learning area?					
12. To what extent does the textbook teach vocabulary learning strategies?					
13. To what extent does the subject matter interest you?					
14. To what extent has the ordering of material by topics been arranged in a logical fashion?					
15. To what extent has the content been provided according to your needs?					
16. To what extent has the content provided based on your background knowledge?					
17. To what extent are the materials related to your major?					
18. To what extent has the content been provided according to the proficiency level of the students?					
19. To what extent does the textbook help you in reading and comprehension skill?					
20. To what extent does the textbook teach speaking skill?					
21. Are the exercises and activities varied enough to challenge the students?					
22. To what extent does the layout and design of the textbook appear attractive?					
23. To what extent do the photographs and illustrations in the book motivate you to read about the subject?					

APPENDIX B. INSTRUCTORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear professor,

The following questionnaire is intended for a research on perceptions of medical English language instructors of their EAP textbook (Medical Terminology). Please read the questions and express your idea by selecting one of the options. Your comments can be helpful in providing useful insights regarding providing the EAP materials in the coming semesters. The anonymity of the respondents is guaranteed.

Thank you for your cooperation

Part A. PERSONAL PROFILE

1. Age ……..
2. Gender: male ☐ Female ☐
3. Teaching Experience for Academic Purposes (in years):
   First year ☐ 2- 5 years ☐ More than 5 years
4. Place of teaching: ……

Part B. Please tick the box that represents your perceptions regarding the *Medical Terminology* textbook.

Items	excellent	good	moderate	weak	very weak
1. To what extent is the book available?					
2. To what extent can the accompanying materials be obtained in a timely manner?					
3. To what extent do the objectives of the textbook match the objectives of the course?					
4. To what extent is the text book appropriate for the audience?					
5. To what extent does the textbook teach basic grammatical patterns?					
6. To what extent does the presence of vocabularies move gradually from simple to more complexes?					
7. To what extent is the repetition of words appropriate for improving more vocabulary learning?					
8. To what extent is the presence of new vocabularies appropriate in each unit?					
9. To what extent does the textbook teach pronunciation?					
10. To what extent has the etymology of words been emphasized in this book?					
11. To what extent has the etymology of words improved the students' vocabulary learning area?					
12. To what extent does the textbook teach vocabulary learning strategies?					
13. To what extent does the subject matter interest your students?					
14. To what extent has the ordering of material by topics been arranged in a logical fashion?					
15. To what extent has the content been provided according to your students' needs?					
16. To what extent has the content provided based on the students' background knowledge?					
17. To what extent are the materials related to the students' major?					
18. To what extent has the content been provided according to the proficiency level of the students?					
19. To what extent does the textbook help the students in reading and comprehension skill?					
20. To what extent does the textbook teach speaking skill?					
21. Are the exercises and activities varied enough to challenge the students?					
22. To what extent does the layout and design of the textbook appear attractive?					
23. To what extent do the photographs and illustrations in the book motivate the students to read about the subject?					

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 193-198, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.193-198

Design for the Intermediate-level Oral CSL Class in the Postmethod Era

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***Abstract*—The main purpose of the oral Chinese class is to improve students' Chinese speaking ability, which includes not only the speaking accuracy, fluency and complexity of Chinese language, but also the communicative ability in the Chinese social and cultural context. Second language teaching pedagogy has entered into a Postmethod era from the previous grammar-translation, audio-lingual, and communicative method etc. Under this background, this paper explores how to design the intermediate-level oral Chinese as a second language (CSL) class in the Postmethod era. Kumaravadivelu's (2003) Postmethod pedagogy, specifically the ten macrostrategies were adopted as the basis for the design of the intermediate-level oral CSL class. The exact tasks and activities such as quick share, speech-making, and cooperative activities are designed and scheduled in a detail for the students to improve their Chinese proficiency. The whole design should have some help and shed some lights on the oral CSL class teaching and learning in China.**

***Index Terms*—postmethod era, Chinese as a second language, oral Chinese, ten macrostrategies**

I. Introduction

What is the best method to teach a second or a foreign language? Wright (2010) reviewed the main second language teaching approaches and methods since the 19th century. The grammar-translation method, predominant from the 1840s to the 1940s focuses on the grammar. The audio-lingual method, which is influenced by the behaviorism emphasizes on the memorization of sentence structures. Communicative language teaching, which views language as a system for communication (Celce-Murcia, 2001), focuses on the actual use of the target language and the integration of language skills, which is still quite popular for the English as a foreign language teaching in China (Zheng, &Chen, 2007). However, it is admitted that no single method or approach is omnipotent in every language classroom. These days, the Postmethod theory acclaimed by Kumaravadivelu (2003) is becoming favored in teaching a second or foreign language. The question is: does Kumaravadivelu's Postmethod theory fit Chinese as a second language (CSL) classroom, to be specific, oral Chinese class? If so, how to design an oral Chinese class based on Kumaravadivelu's Postmethod theory?

Gottlieb (2006) claimed that oral language could be viewed as "a purposeful, communicative action with emphasis on the specific use (the language function) or performance" (p. 45). Therefore, the target of oral language teaching should be to improve students' communicative ability. This is a comprehensive ability, which should include the accuracy, fluency and the appropriateness (Liu, 2001). When students' Chinese proficiency reaches the intermediate level, according to Liu (2001), the oral class should have a higher requirement on students' speaking speed and the use of variety of words. Intermediate oral Chinese class should focus on the integration of textbooks and the real communicative ability, and the interaction between the teacher and students as well. How to realize the interaction between the teacher and students? How to improve students' communicative ability? How to make students speak a lot, in other words, produce more output in the oral Chinese classroom? This research tries to design a syllabus for the intermediate-level oral Chinese class based on Kumaravadivelu's (2003) Postmethod theory, in order to maximize the effectiveness and efficiency of the class to improve students' oral Chinese ability.

II. Postmethod Pedagogy

Brown (2002) discussed the meaning of the word "methods". He claimed that English language teaching now has entered into an era that many factors such as teaching contexts and purposes, vast number of students' needs, learning styles and affective traits should be considered. The prepackaged method could possibly not able to solve all these problems. This new era, based on Kumaravadivelu's (2003, 2006) explanation, is the postmethod era. Kumaravadivelu (2006) visualized postmethod pedagogy as a system of three parameters: particularity, practicality, and possibility. Particularity means "a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p.538). In other words, the use of method should be flexible to different teaching situations and different students' needs. Practicality means teachers' sense of plausibility (Prabhu, 1990, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006). It refers to "teacher's skill in monitoring his or her own teaching effectiveness" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 172). Possibility is about whether the teaching could be carried on successfully with regarding the social issues, language ideology and learners' identity.

With all these three parameters considered, Kumaravadivelu (2003, 2006) further presented ten macrostrategies as the guiding framework for the second or foreign language teaching. These ten macrostrategies are: Maximize learning

opportunities; facilitate negotiated interaction; minimize perceptual mismatches; activate intuitive heuristics; foster language awareness; contextualize linguistic input; integrate language skills; promote learner autonomy; ensure social relevance; and raise cultural consciousness.

Creating more and appropriate learning opportunities for students is very important in the student-centered teaching environment and in the oral Chinese class as well. Learning opportunities could happen inside the classroom, such as group work, teacher questioning, and games; it could also happen outside the classroom, such as social research, Chinese language corner etc. Chinese teachers should also enhance the learner-learner and learner-teacher interaction in class by assigning a topic to talk about, or a task such as making a traveling plan to let students do together. Language awareness can only be fostered and improved by the exposure to the target language and the use of it. Since all the foreign students are learning Chinese in China, it becomes easier for them to expose themselves to the Chinese environment by listening and speaking Chinese not only in the classroom but also in the society. Contextualizing students' linguistic input can be viewed as one way to cultivate students' language awareness. Role play or other in-class activities such as asking students to call the real travel agency could contextualize students' Chinese input and could also foster students' sense of different levels of language formality. Learner autonomy can be realized by the cooperation among students with tasks. During this process, students' creativity could be maximized as well as their Chinese proficiency. Social issues can be used in a perfect way as the topics in the oral Chinese class. Such popular issues among college students such as the balance between study and part-time job can be used for students to make the speech. Finally, in oral Chinese class, teachers can ask students share their own cultures, food, clothes, weather, cities etc. Usually students are very willing to introduce their own cultures. By doing this, students' Chinese listening and speaking ability are improved and their culture consciousness is raised too. In a word, almost all the ten macrostrategies can be used as guidance in oral CSL class. Based on these macrostrategies, a syllabus is designed for an intermediate-level oral CSL class.

III. Intermediate-level Oral CSL Class Design

As mentioned above, when students' Chinese proficiency have reached the intermediate level, teachers should have a higher requirement towards students' oral output: accuracy, fluency, grammatical and lexical complexity, the communicative ability etc. This study tries to design a tentative syllabus and possible activities for the intermediate oral Chinese class to improve the teaching and learning efficiency and effectiveness.

The textbook used for the class is named "Elementary Spoken Chinese Ⅱ" (汉语初级口语教程下册), written by Yang and Jia in 2007. Although students have reached the intermediate level, this book is still regarded as a good and suitable one for the oral class. Suppose there are two classes each week, 90 minutes in total and the whole semester includes 16 weeks. The goal for this class is to further improve students' oral Chinese internally (fluency, accuracy and complexity) and externally (social communicative ability in different social situation) through a series of tasks and activities.

Kumaravadivelu's postmethod pedagogy didn't mention the assessment, but in order to integrate the teaching and assessment and make the class more effective, an assessment framework was made for students.

TABLE I.
ASSESSING METHOD TOWARDS STUDENTS

Attendance	Independent tasks		Cooperative tasks		Final exam	Improvement	Total
10%	Quick share	5%	Travel plan	10%	40%	5%	100%
	Speech	10%	Social research	20%			

This assessment includes both formative evaluation such as tasks and summative final exam to guarantee the objectivity and reliability of students' final scores.

Two kinds of tasks were designed for students to finish, independent tasks (quick share and speech making) and cooperative tasks (travel plan and social research). Jacobs and Hall (2002) claimed that in second and foreign language learning, based on several theorists' opinions (Liang, Mohan, & Early, 1998; Olsen & Kagan, 1992), cooperative learning has several advantages: "increased student talk, more varied talk, a more relaxed atmosphere, greater motivation, more negotiation of meaning, and increased amounts of comprehensible input" (p.53). Therefore, students are assigned to finish some tasks both independently and cooperatively could be beneficial for their Chinese improvement.

A. Quick Share

Quick share is a good way for students to share their thoughts and experiences while practicing their Chinese. There is no limitation for the sharing topics. Students could share anything they want, such as their families, their pets, their dreams, their photos, etc. No difficult words are needed. If the words are too difficult, photos or PPT could be used as the assistance. There must be questions for the listeners when they do the quick share. And time is limited within three minutes. Rubric is definitely used for the assessment.

TABLE II.
RURRIC FOR THE QUICK SHARE

Whether well prepared	Pronunciation, fluency and clarity	Whether it is interesting, and interactive	Whether within 3 minutes or not	Total score
1 point	2 points	1 point	1 point	

After students finish the quick share, the teacher should give the feedback immediately, with both students' advantages and disadvantages. Quick share is a good activity used in the oral Chinese class. Kumaravadivelu's several macrostrategies are used: learning opportunities are created; interaction between students and teacher are enhanced; learners' autonomy is also promoted.

B. Speech-making

All students are supposed to make a speech based on the given topics. The reason why the topics are given is to control the width of words and content. Students' Chinese are not good enough to handle any topic. It could happen that the content might be too difficult to understand if the student is not familiar with that topic. The other reason is that the same topic could increase the repetition of some new words and new expressions, which makes it easier for students to memorize consciously and subconsciously. Topics should be related to the textbooks for not only speaking class but also reading or writing class. Here are some tentative topics for students to choose. The genre could be either narrative or argumentative.

TABLE III.
SEVERAL TOPICS FOR SPEECH MAKING

1.	My dream.
2.	The person I like.
3.	I think inner beauty is more important than appearance.
4.	I think appearance is more important than the inner beauty.
5.	Why do I learn Chinese?
6.	The Chinese culture I know.
7.	If I have 1 million RMB, I will_____.
8.	If I only have three days to live, I will_____.
9.	Welcome to my country.
….	

There are some requirements for students. Students need to choose the topic and finish writing it for the speech presentation at least one week ago. Then the teacher could have some time to check and give some revising ideas to students in order to make sure the speech is grammatically and lexically correct. The maximal time for the speech is three minutes and the whole speech manuscript is about 300 words. It is a speech presentation, so the students are not advised to read the manuscript or just memorize it mechanically.

TABLE IV.
RUBRIC FOR SPEECH PRESENTATION

Whether well prepared	Pronunciation, fluency and clarity	Whether the content is interesting and logical	Interaction	Whether within 3 minutes or not	Total score
2 points	3 points	3 points	1 point	1 point	

Teachers need to give the oral and written feedback immediately after students' presentation, just like what they do for the quick share in order to motivate the students. If necessary, the teacher can videotape each student's performance and show it to the students again at the end of the semester as a part of the digital portfolio. In addition, not like the quick share, which can be performed every class, speech presentation can be conducted in a fixed period of time, for instance, 3-5 students in each class time, thus students can compare and compete with each other in some sense.

C. Travel Plan

This is an interesting cooperative activity. Besides practicing students' oral Chinese, students can design the real travel plan and if possible, go for the real trip. Firstly, students need to form into several groups, with 3-4 members in each group. They can choose and negotiate by themselves to form their own group. However, for the class group discussion, the teacher can assign them into different group instead of letting students to form their own group. This grouping method is called Numbered Heads Together (Jacobs and Hall, 2002; Wright, 2010). Secondly, the teacher needs to explain in detail the design requirements for this travel plan. Each group needs to choose a city in China and make the adequate travel plan: When are you going to leave? How do you go to that city? If you take the train, what is the train number? How will you go to the train station? What is the ticket price? How will you purchase the ticket? How long does it take to arrive at your destination? Where will you stay in that city? What places of interest are you going to visit? What kind of belongings are you going to take? Questions like these need to be considered very carefully. In order to answer these questions, students must go to some Chinese websites, or ask their Chinese friends and discuss

together. During the whole process, their Chinese language ability, and question-solving ability can be improved for sure.

After discussion and preparation for about one week, students are supposed to do the presentation in class, to show their plan to the whole class with the help of PPT or some other supplementary materials. The teacher and other classmates need to give suggestions to improve their travel plan. The whole presentation is supposed to finish within 20 minutes.

TABLE V.
RUBRIC FOR THE TRAVLE PLAN

Preparation	Fluency, pronunciation, accuracy, grammar	Mastery of content, reasonable travel plan	Interaction, cooperation	Timing	Total score
2 points	2 points	3 points	2 points	1 point	

D. Social Research

The purpose of this activity is to help the foreign students to adjust to the local life, and improve their Chinese communicative strategy and ability. There is no specific research topic for them, so each group needs to design their research and interview by themselves. The teacher needs to explain clearly what students need to do.

1) Firstly, each group needs to choose a topic as their social research title, such as Chinese lunar year, spare time of Chinese college students, etc. The selection of the topic is totally up to the students.

2) After setting down the topic, students need to decide the interviewees. At least two or three interviewees are needed with different ages, different genders and different careers. At least ten questions are needed for the interview.

3) A video camera is needed to make the record and for the after-interview presentation as well.

4) After all the above-mentioned prepared well, each group needs to talk with the teacher to further improve their research.

5) After the research and interview, each group needs to write down their research report and do the in-class presentation within 30 minutes with PPT and necessary videos and materials.

6) The teacher definitely needs to give the feedback and their score based on the rubric.

TABLE VI.
RUBRIC FOR THE SOCIAL RESEARCH

Preparation	Mastery of content, significance of the research	Fluency, pronunciation, accuracy, grammar	Interaction, cooperation	Timing	Total score
2 points	6 points	3 points	3 points	1 point	

E. Some Other In-class Activities

Besides all the above-mentioned tasks, some other in-class activities can also be used to maximize students' learning opportunities and make the whole class more effective.

1. Self-introduction

It is a routine that in the first class students need to introduce themselves to each other. Here is an activity which can make the introduction interesting and effective. Firstly, the teacher needs to write down on the blackboard what students need to do when introducing themselves to each other, such as their name, nationality, major, family, hobby and the reason coming to China etc. Then students form two circles: inside is a small circle while outside is a bigger one. Both students inside and in the bigger circle need to face each other and begin to talk, introducing themselves. After 30 seconds, students need to move and face a new classmate and talk again. In this way, each student has the chance to talk with at least half of their classmates. Each of them gets the chance to practice their Chinese and further know their classmates. After about 10 minutes, students are asked to sit back to their seats and the teacher gives each of them a blank paper. Students are asked to fold the paper and make it as a cone with their Chinese name written on one side. Then a name card is made and students are supposed to put their name card on their desk, so each of their classmates can see it. In order to realize this, it is better to put students sit in a "U" shape. Putting desks in a "U" shape is also convenient for in-class discussion. The significance of this activity is that interaction between students is enhanced; students can get familiar with each other; their oral Chinese are practiced a lot too.

2. Dice Game

In order to review the learned words or expressions, the teacher can lead students play this game. A dice is needed and the teacher needs to prepare plenty of questions with different numbers (1-6) as the question number. Then the teacher can ask students to play the dice and decide the question they have to answer. Groups of students can also compete with each other. The teacher may also need to prepare some small gifts to encourage the winner group. This is an interesting game to activate the students' participation and activeness.

3. Creative Speaking Activity

For this activity, the teacher can show several slides of pictures consecutively with very simple object in each slide, such as a balloon, a bicycle, or just a bird. Students then need to talk with their group member for several minutes, connect these pictures and think out a story quickly. Then groups can share their stories with each other. This activity is a little difficult and challenging, but students can do it well with their imagination and cooperation.

4. Several Other games

In Wright's (2010) book, he mentioned several activities for ELL (English for Language Learners) class, which is evidently also available for the CSL class. Activities such as role play, songs and chants, and think-pair-share are all very meaningful and effective if used correctly in Chinese language class.

IV. Discussions and Conclusion

Now if we look at back again the three parameters mentioned by Kumaravadivelu: particularity, practicality and possibility, we can find that this design of the intermediate oral CSL class could realize these three parameters well. Oral CSL class has its own particular goals for students to reach. Students need to improve their Chinese speaking proficiency through the oral class. All the activities designed must have the possibility for students to finish. In other words, it must be practical. All the tasks and activities should meet the ten macrostrategies Kumaravadivelu mentioned. The fact is that the quick share, the speech-making, the design of travel plan, the social research and all the other in-class activities can maximize the learners' learning opportunities, can facilitate negotiated interaction, can activate learners' intuitive heuristics, foster their language awareness and can promote learners' autonomy and put them in the social and cultural environment.

Wright (2010) emphasizes the importance of interaction in language class. He claimed that students' interaction with the teacher, their fellow classmates, and proficient language speakers within the sociocultural contexts is crucial for second language acquisition. Meanwhile, many researchers explained the strengths of task-based language teaching (e.g. Nunan, 1989; Beglar and Hunt, 2002). Ellis (2003) defined tasks as "activities that call for primarily meaning-focused language use" (p.3). Beglar and Hunt (2002) claimed that task-based teaching makes language use occurs in a natural and communicative context. As mentioned above, cooperative learning is also very beneficial for second and foreign language learning (Jacobs and Hall, 2002). In a word, it is very clear that different researchers focus on the different aspects of second and foreign language teaching. However, not matter it is about cooperative learning, class interaction or task-based teaching, all of the research essentially reaches a consensus with Kumaravadivelu's postmethod theory, i.e. Students' need should be put in the first place; Teachers should scaffold students to participate in the class and to maximize students' learning autonomy.

All the designs in this research are based on Kumaravadivelu's postmethod theory. However, in the implementation of these tasks and activities, there must be some expected or unexpected problems arising. Therefore, in the Postmethod era, carrying on these activities flexibly and paying more attention to the students' reactions and needs are the best ways to maximize the effectiveness and efficiency of the oral CSL class.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 199-204, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.199-204

Identity and Language Learning from Post-structuralist Perspective

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***Abstract*—In this review of literature, some of the definitions of identity, factors contributing to its development, and its relationship with language learning are examined. The process of trying to determine the term 'identity' is complex. Many people have attempted to define the term *identity*. There is a lack of consensus among researchers on what 'identity' means, although there are many similarities among researches across different disciplines. Researchers define identity in different ways with common relationship. This review paper outlines the studies conducted by researchers in recent years in order to examine identity from the poststructuralist perspective. Finally, two recent paradigms on identity as well as different types of bilingualism are discussed in detail.**

***Index Terms*—identity, the monocultural cognitive paradigm, the constructivism paradigm, bilingualism, subtractive identity change, additive identity change, productive identity change, hybrid identity change**

I. What Is Identity?

Prior to discussing the relationship between language and identity, it is necessary to understand the meaning of the term 'identity' from the viewpoint of different researchers and scholars along with factors contributing to its construction. The meaning of the term identity has evolved from seeing it as a stable core self (Hall, 1996) to dynamic, contradictory, and multiple dimensions of a person (see Block, 2006, 2007a; Pavlenko, 2002). There is a lot of definitional confusion in the literature, with some authors offering multiple definitions for single terms, and other authors conflating two or more terms and using them (Menard-Warwick, 2005).

According to Ha (2008) the West and the East conceive the notion of identity differently. While Western scholars' perception of identity is considered "hybrid and multiple" (p. 64), Eastern scholars regard it as a sense of belonging. Eakin (1999) uses the term *identity* together with subject, self, and person, and defines it as "terms that seem inevitably to spin in elliptical orbits around any attempt to conceptualize human beings" (p.9).

Wu (2011) argues that identity is the way we view ourselves and are viewed by others and it is inextricably tied to the social contexts out of which it arises. It is, furthermore, constructed through a mixture of social practices in which individuals are involved in their daily lives. Identity, as Ige (2010) puts it, is unarguably a reflection of the various ways in which people understand themselves in relation to others. Identity is sometimes considered as synonymous with ideology. However, identity is not merely ideology; rather ideology leads to identity (McAdams, 1985).

According to Norton (2000) identity refers to "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (p. 5). Danielewics (2001) notes that identity refers to "our understanding of who we are and who we think other people are" (p. 10). Haneda (2005), on the other hand, considers the following as elements of identity: "(a) membership in a community in which people define who they are by the familiar and the unfamiliar, (b) a learning trajectory in which they define themselves by past experiences and envisioned futures, (c) a nexus of multimembership in which people reconcile their various forms of membership into one coherent sense of self, and (d) a relation between local and glob" (p. 273).

II. Identity as Both a Differentiator and Assimilator

Identity includes both the contradictory attempts to "differentiate and integrate a sense of self along different social and personal dimensions such as gender, age, race, occupation, gangs, socio-economic status, ethnicity, class, nation states, or regional territory" (Bamberg, 2010, p. 1). In other words, when we define a certain identity for ourselves, we are in some way assimilating ourselves to a particular group or class, and at the same time, we are differentiating ourselves from others who do not belong to that group or class, although the differentiating role played by identity far outweighs its integrating one. That is why Woodword (2002) claims that identity is essentially about differentiation. There are, yet, other scholars such as Joseph (2004), who argue that the process of identity construction can be like a

sword with two edges which can both work partially against individuals and connect them together. Therefore, it has both a unifying and divisive force.

In summary, identity has three main features: "(a) sameness of a sense of self over time in the face of constant change; (b) uniqueness of the individual vis-à-vis others faced with being the same as everyone else; and (c) the construction of agency as constituted by self (with a self-to-world direction of fit) and world (with a world-to-self direction of fit)" (Bamberg, 2010, p.1).

III. Identity from the Poststructuralist Perspective: Multiple and Shifting

Identity has been viewed from different perspectives since the emergence of the issue in the field of applied linguistics. Traditionally it was believed to be a fixed or unitary phenomenon. Yet, recently it has been addressed and explored from a poststructuralist point of view. In a globalized, poststructuralist, postmodern world, identity is considered to be fluid, multiple, diverse, dynamic, varied, shifting, subject to change and contradictory. It is regarded to be socially organized, reorganized, constructed, co-constructed, and continually reconstructed through language and discourse. It is unstable, flexible, ongoing, negotiated, and multiple. It is indeed a collection of roles or subject positions and a mixture of individual agency and social influences (Zacharias, 2010; Omoniyi & White, 2008).

Rather than being unique, fixed and coherent, identity is considered as "a process" by social theorists (Block, 2007b). Thus, some authors (e.g., Hall, 1995), prefer to use *identification* in an attempt to imply this procession sense. For Harré (1987), identity was about the constant and ongoing engagement of individuals in interactions with others (Block, 2007). Identity, while being linguistically constructed, is thought to be 'fluid' (Pablé, Haas, & Christe, 2010).

According to the poststructuralist perspective, identity is considered as being unstated, contextually driven, and emerging within interactions of a given discourse (Miyaharay, 2010). To put it another way, not only a category or a personal characteristic, identity is actually a kind of "becoming", it is social, a learning process, a nexus, and a local–global interplay (Wenger, 1998, p. 163).

Tajfel and Turner's (1979) social identity theory states that a person does not possess only one 'self', but rather several 'selves' each activated in a certain situation. In much a similar way, other researchers such as Luk and Lin (2007) believe that a person has a variety of identities within him or her, stressing on the fact that his or her identities are not predetermined, fixed and static but are "sometimes incoherent, fragmented, multiple, and conflicting" (p. 50). That is why many researchers prefer to use the term 'identities' instead of using the singular form.

Several studies (Lam, 2000; Norton, 2000; Armour, 2004; to name a few) have demonstrated the multidimensional and non-unitary essence of language learner identities. Norton (2000) made an attempt to show how one of her participants, "Martina", has several identities including a mother, a wife, an immigrant, a language learner, and a worker. Martina never felt comfortable speaking English with her identity as an immigrant and a second language learner. Nonetheless, as a mother, she had to be involved in interacting and talking with her landlord who accused her of breaking a lease agreement.

Identity concerns "negotiated experience," which means people experience different identities through their social participation and then make a choice among the identities within them (Wenger, 1998, p. 149). Researchers such as Pierce (1995), McKay and Wong (1996), and Armour (2004) note that negotiating multiple identities is a site of struggle. For example, one of the participants in McKay and Wong's (1996) study was "Michael Lee" who endeavored to refuse to give in to the way he was situated as an ESL student. Michael Lee refused to write about the suggested topic of family or school, when he was asked to in a language examination. As an alternative, he chose to write about his hobbies as he felt much more comfortable with this aspect of his identity. The conclusion McKay and Wong (1996) reached was the fact that any person or any language learner experiences social negotiations within him or her in order to finally form identities he or she prefers (Zacharias, 2010).

In addition to being multiple and continually negotiating, identity especially national identity, as Puri (2004) and Smith (2003, 2004) note, is no longer regarded as a fixed concept attached to one's native land; rather, it is a continuing process, re-created daily through holding ceremonies for important and influential historical events for instance (Block, 2007). Therefore the notion of race as a way of classifying and attributing identity to people can also be questioned (Ali, 2004).

IV. Identity with Both a Given and a Socially Constructed Aspect

McKenna (2004) maintains that identities consist of elements which might be given, such as one's social class, or physiologically inherited characteristics, in addition to elements of choice or agency. However, according to Miyaharay (2010), identity is not regarded by poststructuralists as a 'given or innate' feature; rather, individuals themselves must now construct who they are and they themselves should make a choice on how they want to be recognized in a certain context. Identity is regarded as a phenomenon that comes out of a mixture of what is said and done.

Identity claims are regarded as "acts" through which people construct new definitions of who they are. Such a notion is in contrast with the traditional sociolinguistic approaches that connect already determined social categories with language variables. As a substitute, identity claims now considers "the very fact of selecting from a variety of possibilities a particular variant (on a given occasion) as a way of actively symbolizing one's affiliations" (Auer 2002, p.

4 cited in De Fina, Schiffrin, & Bamber, 2006). Thus, identities are not counted to be as simply symbolized in discourse, but rather as performed, carried out and manifested through a variety of linguistic and non-linguistic means (De Fina, Schiffrin, & Bamber, 2006).

By reviewing studies on three perspectives, Varghese et al (2005) looked at how language teacher identity is connected to a theory, considering "identity as multiple, shifting, and in conflict; identity as crucially related to social, cultural, and political contexts; and identity being constructed, maintained, and negotiated primarily through discourse" (pp. 21-44).

Pennycook (2003) even steps further by stating, "it is not that people use language varieties because of who they are, but rather that we perform who we are by (among other things) using varieties of language" (p. 528). In the process of identity construction here seems to be a tension between the impacts of the individual's own agency and the societal structure (Dewi, 2007). Cauldron and Smith (1999 in Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 113) tried to elucidate the tension by providing definitions for the both concepts. He explains that the term agency denotes the 'personal dimension', whereas the term structure covers what is 'socially given' (Cauldron & Smith, 1999, in Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 113). Cheek, Smith and Tropp (2002) assert that identity has four aspects: personal, social, collective and relational.

V. Two Paradigms on Identity

There are now two paradigms on identity which are discussed below:

The first paradigm is called monocultural, cognitive view, according to which the individual is considered as an independent, free and self-reliant person. The second paradigm is known as the constructivism which suggests that the society plays an important role in the construction of the identity of the individuals, while human identity is counted to be partly cognitive or individualistic and partly social (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Brown, 2007).

The constructivism paradigm has two theories: social identity theory which claims that identity is bipolar: social and personal (Tajfel, 1998), and cross-cultural theory according to which identity represents two ideas: independent-self and interdependent-self. (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

Identity, as Berger & Luckmann (1966) put it, needs to be considered in terms of social relations and, according to Blackledge & Pavlenko (2002) as dynamic, fluid, and versatile.

VI. Different Types of Bilingualism

Much earlier, Lambert (1975) proposed two different types of bilingualism:

1. "subtractive"
2. and "additive."

Subtractive bilingualism refers to a situation where L2/FL is acquired to the detriment of L1, and target culture (C2) assimilation threatens to replace with values and life styles of the native culture (C1). Therefore, the native language and native cultural identity are substituted by the target language and target cultural identity.

With additive bilingualism, L1 and C1 identity are maintained while L2 and C2 identity are acquired. The two co-exist and function in different communicative situations. The learner's native language and native cultural identity are preserved while the target language and target cultural identity are acquired in addition. Therefore, the second identity is added to the first one to co-exist with one another.

Drawing on the Gao's (2010) work, Pishghadam and Sadeghi Ordoubody (2011) discuss other revisited models as follows: In the first model, "Subtractive Identity Change" (Pishghadam and Sadeghi Ordoubody, 2011, p. 150), the old identity is substituted by the new one, in the second, "Additive Identity Change" (Pishghadam and Sadeghi Ordoubody, 2011, p. 150), the new identity is added to the previous one, in the third type, "Revisited Model: Productive Identity Change" (Pishghadam and Sadeghi Ordoubody, 2011, p. 151), the two identities coexist and reinforce each other, and finally in the last model, "Hybrid Identity Change" (Pishghadam and Sadeghi Ordoubody, 2011, p. 151), different dimensions of the two identities amalgamate to form a wholly new and distinct identity which is different from both.

Gao (2010) has concluded that it is wrong to call one group as subtractive bilinguals or another group as productive bilinguals, because subtractive, additive, productive, and hybrid are not personality characteristics and individuals are not everlastingly one type of bilinguals. Consequently, bilingual/multilingual identity investigation is a dynamic process and L2/FL users may modify their directions in different moments or experiences, while experiencing subtractive or productive moments or events.

VII. Conclusion

Throughout the history, identity has been defined differently, although with common relationship. Among the various definitions, in spite of the confusion, there seems to be an evolutionary process. In general terms, identity can be defined as the way we understand and view ourselves in relation to the world, other people, time and space.

Identity has two contradictory features; on one hand, it can unite and assimilate individuals, making them similar to other members; on the other hand, it can divide and differentiate people, making them unique and different.

Identity has both a social and personal dimensions. As a personal dimension, on the one hand, humans are considered as agents; and agents are able to think, decide and choose. To put it other way, agency is a self-conscious process which

is required while our contradictory multiple selves are negotiating simultaneously to make a choice on which self to be activated depending on the context, place and time, in order to arrange, control and smooth the progress of realization of our interests. On the other hand, subjectivity constitutes an integral part of identity, which refers to our conscious and unconscious thoughts and emotions. As the social dimension, identity reflects an individual's relationship with the external environment, which is reconstructed through interaction with society. By this, we mean that membership in a community constitutes the social—and actually the shifting—aspect of identity. Defining categories such as age, sex, religion, profession, region for inclusion or exclusion of self and others is indispensable for the public aspect of identity construction. The categories are called identity markers.

Therefore, identity has elements which are both A) given, innate and predetermined, such as social class or physiologically inherited characteristics; and B) constructed by desire.

Traditionally, identity was considered to be fixed, stable and unitary. However, from a Poststructuralist perspective, identity is:

1. Contextually situated in a past-present-future time frame
2. Fluid, dynamic, shifting and variant;
3. Multiple, multi-dimensional, diverse and accordingly negotiated due to having contradictory and conflicting selves, among which we make a choice.

Although multiple, identity has a core psychological self that supervises the negotiation of different selves. In other words, aspects of our identity are interrelated, and there is a coherence of one sense of self over time in spite of constant change.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 205-214, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.205-214

Syntactic Variants of Caused-motion Event

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***Abstract*—Goldberg (1995) invents several extended senses from caused motion for English caused-motion construction. However, these senses are more related to the senses of verb classes. The extended senses defined in this way would yield more and more diversity, as different classes of verbs are creatively used in the construction. The thesis, basing on the corpus data, aims to devise extended senses from elaboration on the spatial relation between theme and location. The different senses are expressed by syntactic variants, which share the core sense of caused motion while varying in different spatial relation of theme and location. The difference is reflected in syntax by means of different types of prepositions. The senses defined in this way are helpful to probe into the relation between semantics of verbs and their syntactic behavior.**

***Index Terms*—caused-motion event, syntactic variants**

I. Introduction

Goldberg (1995, 76) argues caused-motion construction as a combination of syntactic form *NP V NP PP* and semantics "*X Cause Y to Move Z*". This form may correspond to several other senses, being extended ones of the central sense above. The senses (1i)-(1vi) are exemplified by sentences (1a-1f) respectively.

(1) a. Frank sneezed the tissue off the table.
b. Mary urged Bill into the house.
c. Sue let the water out of the bathtub.
d. Harry locked Joe into the bathroom
e. Sam helped him into the car.
f. Sam accompanied Bob into the room.

i. X CAUSES Y to MOVE Z
ii. The conditions of satisfaction associated with the action denoted by the predicate entail: X causes Y to move Z
iii. X ENABLES Y to MOVE Z
iv. X PREVENTS Y from MOVING Z
v. X HELPS Y to MOVE Z
vi. A Further Extension (Agent and theme move along a specified path.)

Though Goldberg (1995) thinks that the central sense and the extended senses combine into a category of related senses that are associated with caused-motion construction, it is not difficult to find that these senses are closely related to certain types of verbs. Except that the central sense is defined with semantic factors such as "manipulative causation and actual movement" (Goldberg, 1995, p. 162), the extended senses are described as related to different classes of verbs. For example, sense (1ii) pertains to force-dynamic verbs that encode a communicative action (e.g. *order/ask/invite/beckon/urge/send*). They can appear in caused-motion construction only when the conditions associated with actions they denote are satisfied. Sense (1iii) derives from instances with force-dynamic verbs encoding removal of a barrier (e.g. *allow/let/free/release*). Sense (1iv) refers to, on the contrary to sense (1iii), the imposition of a barrier and relates to verbs like *lock/keep/barricade*. Sense (1v) involves ongoing assistance to move in a certain direction with the use of verbs like *help/assist/guide/show/walk*. A further extension pertains to a subclass of verbs whose agent is not the cause, enablement or prevention of motion and whose agent argument and theme argument move along a specified path. Verbs such as *accompany/follow/trail/tail* fall into this class. Although Goldberg (1995) does not relate the central sense to any class of verbs, we may infer from her examples with *push/kick/sneeze/shove* that they are force-dynamic verbs denoting the exertion of physical force.

Caused-motion construction is thus polysemous, involving systematically related senses for each class of verbs. That is to say, each extended sense is not only closely related to the central sense but also pertains to certain types of verbs or verbs with certain semantic features. English is a satellite-framed language (Talmy, 2000), so that verbs encode manner while prepositions indicate path. Causation subevent in caused-motion event is normally expressed by verbs denoting different manners of causation. It might be an instantaneous force or a continuous causation. The different senses posited by Goldberg (1995) are just profiles on different manners of the Antagonist opposing the Agonist with respect to force.

However, given different classes of verbs, like verbs of change of state, verbs of contact by impact, motion verbs, etc., occur in caused-motion construction, the manner of causation is not the key factor to caused-motion event; what is more important is that the causer's behaviour is construed as the cause of motion by conceptualizer. Besides force exertion, instrument, manner of motion, and even change of state can be construed as the cause. It is no wonder that other

constructionists (Kay, 1996, 2002, 2005; Boas, 2003, 2008; Iwata, 2005, 2008) would put more words in verbal constructions.

In comparison, different senses arising from profile on Motion subevent are more rewarding to gain a deeper insight into caused-motion event. The Motion subevent is expressed by prepositional phrases which denote the path of motion. Compared to the numerous verbs that can occur in caused-motion construction, the prepositions are limited. Moreover, prepositions indicate more than path or location; they can express different spatial relations between figure and ground. Even if only path is expressed, the profile on certain part of the path is also diverse. The conceptualizer may only pay attention to source location where the entity is moved away while gapping where it would move. Similarly, the final location can be windowed when the conceptualizer does not care about the previous location or the middle points of the motion.

Basing on corpus data of prototypical caused-motion verbs collected from WebCorp (http://www.webcorp.org.uk/live/) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (CCAE, http://corpus.byu.edu/coca/), the thesis explores six syntactic variants of caused-motion event. They all express caused motion, though different as a result of elaborating the path role in the event. That is, the syntactic variant may indicate different portions on the path of motion; or it expresses an intended goal. The goal can be a person or a location; the theme can be in contact with the goal or not. The variation is reflected by the use of different prepositional types. The position of syntactic variants provides more insight into the fusion of verbs into caused-motion construction, because the variants have connection to certain classes of verbs. The further division of caused-motion construction into six syntactic variants would shed some new light on the research into semantic-syntactic interface.

II. Caused-motion Event

Caused-motion event expresses a force-dynamic relation between participants, namely, one participant exerts force on another participant and causes it to change its location. Force dynamics demonstrates how entities interact with respect to force (Talmy, 2000). The focal force entity is the Agonist and the force element that opposes it is the Antagonist. The use of different verbs indicates the cognitive processing of force dynamics. *Bang*, for example, foregrounds the manner of the Antagonist opposing the Agonist with respect to force, while *roll* foregrounds the manner of the Agonist's tendency toward action. In comparison, *empty* shows the resultant state of the force-dynamic relation and *funnel* foregrounds the instrument used to fulfill the force dynamics.

(2) a. a stick that's used to bang the ball into the hole!

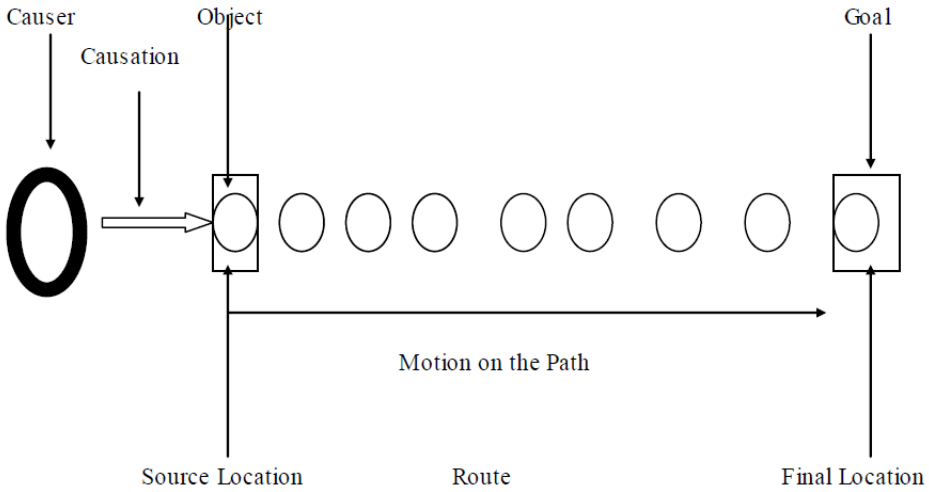
b. Joseph might easily have been able to roll the stone against the entrance by himself

c. Collect a spoonful of colored cold water. Gently empty the spoon on the surface of the uncolored hot water by placing

d. funnel the acids against the lingual surfaces (All are taken from WebCorp.)

The event consists of two subevents: one denotes the manner of causing the motion and the other indicates the motion. A Causer initiates the motion of an Object by means of certain behavior and then the latter moves from Source Location to Final Location (Goal), as seen in Table 1. On the Path, Object in Motion traverses many middle points (Route). Profile on Causation subevent and Motion subevent is supposed to yield more extended senses.

TABLE 1
CAUSED-MOTION EVENT



In the process of construal of certain event into a caused-motion one, certain participants can be further elaborated to specify more detailed information, which results in subtle variation in semantics. The difference would also be realized in syntax. The following sentences, despite their prototypical caused-motion sense, elaborate the spatial relation between figure and ground in different views.

(3) a. I know that if I throw the ball out of the window, it will not break if …
b. throw coins in the massively theatrical Trevi fountain in the hope of romance
c. If you throw enough staff at the fan, some of it will hit the target.
d. throw my bouquet to one of you at the meeting
e. I threw the ball against the wall.
f. … throw the puncher off balance. (All are from CCAE.)

(3a) expresses the change of position of the *ball* because of the throwing action. This is a prototypical caused-motion instance, with a causer initiating the motion of the theme. The *ball* moves out of the *window* to somewhere else. (3b), compared to (3a), windows the final position of the entity in motion.

The prepositions used in (3c), (3d) and (3e) express more than a portion on the path of motion. (3c) with an *at*-phrase has a conative interpretation. Agent tries to throw something at the *fan* and wishes some of it may hit the target. But we cannot infer from (3c) whether agent can manage it. Anyway, the *throw* action has evoked the motion of the *staff*. In contrast to (3a), the action in (3c) involves an intended target. In (3d), *to* indicates the direction of motion. In particular, the goal is a person who is supposed to get the entity in motion. *Against* in (3e) also expresses a special implication. That is, the throwing action not only evokes the motion of the theme to a certain goal, but also causes it to bump onto the goal.

(3f), however, indicates the change of state as well as the change of location. The construal of the spatial relation between figure and ground is different from that in the sentences from (3a) to (3e). Because of the throwing action, the *puncher* undergoes a change of position, which finally leads to his losing balance. The ground to which the *puncher* is described in reference is not mentioned syntactically. It might be the floor or something else.

Croft (2009) argues that the spatial relation between figure and ground in caused-motion event is not causal, although the agent causes the change of position. Figure is just conceptualized or construed as antecedent to ground in the "causal" chain. That is, the relation between figure and ground is what we construe. The sentences in (3) show different construal of figure and ground. The speakers of (3a) and (3b) window certain portion of the path of motion, the former windowing the source while the latter windowing the final position. The speakers of the sentences from (3c) to (3f) seem to profile differently on the goal. (3c) reflects the intention of agent to move something to target, (3d) aims at a person target who ought to get the theme, and (3e) profiles the contact between the theme and the goal. (3f) involves change of state arising from change of location. Path is replaced by the description of the final state.

All the sentences involve the throwing action, but the conceptualizers or the speakers pay attention to different aspects of the action and construe it in different ways, which in turn influences the realization in terms of different prepositional phrases. However, the sentences have the same conceptual contents: the throwing action and the prototypical sense of caused motion. They are the syntactic variants of caused-motion event.

III. Syntactic Variants

Cheng and Mei (2008) also make an exploration into variants of caused-motion event. Conative variant (4b) and *with*-variant (4c), similar to location variant (4a), designate the motion of an entity as a result of the agent's action.

(4) a. Tim sprayed the paint onto the wall.
b. Tim sprayed the paint at the wall.
c. Tim sprayed the wall with paint.

(4c) is a causative construction plus a *with*-phrase. The direct object refers to the entity affected by the material which moves onto it. Different from (4a) and (4b), which profiles the path of caused motion, (4c) profiles the effect of the moved material on its final location. That is, all the surface of the *wall* ought to be sprayed with *paint*.

The previous research is based on the corpus data of 25 prototypical caused-motion verbs. The present research would like to include the data of all the caused-motion verbs listed in Levin (1993) and devise six syntactic variants of caused-motion event. The following sections describe the variants in details.

A. Location Variant

(3a) is the location variant of caused-motion event (Cheng & Mei, 2008; Cheng, 2010). This variant, paired with the caused-motion sense, is equal to caused-motion construction in Goldberg's constructional grammar and is the prototypical caused-motion variant. The conceptual structure of location variant is described in Table 2.

TABLE 2
CONCEPTUAL STRUCTURE OF LOCATION VARIANT

Causer + Cause + [Object + Location]

A causer who initiates the motion and an object which moves are necessary in the conceptual structure of caused-motion event. The conceptualizer of (3a) windows the source of the path.

An open path, according to Talmy (2000), refers to a path described by an object physically in motion in the course of a period of time. Since it is conceptualized as an entire unity, it has a beginning and an end at different locations in space. In the conceptualization, a certain portion of the path may be profiled or windowed while the other parts are gapped. Different windowing patterns of path would result in the profile of different portions of the path. Cheng (2006)

refines source and goal on the path in terms of location and direction. The prepositions in the following examples express elaboration on the source and the goal.

(5) a. They ran away from behind the building.
b. He walked towards the park.
c. He walked into the park.
d. The money fell on the ground.

In (5a), *from* designates the source location, *away* indicates the direction of motion from the source location and *behind* refers to the location. In (5b), *towards* expresses the direction of motion to a goal; *on* in (5d) refers to the final location of motion while *into* in (5c) refers to the goal of motion.

Considering the profile on different portions of the path, we would like to describe location variant with the following conceptual structure. Source includes source location and direction of moving away from source location. Route involves the middle points on the path. Direction to goal, goal and final location represent the locative relation between the theme and the goal.

TABLE 3
ELABORATED CONCEPTUAL STRUCTURE OF LOCATION VARIANT

Causer + Cause + [Object + Source/Route/Direction to Goal/Goal/Final Location]

These concepts are realized in syntax by different types of prepositions, source type (*from*, *off* and *out of*), trajectory type (*through* and *across*), direction type (*to* and *toward*), goal type (*onto* and *into*), and locative type (*in* and *on*), respectively. Then location variant discussed here has further division in terms of the portion on the path: source location variant, route location variant, direction to goal location variant and goal location variant. Final location indicates the place where the moved entity finally stays. We would list final location variant as a distinct syntactic variant of caused-motion event.

Change of location characterizes location variant. Therefore, the caused-motion verbs indicating motion, rather than resultant state of motion, can occur in location variant. *Throw* verbs, *push/pull* verbs and verbs of sending and carrying profile the manner of causation in caused-motion event, while verbs of removing and verbs of putting profile portions on the path of motion, either from a previous position or to a final location. The action denoted by the verbs involves change of location and is similar to caused-motion event. It means location variant is productive for different classes of verbs to participate in.

However, specific semantic features associated with verbs might encourage or prevent the connection between verbs and location variant. In comparison, the verbs specifying the manners of causation are more connected to location variant than the verbs specifying portions of the path of motion. The former appear in different location variants while the latter have bias toward certain variants. Verbs of removing are frequently used in source location variant, and verbs of putting in goal variant and final location variant.

Goal location variant seems to be the most attractive to verbs, considering all verbs, including some verbs of removing, occur with *onto* or *into*. The windowing of goal, compared to other portions on the path, is more indicative of the change of position. Anyway, the goal location implies the motion from the initial position through the middle points. Goal location variant accepts different classes of verbs, only if their action relates to change of location.

Source location variant, although closely connected to verbs of removing, also allows the other verbs of caused-motion, including verbs of putting. Anyway, change of position must involve a previous location from which motion begins. Construal in terms of windowing of attention on source or goal of location would connect verbs of removing to goal location variant and verbs of putting to source location variant.

However, within the two classes of verbs, those which are closely associated with the core sense of the class are difficult to participate in other location variants; in contrast, those which specify peripheral factors of the core action are more likely to participate in other location variants. *Wipe* verbs which relate to manner and instrument of causing the motion are more often found in goal location variant than other subclasses of verbs of removing; similarly, verbs of putting specifying manner, instrument and means occur more frequently in source location variant than those which do not. That is to say, these semantic factors facilitate the construal of connecting verbs to variants.

Route location variant and direction to goal location variant, as the names indicate, involve motion along the middle portions of the path to the goal and directional motion to a goal, respectively. Like goal location variant, they are more connected to verbs specifying different manners of causation, namely, *throw* verbs, *push/pull* verbs and verbs of sending and carrying. In contrast, verbs of removing and verbs of putting, which relate to portion on the path of motion, have much fewer occurrences.

B. Final Location Variant

(3b) is representative of final location variant, which is featured by the use of some locative prepositions like *in*, *on* and *inside*, *outside*, *within*, etc.. Goldberg (1995) finds that many prepositions in caused-motion construction have the locative interpretation. Some of the examples are repeated here in (6).

(6) a. Fred stuffed the papers in the envelope.
b. Sam pushed him within arm's length of the grenade.
c. Sam shoved him outside the room.

d. Sam squeezed the rubber ball inside the jar.

The prepositions in these sentences do no encode a caused-motion sense, neither does *squeeze* in (6d). In Goldberg's (1995) opinion, it is not necessary for the verbs or the prepositions or their combination to provide the caused-motion sense. It may be attributed to a construction which combines verb and directional preposition. But it is not the case that argument structure construction interprets all verbs in combination with locative prepositions.

(7) a. tug the strings in the tape to form the pleats (From WebCorp)

b. So we helped him schlep the boxes in the snow. (From WebCorp)

The sentences in (7) do not have caused-motion sense; rather, the prepositional phrases indicate the location where the entities denoted by direct objects stay or the location where the action denoted by verbs takes place. Therefore, final location variant is also characterized by motion, or change of location. A certain cause makes the theme moves at the final location. It is important that only the theme finally stays at the location, otherwise the location would become the place where the causing action takes place, as indicated by (7b).

We distinguish final location variant from other location variants, considering the locative prepositions do not indicate the direction of motion as source type, route type, direction type and goal type prepositions do. They predicate low directionality of motion (Rohde, 2001). It is expected that caused-motion argument structure construction would assign the locative prepositions a direction interpretation, just as it does to license some non-caused-motion verbs. However, some verbs, like *tug*, though fuse into location variants, do not participate in final location variant. Comparatively, locative prepositions do not inherit the motion sense from the argument structure construction as directive prepositions do; on the other hand, more strict limits are set on the verbs used with locative prepositions to express caused-motion event. That is, verbs ought to lexically encode the motion sense or the actions denoted by verbs may at least move something else.

We collect instances of final location variant by excluding those with prepositions which are ambiguous in the reading of location and path. Gehrke (2007) contends prepositions like *in*, *on*, *under* and *behind* are locative only. Rohde (2001) also posits that *at*, *in*, *on* and *under* are not dynamic in comparison to *onto*, *into*, *toward* and *through*, which are highly dynamic. Discussing the connection between verbs and final location variant, we would prefer to collect data of the occurrences of verbs with *in* and *on.* The priority of *in* and *on* comes from their being more locative. "*I bounced the ball under the basketball hoop*" and "*I bounced the ball behind the defensive*", compared to the use of *on*, are ambiguous in that they have either the locative reading or the path reading. Verbs may have no instances with *on* or *in*, but have some with others. For example, no occurrences of *drive* verbs with *in* and *on* have a caused-motion reading; but *drive*, *row* and *wheel* are used with *under*, *drive* and *cart* are used with *behind* to mean caused motion. Similarly, some *carry* verbs, which are not found with *on* or *in*, can appear with *inside* or *outside* to indicate the motion to the final location.

Verbs of goal-oriented motion are more frequently found in the variant. Verbs of putting that occur in the variant imply the release of control on the moved entity near the goal, so that it would safely stay at the designated position. Among the verbs, *funnel* verbs, which involve instruments in the action, have less connection to the variant. *Throw* verbs, likewise, are partly found in the variant. We attribute it to the use of instrument and the exertion of instantaneous force, respectively, which do not have objects at the final location as safely as the control of force until they are near the final location.

Continuous causation encoded in verbs of sending and carrying result in the less appearance of these verbs in the variant. In the carrying action, as well as the pulling action, the locative prepositions indicate the final position where the actor and the carried both stay. Final location variant, however, involves only the carried at the final location. The profile on change of state as a result of motion and iterative contact of hands or instruments with the acted prevents *clear* verbs and *wipe* verbs from connection to final location variant. Other verbs of removing, profiling motion from the source, are not found in the variant.

C. Conative Variant

The previous research of conation is related to intransitive construction (Levin, 1993; Goldberg, 1995). Broccias (2003) defines allative schema and ablative schema of the construction. The allative schema corresponds to Levin's analysis of the conative as an "attempted action". It denotes the emission of a force (which may be metaphorically construed) towards a goal, but the forceful contact is not linguistically encoded and thus backgrounded. As seen in (8a), because of the force from the *throw* action, the *stone* moves toward the target.

(8) a. Sally threw the stone at Sam. (Broccias, 2003, p. 309)

b. The horse pulled at the cart. (Broccias, 2003, p. 304)

The ablative schema is associated with continuous actions, either because it is repeated (i.e., in a bit-by-bit manner) or because one single instance of the action is prolonged, and attempted movement (either liberal or metaphorical) of an entity. This schema is similar to the allative schema, in that it also incorporates a notion of attempt. However, this attempt does not apply to the verbal event itself but rather to its expected or desired consequences. In other words, some action is performed upon an entity in an attempt to bring about some result. In (8b), the *horse* acts on the cart and the latter moves as a result.

The previous research on conative construction summarizes the semantic features including attempted action (Levin, 1993), intended-result, motion, contact (Goldberg, 1995), continuous actions and attempted movement (Broccias, 2003).

Conative variant of caused-motion event share some features with what have been mentioned above. Firstly, it has an intended-result, namely, an intention of moving something to hit the target. The sentence (3c) has the similar syntax to location variant and indicates the caused motion of the theme, as well. The difference between them lies in the use of prepositions: only *at* can appear in conative variant, which denotes that the goal of the caused motion is an intention. Cheng (2010) argues that it is an intentional goal in comparison to an actual goal in location variant. That is, the causer intends the moved entity to reach the goal.

The difference can also be described in the conceptual processes of the two *spray* sentences.

(9) a. Tim sprayed the paint onto the wall.

b. Tim sprayed the paint at the wall.

TABLE 4
CONCEPTUAL PROCESSES OF SPRAY SENTENCES (CHENG, 2010)

Tim sprayed the paint onto the wall.
$Causer_{Tim}$ + $Cause_{spray}$ + $_{tendency}$[$Object_{paint}$ + Goal $Location_{onto\ the\ wall}$]
Tim sprayed the paint at the wall.
$Causer_{Tim}$ + $Cause_{spray}$ + $_{intention}$[$Object_{paint}$ + Conative Goal $Location_{at\ the\ wall}$]

In (9a), the causer initiates the motion of the *paint*, which moves onto the goal. The causer's action manages to move the paint to an actual goal. The *tendency* consists with the result the causer aims to achieve. In (9b), however, *intention* takes the place of *tendency*, showing that the change of location is intended but may not be fulfilled; the goal is just an intentional one, or an intended-result. The difference between an intentional goal and an actual goal results in different postconditions. With an intentional goal, the final result of the motion may conform to the intention or not. So in (9b), the *paint* may finally fall onto the *wall* or the agent might miss the target.

Secondly, conative variant encodes forceful motion. Different from intransitive conative construction, the causer's action on the moved entity in conative variant is not continuous; instead, it is an onset force which aims to trigger an attempted movement along a path, though the path can not be imagined since *at* is not indicative of it. In comparison to location variant, conative variant relates more to an estimated contact of the moved entity with the intentional goal, which in turn indicates there must be some distance between the causer, or the moved entity, and the target. In addition, only the moved entity is intended to hit the target.

The limitations make conative variant the least attractive among syntactic variants of caused-motion event. Among typical caused-motion verbs, only *throw* verbs have a stronger connection to the variant, which simply indicates that instantaneous causation of ballistic motion over a distance is necessary for verbs to occur in conative variant. *At*-phrase used with other verbs is more locative, but not directional.

D. Transfer Variant

The syntactic structure of (3d) is similar to that of prepositional dative construction, which has some semantic similarity to ditransitive construction. The dative construction profiles the process of transfer whereas the ditransitive construction indicates successful transfer. *To* in (10b) speaks of the path of the transfer.

(10) a. I gave him a book. (ditransitive)

b. I gave a book to him. (dative)

Some verbs that are conventionally used in caused-motion construction have ditransitive/dative alternation, as well. For example, *throw* and *send* occur in the pair in the following sentences.

(11) a. I threw him a book. (ditransitive)

a' I threw a book to him. (dative)

b. I sent him a book. (ditransitive)

b' I sent a book to him. (dative)

In Goldberg's (1995) analysis, the sentences in (12) are defined as instances of transfer-caused-motion construction while the sentences in (13) are treated as instances of caused-motion construction.

(12) a. The judge awarded custody to Bill.

b. Bill gave his house to the Moonies.

(13) a. Sally threw a football to him.

b. Sally handed a scented letter to him.

Compared to the *football* and the *letter* in (13) which undergo literal motion, the *custody* and the *house* in (12) do not literally move from their previous possessors to the present owners. The two sentences in (12) are motivated by the metaphor that *Transfer of Ownership as Physical Transfer*; therefore, transfer-caused-motion construction is metaphorical extension from caused-motion construction and is semantically synonymous with ditransitive construction.

Pinker (1989), Pesetsky (1995), Krifka (2004), Rappaport Hovav & Levin (2008) have the same idea that sentences like (13) instantiate caused motion. The difference between (12) and (13) lies in the fact that *to*-phrase in (13) denotes both caused motion and caused possession, while in (12) there is only one possibility, namely, caused possession.

We would like to treat (13), similar to (3d), as a different variant of caused-motion event, namely, transfer variant. The transfer variant we discuss here is limited to the use of verbs in caused-motion construction, such as (13), which

expresses the sense that a causer initiates the motion of an entity toward somebody who is expected to receive it. The variant has something in common with prototypical caused-motion construction (namely, location variant), in that both express the sense that objects change their position. The difference lies in that location variant focuses more on the process of physical movement while transfer variant denotes both the movement and possession transfer.

TABLE 5
CONCEPTUAL PROCESS OF THROW MY BOUQUET TO ONE OF YOU AT THE MEETING

throw my bouquet to one of you at the meeting
Causer + Cause $_{throw}$ + $_{intention}$[Object $_{bouquet}$ + Possessor Goal Location $_{to\ you}$]

Causer intends that Object moves right in the direction of Possessor Goal Location so that Goal Possessor would receive it. Transfer variant is similar to conative variant in that both have an intentional target. But it is supposed that Goal Possessor would finally receive Object. Additionally, Object must have changed from its source location to goal location. The transfer implication is derived from an elaboration of goal into a possessor goal.

The distinction between transfer variant and location variant, conative variant is the actualization of the goal in the event. In transfer variant, the animacy of the goal is elaborated in order to specify the intentional possessive relation between the moved entity and the goal. The intentional possessor is construed as goal location via the metonymy of *A Person for A Position* to which an object can be located (Kodama, 2004). The causer who initiates the motion is also construed as the previous owner at a certain moment.

Whether the object after *to* is a recipient of the moved entity or not, it is not completely determined by the animate feature of the prepositional object. An animate can be construed as a destination and a location can be construed as a recipient, as well.

(14) a. John sent the package to Mary.
b. John sent the package to New York.
c. Peter threw the ball to Tom.
d. Peter carried the box to Tom.

Although *New York* in (14b) is not an animate recipient, the sentence is likewise a good example of transfer varian. Since the verb *send* is definitely one of the verbs of giving, the *to*-phrase used with it must imply an intended recipient (Kodama, 2004). *New York* implies someone in the city by means of metonymic inference. Actually, the recipient reading of the *to*-phrase is related to the verbal sense.

A place can work metonymically as a recipient, and a person can similarly represent a location through metonymy. *Tom* in (14c) is not only a place where *the ball* stops but also an intended recipient. A metonymic inference is made from (14c) so that *Tom* can designate a locative goal. In contrast, *Tom* in (14d), or where *Tom* stands, only represents a locative goal of the *box*. To caused-motion verbs like *throw* and *carry*, whether a recipient reading is derived from the *to*-phrase is not determined crucially by the noun phrase of a person or a location, but rather by event construal. That is, a locative noun might be construed as a recipient, or vice versa (Kodama, 2004, p. 51).

Therefore, event construal figures in the transfer interpretation of the prepositional phrases. Since transfer variant relates to change of location and change of possession, verbs predicating both are best connected to the variant. *Send* verbs and *steal* verbs are such verbs. Most caused-motion verbs only predicate change of location. It means whether the *to*-phrase used with the verbs has a transfer reading, the manner of causing motion encoded by the verbs counts a lot.

E. Contact Variant

As the sentence (3e) shows, the entity in motion may run into some obstacles. The *ball* comes in contact with the *wall* when it moves.

TABLE 6
CONCEPTUAL PROCESS OF I THREW THE BALL AGAINST THE WALL.

I threw the ball against the wall.
Causer $_{I}$ + Cause + [Object $_{ball}$ + Contact Goal $_{against\ the\ wall}$]

In the conceptual process of (3e), the throwing action not only results in the motion but also brings the theme into contact with an obstacle, which is described as Contact Goal. We consider (3e) as a variant of caused-motion event because the contact is a natural result of the caused motion. That is, the moved entity changes its position by moving closer to the obstacle and comes into contact with it. The contact between the moved entity and the goal is specified. Contact variant is characterized by the physical contact.

According to Levin (1993), *throw* does not undergo *with/against* alternation as *hit* does.

(15) a. Brian threw the stick against the fence.
b. *Brian threw the fence with the stick.
c. Brian hit the stick against the fence.
d. Brian hit the fence with the stick.

The verbs undergoing the alternation mean that an agent moves an instrument into contact with a target. In the case of throwing the *stick* against the *fence*, the *stick* acts as theme more than instrument. The difference comes from the different senses of verbs: the throwing action naturally involves the motion, while the hitting action does not. What is

hit may or may not be affected. But the instrument used to hit the target is supposed to change its position from its previous position to the surface of the target. The trajectory of motion in the hitting event is less profiled than that in the throwing event. (15a) and (15c) are similar in that motion takes place before contact. (16), however, presents a different case.

(15) He hit the ball into the outfield.

First, different from (15c), motion in (16) takes place after contact. Or put it more exactly, the motion event in (16) extends from a previous event consisting of the motion of certain instrument and its contact with the *ball*. The previous event coincides with the event expressed in (15c). (16) is more similar to (15a), since the hitting action, like the throwing action, evokes motion. As a result, a trajectory of motion is obvious.

The examples discussed above involve the contact by impact as a result of forceful motion, thus force is necessary to trigger the motion. The verbs *hit* and *throw* encode force exertion on something else. Force exertion, forceful motion and physical contact by impact combine into semantic features of contact variant of caused-motion event. Motion along a path seems to be optional, given that the path is not clear in the case of waving the *stick* in order to hit the *fence*.

Caused-motion verbs encoding instantaneous causation are better connected to the variant, since this manner typically results in forceful motion which is prone to make the entity into contact with something by impacting it. Continuous causation of accompanied motion is not an advisable condition for motion to contact something, considering the causer would try best to avoid moving himself into contact by impact with the goal. Iterative contact predicated by *wipe* verbs only adds to the sense of contact when the verbs are used with *against*.

F. Causative Variant

In English, denominalization enables some nouns to be used as verbs to express caused-motion event (Cheng, 2006). Look at the following examples.

(17) a. Sindy buttered the bread.

b. Larry pocketed the money

The denominalized verbs are not supposed to designate some action; rather, *butter* is the moved entity while *pocket* is the final position where *money* stays. The conceptual contents expressed by the action denoted by *butter* and *pocket* are similar to those in (18).

(18) a. Sindy put the butter on the bread.

b. Larry put the money into the pocket.

TABLE 7
CONCEPTUAL PROCESSES OF SINDY BUTTERED THE BREAD AND SINDY PUT THE BUTTER ON THE BREAD.

Sindy buttered the bread.
Actor $_{Sindy}$ + Act [PUT + BUTTER + Final Location $_{on\ the\ bread}$]$_{butter}$ + Acted $_{bread}$
Sindy put the butter on the bread.
Causer $_{Sindy}$ + Cause $_{put}$ + [Object $_{butter}$ + Final Location $_{on\ the\ bread}$]

The action of "butter something" is similar to the action of "put butter on something". The summary scanning of the event of putting butter on something would make conceptualizer construe it as a buttering action, which is realized into syntax as (17a). In contrast, the sequential scanning of the putting event would activate the causative location conceptual structure, which is realized in syntax as (18a).

Compared with (18a), the causative variant (17a) omits the process of motion whereas directing attention to a causative effect, or the final state brought about by the motion. Namely, the whole surface of bread is buttered. In contrast, the putting action is accomplished once the first brush of butter on the bread is done. The schema of causative variant only profiles the effect of causation in the whole caused-motion event. The *bread* in (17a), therefore, is affected by the buttering action and changes its state. It is absent in the conceptual process of the corresponding (18a).

Although the syntactic pattern of causative variant is different from that of other variants discussed above, they have something in common that they encode caused-motion event. The different expressions from the same conceptual contents are due to construal by means of elaborating different participants in the event. Prototypical caused-motion variants elaborate the relation between the entity in motion and the referential location; causative variant, however, only elaborates one of the two participants, either the entity in motion or the referential location. In this sense, the previous five syntactic variants are variants of caused-motion construction.

As Cheng (2006) points out, *butter* and *pocket* are used as verbs in syntax, but in the conceptual structures they just represent a participant in the event. For example, *butter* in the conceptual process of (16a) is Acted while *pocket* in that of (16b) is Location.

TABLE 8
CONCEPTUAL STRUCTURES OF BUTTER EVENT AND POCKET EVENT

Actor + Act [PUT + BUTTER +Final Location $_i$] $_{butter}$ + Acted $_i$
Actor + Act [PUT + Acted $_i$ + IN POCKET] $_{pocket}$ + Acted $_i$

The denominal verbs *butter* and *pocket* are the so-called locatum verb and location verb (Clark & Clark, 1979). We would like to differentiate (17a) and (17b) as instances of locatum-causative variant and location-causative variant. The

locatum-causative variant has a further extension when the location occurs as direct object while the locatum appears as object of preposition.

(19) a. John loaded bricks onto the wagon.
b. John loaded the wagon with bricks.
(20) a. John cleared the dishes from the table.
b. John cleared the table of the dishes.

The verbs in (19) and (20) have locative alternations. In the projectionist view, alternations result from projection from argument structure of verb. The sentences in each pair present different semantic structures. (a) sentences have the semantic roles of agent, theme and goal while (b) sentences have the roles of agent, patient and material. In Goldberg's (1995) analysis, argument structure construction avoids polysemy of the two verbs. That is, the semantic structures are inherited by the verbs from the two constructions, respectively.

Each pair expresses the same caused-motion event; the sentences of each pair differ in that they profile different aspects of the event, thus present different syntactic structures. Location variant profiles the motion of objects in reference to the location while causative variant foregrounds the final state of referential location while backgrounding what is moved. The moved objects can occur in the instances with prepositions *with* or *of*, which would be regarded as extension from locatum-causative variant. We would like to name the extension as *with/of*-causative variant.

Verbs that profile the resultant state from motion, rather than the motion itself (namely, change of location), are more likely to occur in causative variant. *Pelt* verbs, *butter* verbs, *pit* verbs, *debone* verbs, *fill* verbs and *spray/load* verbs imply the motion brings about some effect, either the impact or the holistic effect on the location. They are more frequently found in causative variant.

IV. Conclusion

The thesis devises six syntactic variants of caused-motion event in order to probe further into the relation between verbs and caused-motion construction. An argument structure construction is supposed to license different classes of verbs in the construction; however, not all the typical caused-motion verbs have the same behavior. The position of six syntactic variants gives a fresh insight into the relation between semantics of verbs and their syntactic behavior. The syntactic variants arise from construal in terms of elaboration on the relation between theme and location. Intention in aiming theme at goal or in contact with goal, or into personal reception, and resultant state of location as a result of theme's motion, besides spatial relation, should also be taken into consideration. These different senses from caused motion result from construing caused-motion event by means of elaborating participants into more detailed information. The corpus data show that the variants attract verbs of different classes with different semantic features. The individual verbs encode something specific in their lexical senses encouraging or preventing the connection between verbs and variants. That is, verbs with similar semantic feature to a certain syntactic variant occur more frequently in it. The division into six syntactic variants provides some light into the relation between verbal semantics and syntactic structures. The extended senses from the six syntactic variants are more sensible than those defined in terms of verbal senses.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 215-220, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.215-220

The Effect of Literary vs. Non-literary Texts through Critical Reading Approach on the Reading Comprehension Development of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—**The present study aimed at investigating the effect of literary texts vs. non-literary texts through critical reading approach on the reading comprehension development of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners. To achieve this goal, the Preliminary English Test (PET) was employed to determine the homogeneity of the participants regarding their proficiency in English. A group of sixty students with scores one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean was selected as the participants of this study who were female learners and their language proficiency level was intermediate. In both groups the critical strategies are Answering Questions, Previewing, Making Predications, Reading between Lines, Analyzing, and Pair Discussion. The difference was that the subjects in the experimental group worked on short stories as literary texts through critical reading approach but the control group worked on journal articles as non-literary texts through critical reading approach. To determine whether there was any significant difference between the performance of experimental and control group ascribed to treatment, a reading comprehension test as post test was administered. After the data were processed, the results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups. Thus, the null-hypothesis, saying literary vs. non-literary texts through critical reading approach has no significant effect on the reading comprehension development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners, was rejected.**

Index Terms—**critical reading, literary texts, non-literary texts, reading comprehension**

I. Introduction

Due to the paramount importance of reading in our daily life in first language, and the role it plays in education as well as in communication, many second or foreign language learners have regarded reading as the most important skills. (Grabe, 2002) .The search for a model or process which could suitably account for more effective and efficient reading, comprehension, and appreciation of a reading text for EFL learners has been a controversial and challenging concern among many EFL theorists and researchers as well as practitioners (Carrell, 1988; Smith1982). Researchers put emphasis on the role of critical reading in ELT. For example, Spolsky (1989) argues a case for teaching 'resisting reading' with reference to the use of literary texts in high schools. She suggests one of the purposes of using literary texts is to widen students' horizons, and to introduce students to unfamiliar cultural values. Clark (1993) discussed the problem her overseas students face when studying international relations through the medium of English at a UK university, where their textbooks express largely western viewpoints. They need to be able to recognize the ideology of a text and decide whether they will be submissive or resistant to it. This means a careful analysis of the ways in which language the writer makes choices. Those who advocate the development of critical reading skill as part of the reading curriculum argue that the ability to read critically depends on an awareness of how elements of language can be manipulated by writers, and then language learners need to build this awareness. Critical reading pedagogy requires scrutiny of the language in order to see what the writer means by the text.

Researchers assert that for students who are growing up in world saturated with media and messages, they need to experience a critical pedagogy for analyzing or evaluating these messages (Hobbs, 1988). In addition to choosing, the right material for EFL/ESL classes is an important concern for most language teachers. They often attempt to find texts which are readable, i.e. texts with lexical and structural difficulty that will challenge the students without overwhelming them." (Brown, 2001, p.314). Some teachers use literary texts as basis for critical reading while other teacher use non-literary texts namely, newspaper articles with different political learning. However, selecting texts for critical reading is a difficult procedure. Teaching critical reading is regarded as particularly important when learners are more vulnerable, for example, school children reading literature who may have insufficient experience to challenge the views of the writer. (Clark, 1993).As an English teacher, the researcher is highly motivated on what kind of text should be selected for reading skill, and what sort of text can have more significant effect on critical reading? Hence, the purpose of this study is how learners develop their critical reading into reading proficiency through literary texts and non- literary texts.

The result may also help teachers and material designer have better views on using critical reading pedagogy and selecting texts. The question to be answered in this research is as follow:

Q: Does literary vs. non-literary texts through critical reading approach have any significant effect on the reading comprehension development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

II. Review of the Related Literature

A. Critical Reading

In critical reading, the reader is given right to evaluate and to be decisive (Thistlewaite, 1990)and reader plays the role of a filter not to accept passively what is found in the text as seemingly being presented to them as obvious(Wallace,1990). Through critical reading students learn how to have a critical eye all through reading it and not "passively accept what is found in reading texts simply because it is so often presented as obvious" (Wallace, 1990, p.44). Hence, learners through critical reading are given authority and voice to judge about what they read. Learners learn how not to accept whatever are put forward and not take it for granted. Teachers, also, teach learners how to reasonably critique and make inferences about what they read and defend their ideas critically and logically (Edelsky, 1999). Paul & Elder (2004) believe that critical readers recognize that they have been wrong in the past and may be worried now. They recognize what they would like to believe while at the same time realizing that they may be prejudiced by that very desire. Moreover, critical readers read all texts with equal sympathy. They read to discover and digest a wide range of points of view, especially points of view that tend to be ignored in the mainstream of culture. To enhance their breath of vision while avoiding ethnocentrism and sociocentrism, critical readers search out dissenting media sources. An analysis of the text should be concerned not only with the way stories are constructed but also with who is and who is not allowed to speak (Herman & Chomsky, 1998).

B. Pros and Cons in Using Literary Texts

There have been growing interest in literature and its usage in language classroom but some scholars are against literature and literary texts. Here first, the arguments against inclusion of literary texts will be mentioned and then the answers to these arguments will be given. The first reason mentioned for not using literary text is that in the works of the famous writers and specially poets we encounter sentences which are grammatically incorrect so submitting such texts to the students has no use in teaching grammar. The second argument referred to in an essay by Sandra Makey (1991) in "Literature and language teaching", is that literature is useless in meeting students academic and or occupational goods. The third reason for not using literary texts is that "literature often reflects a particular cultural perspective "so it may be quite difficult for students. (Makey, 1991 p.68).The fourth and the last argument, Widdowson in1978 said that literature has potentially disruptive influence in well-ordered world of controlled language course.

In answer to the first argument, Widdowson (1978) has answered this criticism and says that everybody has two levels of linguistics knowledge, one is "usage" (the knowledge of linguistic rules) and the other is "use" (the knowing how to use these rules).Literature has traditionally been used to teach language "usage" now it is used for language "use". In other words , a close textual analysis of particular extracts from a novel might help to alert students not only to how particular meanings are conveyed by playing with the conventions, but also the certain overall generalizable features of language in this case the nature of collocation. The second criticism is in reference to the uselessness of literature in academic/ occupational needs. Answering this question, Makey (1991) says literature can foster an overall increase in reading proficiency, so it will contribute to these goals. In fact, the main contribution of literary texts, to language learning is in the field of reading. The third reason mentioned for not using literature in classroom is related to the cultural aspect of language. In fact, literature promotes a greater tolerance for cultural differences and the second benefit of struggling with the potential cultural problem of literature is that it promotes students' curiosity. (Makey, 1991). We acknowledge that there are cultural differences but by selecting these literary texts in which cultural characteristics. We can make students familiar with their culture and make the learning environment more interesting. The last argument, literature has a" disruptive influence" in language course. Widdowson said that in fiction and drama, events reveal something of significance which we have recognized as a kind of everyday life. But the pedagogy presentation of language does not exploit the possibilities of creativity that are opened up by dissociation from context, and creativity is a crucial concept in language learning.

III. Methodology

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 60 intermediate EEL Iranian learners who randomly were divided into the experimental and control groups. All the participants were female and their ages ranged from 14 to 18. They studied at the intermediate level.

B. Instrumentations

Five types of instruments were used in this study; Preliminary English Test (PET), Critical reading strategies, Graphic and Semantic Organizers, Material, and Reading comprehension test. First a sample of Preliminary English

Test (PET) was employed to specify the homogeneity of the participants regarding students' proficiency in English. Second, critical reading strategies; answer questions, Previewing, Making Predications, Reading between Lines, Analyzing, and Pair Discussion were selected. The third, researcher used some graphic organizers and charts not only to help students to improve their comprehension of the texts but also to record what happens in the classrooms through the treatment. The fourth instrument, six short stories as literary texts and six journal articles as non-literary texts were selected. And in this study, the readability indices of 6 reading passages of literary texts and 6 reading passages of non-literary texts were calculated through Flesch Readability Formula. And the last instrument, Reading Comprehension Test contained five Reading comprehension passages followed by 30 multiple-choice questions used as pretest and post-test in order to measure the dependent variable.

C. Procedures

At the first step participants consisted of 90 students. They were female students who finished the Interchange volume three. Then a sample of Preliminary English Test (PET) was employed to assign the homogeneity of the participants as far as their proficiency in English was considered. After the data were processed, out of 90 students, 60 with scores falling between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were selected as the participants of this study. Then, the participants were randomly divided into two groups as the experimental and control groups. Afterward, participants in both groups took the pretest of the standardized reading comprehension test which was piloted by the researcher, in order to be sure that there is no significant difference among the members of experimental and control groups before the treatment. In this way, any change in the performance of the experimental group and control group after the treatment can be, most probably, ascribed to the treatment given on the reading performance. After the data were processed, the scores of the pretest were statistically processed through t-test. In this study, the participants were randomly divided into two groups as the experimental and control groups that the former worked on literary texts through critical reading approach, and the latter worked on non-literary texts through the same approach. The critical reading strategies which were selected for the study, namely Answering Questions, Previewing, Making Predications, Reading between Lines, Analyzing, and Pair Discussion.

In this research, the researcher's purpose was to stimulate the learners' creative critical reading through literary texts and non-literary texts. For this purpose ten sessions of instruction were considered, during which, six short stories as literary texts were taught to the experimental group and six journal articles as non-literary texts to the control group. Finally, at the end of the term when ten sessions of instruction were ended, a reading comprehension -the pretest with different order- was given to the participants of both groups as post-test to statistically determine whether there is any significant improvement in the reading comprehension ability of the participants in the experimental and control groups. After the data were processed, the means of the two groups was computed and compared by running t-test.

IV. Results and Discussion

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the PET to show that the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their general language proficiency prior to the administration of the treatment. The t-observed value was .29. This amount of t-value at 58 degrees of freedom was lower than the critical value of 2.

TABLE1.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF PRETEST

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
PET	Equal variances assumed	.014	.906	.295	58	.769	.63333	2.14456	-3.65946	4.92613
	Equal variances not assumed			.295	57.993	.769	.63333	2.14456	-3.65947	4.92614

As displayed in Table, the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the PET test were 46.93 and 47.56 respectively. Based on these results it could be concluded that there was not any statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the PET test. So, the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their general language proficiency prior to the administration of the treatment.

TABLE2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PET TEST

Group Statistics					
	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PET	Control	30	47.5667	8.35292	1.52503
	Experimental	30	46.9333	8.25847	1.50778

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the pretest of reading in order to show that the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their reading ability prior to the administration of the treatment. The t-observed value was .24 .This amount of t-value at 58 degrees of freedom was lower than the critical value of 2.

TABLE3.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF PRETEST

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
PRETEST	Equal variances assumed	.021	.886	.248	58	.805	.16667	.67276	-1.18001	1.51334
	Equal variances not assumed			.248	57.99	.805	.16667	.67276	-1.18001	1.51334

As displayed in Table, the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the pre-test of reading were 21.30 and 21.46 respectively. The t-observed value was .24. This amount of t-value at 58 degrees of freedom was lower than the critical value of 2.

TABLE4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRETEST

Group Statistics					
	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PRETEST	Control	30	21.4667	2.60944	.47642
	Experimental	30	21.3000	2.60172	.47501

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the post-test of reading in order to probe the effect of literary vs. non-literary texts through critical reading approach on the reading comprehension development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

TABLE5.
.INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF POST-TEST

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
POST-TEST	Equal variances assumed	1.075	.304	3.950	58	.000	1.53333	.38814	.75639	2.31028
	Equal variances not assumed			3.950	56.76	.000	1.53333	.38814	.75603	2.31064

The t-observed value was 3.95. This amount of t-value at 58 degrees of freedom was greater than the critical value of 2.According to the data, the mean scores for the experimental and control groups were 26.93 and 25.40 respectively.

TABLE6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS POST-TEST

Group Statistics					
	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
POST-TEST	Experimental	30	26.9333	1.38796	.25341
	Control	30	25.4000	1.61031	.29400

Based on these results it could be concluded that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the post-test of reading.

V. Conclusion

In this study, the researcher tried to show the effect of literary vs. non-literary texts through critical reading approach on the reading comprehension development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. The researcher administered a PET test to determine the homogeneity of sample. The sample was randomly assigned to 30 subjects in control group and 30 subjects in experimental group. In order to measure their initial reading comprehension, all subjects in both groups took a pretest of reading comprehension. The test was piloted with the same level students to determine its readability and validity. After conducting the pretest, the data were processed and in the following a t-test was run which revealed that there was no significant difference in the reading ability of the two groups before the instruction based on their reading comprehension. Then the treatment began. At the end of the treatment period, a post-test of the same reading comprehension test with the same characteristics was administered to clarify the effect of literary vs. non-literary texts through critical reading approach on the reading comprehension development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Then the significant difference between the obtained means of the experimental and control group's scores in the post-test was determined through a two-tailed t-test (with the level of significance of 0.05). The t-observed value was 3.95 .This amount of t-value at 58 degrees of freedom is greater than the critical value of 2. Based on the results, it could be concluded that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the post-test of reading. Thus, the null-hypothesis was rejected, and it could be claimed that teaching critical reading techniques through literary texts have a statistically significant effect on the development of EFL learners' reading comprehension. In the other words, the performance of those who had used literary texts as their material was much better than those who had used non-literary text. Therefore, literary texts through critical reading play an important role in the development of reading comprehension of the Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

The results of this study have some hints for English teachers who should pay more attention while teaching reading comprehension. These implications are listed below:

1. The finding of this study showed that Knowledge should be transformed rather than literally transmitted. And teachers must consider that the use of challenging quality reading materials based on learner's interest and needs is really pivotal and also use of challenging quality reading materials such as short stories should be encouraged.

2. As a result, this study showed that teaching reading of literary texts through critical reading approach played an important role in the development of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Hall (2005) argued that literature represents challenging materials for learners and teachers as a view of language and language learning to investigate, discuss. So, the use of stories as the most comprehensive and promising form of texts should be inseparable from EFL reading (Goodman &Goodman, 1981).

3. Critical reading is an important topic in modern education. In every course, especially in content subjects, students should be taught to read logically, to analyze, to compare, to question, and to evaluate the content. The result of this study showed that critical reading strategies such as Answering Questions, Previewing, Making Predication, Reading between Lines, Analyzing, and Pair Discussion can be used to pave the way for critical reading and reading comprehension.

4. The determining role of literary texts in fostering reading comprehension through critical reading approach has been proved in this study. So the result of this study could have significant implication for syllabus designers, material developers, and those preparing reading textbooks. They can achieve a better result by careful selection of appropriate texts especially by including literary texts in reading text books.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 221-225, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.221-225

Ambiguity and Final Choice: Reader's Response in *A Streetcar Named Desire*

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***Abstract*—Applying Stanley Fish's Reader-response criticism, the article analyses the two protagonists, Blanche and Stanley, in Tennessee Williams' A Streetcar Named Desire from reader's perspective. The article holds that readers in appreciating the play are divided into two sides: one showing their sympathy and support on Blanche, while the other standing aside with Stanley. However, their attitudes towards their "heroine" and "hero" are not always certain and firm. It is caused by the ambiguities created by Williams for misleading readers in their appreciation. Until in the last scene do readers finally make clear these ambiguities and realize writer's true intention. The article also points out the reasons why Williams intentionally created ambiqutities in his most famous work.**

***Index Terms*—reader- response criticism, ambiguity, final choice**

I. Introduction

Since *A Streetcar Named Desire* premiered in1947, it has always been regarded as Tennessee Williams' most charming play as well as the most controversial creation. For more than sixty years, it continually stimulates critics to interpret it from as many aspects as possible. Herbert Blau analyzed it from the post-modernist viewpoint; Kelvin observed Blanch as the prey of guilty, melancholy and hysteria, while Stanley as the representative of desire, social order and "the male genital"; Lionell Telly studied the history and fable factors existing in the play; Robert Ray employed modern Marxist theory into his analysis and concluded that Williams actually had abstract and dialect ideology in his mind. Almost all the existent theories were creatively and boldly used in the play's interpretation. Only one critical method seems to be ignored, that is, reader-response critical theory.

In the field of the literary criticism, the most significant change that has occurred is the movement from author to reader. In the disciplines of literary criticism, it was originally assumed that meaning resided with the author, then within the text. The shift in the locus of meaning continued under the influence of cultural pressures and meaning came to be seen as inhering in the reader. Here appeared the reader-oriented criticism. One of the most prominent reader-response critics is Stanley Fish. According to Fish, it is the reader that determines the shape of text, its form, and its content, and he claims that reader write text. Although critics generally think that Fish's theory is too radical, it is very meaning for Fish to emphasize reader's role in the interpretation of literary woks. As early as in fourth century, Aristotle had discussed the relationship between the tragedy and audience in his "The Poetics" and pointed out that the best effect of tragedy was to arouse audience's tears and purify their souls. Fish's theory greatly pushed literary criticism forward. He used the reader-response criticism in his early work "Surprised by Sin: the Reader in Paradise Lost", and firstly connected the author, text and reader together in the interpretation of literary works. Fish applied the phenomenological method in his work which focuses on what happens in reader's mind as he or she reads.

Enlightened by Fish's opinion, the article tries to interpret *A Streetcar Named Desire* with the phenomenological method, and discusses readers or audiences' response during approaching the play, the ambiguities occurred in the their mind and the their final choice confronting with these ambiguities.

II. Reader's Response to the Two Protagonists

Critics once quarreled around one question for a long time, that is, "who is the real protagonist of the play, Blanche or Stanley." The article holds that both of them are protagonists of the play. Williams actually intended a balance of power between Blanche and Stanley, and the action proceeded through clashes of these two opposites.

In the play, Blanche and Stanley are just like two competitors in the arena. The stage is their battlefield and readers or audiences are their spectators standing aside to see their performance, at the same time, readers are deciding their attitudes and giving out their response to the two "competitor". In the total eleven scenes of the play, the first ten scenes is the matching process. Blanche and Stanley get their own supporters and the readers are divided into two sides. One side believes Blanche and support Blanche, while the other side stands aside with Stanley, and shout encouragement for him. The article recognizes that Mitch and Stella are the two spectators in the play, from their attitude for the characters, the reader's response can be well illustrated.

A. Reader's Response to Blanche

Blanche came from Mississippi to New Orleans to go to her married sister for shelter. When the protagonist appeared,

the initial question for reader is her identity. Blanche herself claimed that she was a teacher who took a leave from school. That's initial knowledge given by Blanche. But soon, through Blanche's conversation with Stella and Stanley, readers got more information. Blanche and Stella, the two sisters were born in the southern aristocracy that had got bankrupt. Blanche once married but her husband died. Blanche was not in good health, for she always tried to quiet her nerves by taking bath, and she's terribly upset. These information are enough to rouse reader's sympathy for Blanche, a widow in poor situation.

However, such a poor woman was bad treated by her brother-in-law, Stanley. When Stanley knew that Belle Reve was lost, Stanley doubted Stanley's word and brutally opened Blanche's wardrobe and checked it up. Especially when Stanley found Blanche's letters, he ripped off the ribbon and examined them without Blanche's permission. Blanche snatched them from him, and letters cascaded to the floor. "Everyone has something he won't let others touch because of their intimate nature", Blanche said, however, Stanley rudely touched her privacy and showed little respect for others. A woman confronting with the harm from a barbarous man appeared so weak and fragile that Blanche again got sensitive readers' sympathy. Some readers strongly support Blanche and showed their antipathy to Stanley for his barbarous, brutality and cruelty. Blanche's loyal party began to form.

At this moment, another key character to Blanche, Mitch appeared. Mitch was Stanley's intimate friend. Mitch was noticeably more sensitive than Stanley's other poker friends. Even in his first, brief snatch of conversation in Scene One, Mitch's more gentlemanly behavior stood out in contrast with the behavior of the other men. Through his first touch with Blanche, Mitch was immediately attracted by Blanche's unusual language, gesture, and special quality. In a sense, Mitch also became a loyal reader who held respect and love for Blanche. From Mitch's perspective, Blanche was a well-bred, well-educated and graceful woman. Mitch shameful said to Blanche: "I guess we strike you as being a pretty rough bunch."(1796), and "In all my experience, I have never know anyone like you."(1812). Mitch was always shy before Blanche; he admired Blanche and thought she was superior to him. When Blanche told him about her former husband, Mitch didn't dislike her; on the contrary, Mitch gave her sympathy and soon proposed to Blanche. Blanche not only gained Mitch's feeling but also that of some readers who supported her in her battle with Stanley.

However, her opponent, Stanley disclosed her secret. Not only "Dame Blanche" a disreputable resident of the Flamingo Hotel in laurel, but also she was fired from her teaching position at the high school for getting "mixed up with " a seventeen-year-old boy. Stanley's exposure was a bolt from blue foe readers. It is completely out of their expectation. Facing to the situation, some readers begin to adjust their attitude for Blanche. Some deserted Blanche and turned to Stanley, just as Mitch did. As soon as Mitch knew Blanche's sordid sexual past, he was both angry and embarrassed about the way Blanche had treated of him. When he arrived to chastised her, he stated that he felt he deserved to have sex with her, even though he no longer respect her enough to think her fit to be his wife. Mitch's attitude represented some reader's response to Blanche. For them, Blanche cheated their feeling and sympathy. However still, there are loyal readers who persist their original position and continually support Blanche. Although Blanche made mistakes, these readers still show sympathy on her, just as Stella did. When Stanley told Blanche's secret to her, she didn't dislike her sister, but worried about her: "Is Mitch through with her? She thought Mitch was going to marry her, what'll she do? What on earth will she do?" These sentences actually tell out reader's care about Blanche. Stanley's disclose of Blanche only cause part of Blanche's follower desert her, but it even rouses more hatred to Stanley and more sympathy for Blanche. Especially when Stanley raped Blanche in scene10, it finally illustrated Blanche's comments on Stanley: "He acts like animal, has an animal's habits!….There's even something ---subhuman---something not quite to the stage of humanity yet! …. Something ape-like about him, …And there he is, survivor of the Stone Age! …. Don't hang back with the brutes!" Yes, Stanley was but an animal that did beast thing to his sister-in-law, a poor woman. It vividly compared Blanche's civilization with Stanley's coarseness. From these words, Blanche finally became a protector of civilization and the loyal daughter of old south. For the readers with literary competence (the term proposed by Fish to refer to those readers who have certain literary knowledge), the scene of rape actually contained deep meaning: Fragile southern fair maiden was brutally raped by the northern worker, this southern belle with traditional merits such as being gentle, affectionate and graceful was raped by cruelty and cruelty of the modern society, she liked a lonely and helpless white moth being crushed into pieces by the world with full of carnal desire and brutish nature. What this incident signified is the unavoidable humane tragedy of culture of southern plantation in the industrialized process of the North. As a result, blanche finally won the hearts of these readers and became the Heroine in their minds.

B. Reader's Response to Stanley

As the article mentioned in the previous part, the play was full of conflicts between Blanche and Stanley, and each had their own supporters. Then, what's the other side of reader's response to their hero?

Reader's response to Stanley also began from his appearance on the stage. Readers got information about him from Stella: he was polish, once a Master Seargeant in the Engineers' corps, an ambitious man who liked the hard exercises such as bowling. Actually it was a typical image of a blue-collar immigrant. Generally speaking, common people will support woman when woman and man are in a conflict, no matter who is right. So, Stanley was not so likable person to reader at the start of the play. However, Stanley was not always in a disadvantaged state, he soon caught some readers' attention.

Although Blanche and Stanley were opponents, Blanche couldn't stop praising Stanley: "You're simple, straightforward and honest…." It was the fair commentary on Stanley. For some reader, Stanley was a man with true nature. He could call the compliments to a woman about their looking as "stuff", it from one part shows that he was frank

and open which unavoidably caused some readers favorable impression.

When Stanley quarreled with Blanche about Belle Reve, it may also cause some rational readers' doubt: maybe Blanche really did tell lies and Stanley was somehow reasonable. Especially when author described some character weakness of Blanche in the play, some readers may more believe Stanley and stand with Stanley to object Blanche. When Stanley found Blanche was actually a prostitute, his former misbehavior to Blanche was thought reasonable and those readers with Stanley seem find the strongest weapon to fight back Blanche and approve Stanley as a wise and true man. Besides, those readers also find other good qualities of Stanley, such as his loyalty to his friend and his passion to his wife. He told Blanche's disgraceful past to Mitch, although Mitch misunderstood him for the moment, but he said that: "I'd have that on my conscience the rest of my life if I knew all that stuff and let my best friend get caught!"(1820) This sentence can easily touch those readers who already support Stanley.

Audience members may also see Stanley as an egalitarian hero in the play. Stanley possessed an animalistic physical vigor that was evident in his love of work, of fighting, and of sex. His family was from Poland, and several times he expresses his outrage at being called "Polack" and other derogatory names. When Blanche called him a "Polack," he made her look old-fashioned and ignorant by asserting that he was born in America, was an American, and could only be called "Polish." Stanley represented the new, heterogeneous America to which Blanche didn't belong, because she was a relic from a defunct social hierarchy. He saw himself as a social leveler and egalitarian, as he told Stella in Scene Eight.

Stanley's intense hatred of Blanche was motivated in part by the aristocratic past Blanche represented. He also saw her as untrustworthy and did not appreciate the way she attempted to fool him and his friends into thinking she was better than they were. Stanley's animosity toward Blanche manifested the conflict between two cultures, two worlds.

At the fierce moment of their battle, the rape scene happened, Stanley's image in his loyal reader's mind was unavoidably damaged. No matter how fierce the conflict was between Blanche and him, he should not rape his sister-in-law, and it was inhuman deed. So, Stanley's followers began to query him: Maybe Blanche's commentary on Stanley had some reasonable points.

From the analyses, we see that Williams successful lead readers into two opposite positions. Two sides represent different attitude for the protagonists. Some readers regard Blanche as the haggard and frail southern belle who degraded because of the evils in materialist world, and take Blanche as the protector of the waning north culture; while others insist that Stanley represent the new social order of modern American as a contrast to the decayed gentility of Blanche's southern manners. However, the two sides of readers are not sure whether their choice is right or wrong. That's because they are influenced by the uncertainties coming from the text.

III. Ambiguities in the Play

In Fish's reader-response theory, there are two types of readers: one is informed –reader, which refers to the common appreciators of the literary woks; the other type is the reader with literary competence that has certain reading experience and literary knowledge. In A Streetcar Named Desire, Williams caused confusion in the mind of both informed-readers and literary-competence readers to a different extent.

To informed-reader, the suspicion is Williams's ambiguous description of Stanley and Blanche's complex characteristics. Under Williams' pen, there seemed no hero and heroine in the play. Stanley and Blanche were rounded characters; both owned the positive and negative aspects. About Blanche, on one hand, she gained reader's sympathy, on the other hand, readers will find that she did have character weakness, such as hypocritical, snobbish, a little neurotic and so on. She lived in a perpetual panic about her fading beauty, her manner is dainty and frail, and she took a wardrobe of showy but cheap evening clothes, all these details reflected her character weakness. Besides, readers can also find she was not so graceful as she displayed. For example, one time, she talked with Mitch about keeping her reputation, but another time, she flirted with a young man who called at door. This contrast reflected that how contradict between her inner mind and surface behavior. It is no wonder that some critics regard Blanche as a self-degraded woman, and a contradict body between inner desire and outer oppression. About Stanley, some readers took him as a true man, honest, loyal to friend and family, ambitious in work, but his cruelty, animal impulse can't be ignored, such as beating Stella, raping Blanche. However, Williams seemed provide some excuses to set Stanley free. For example, Blanche was a sudden visitor for Stanley and Stella, her appearance indeed brought much inconvenience for Stanley's normal life, Blanche herself also realized this point: " But there is no door between the two rooms, and Stanley--- will it be decent?"(1779) The answer was negative. As a man like Stanley, he would not also anyone to set a stone between he and his wife, especially a woman who always wanted to bring his wife away from him. Besides, although Blanche was lady with fading beauty, she still attracted men, Mitch was a good example, and Stanley was also no exception. Face to these ambiguous descriptions in the play, readers felt a loss.

For those readers with literary-competence, they would analyze the Conflict between Blanche and Stanley from a deeper meaning. To those readers who regard Blanche as the bodyguard of civilization, the conflict between Blanch and Stanley are the conflicts of two kinds of civilization. What Blanch represented is the old culture of the South, this tradition required woman chaste, pious and submitting to husband, to a certain extent, it responded to Victorian era's requisition for woman. But careful reader will find that Blanch seem to be attracted by Stanley, the gravedigger of the old South.

In Act 1, Blanche spied on Stanley's biceps stealthily, frightened as well as attracted; In Act 2, she provoked and sprayed the perfume on Stanley, and then invited Stanley to help her to tie the button behind of dresses; Blanche told

Stanley half flatter and half serious: "My sister has married a man! " Another evidence is Blanche's practical conversation with Stella: "Maybe he's what we need to mix with our blood now that we've lost Belle Reve." (1790) This is obviously a kind of approval to Stanley. Blanch was looking for last outlet for family that had already declined, because the old South in morbid state couldn't maintain without pouring into the other style of blood, and Stanley was exactly the blood of that style that they needed. The appeal from Stanley that couldn't be resisted constructed the mutually exclusive conflict between she and Stanley; this plot will unavoidably weaken her image of as the defender of the old southern.

Uncertain discription also exists in the portrayal of Stanley. Ellia Kazan, the director of the 1959 film "A streetcar named Desire" refined Stanley's personality as indulging in material comfort and being cruel, which no doubt represented understanding to Stanley of a great deal of reviewers. However, Williams also created uncertainty in Stanley. It was displayed mainly in Act 3. When Stella put an end to the poker game and ordered the other men out of the house, Stanley hit her. Stella and Blanche then retreated upstairs to Eunice's apartment. Stanley called up to the apartment above, to Stella, in some kind of half-animal desperation, he cried in night like a baby. Stanley's behavior in one part showed his soft and kind aspect in human nature that weakened his cruel image to a certain extent and gained reader's understanding and sympathy. And another point that had been mentioned is that, Blanche lived in the house with one bedroom influenced the normal life of couple, which can also be taken as the excuse for his raping Blanche.

All above-mentioned uncertainties sometimes push forward readers, but sometimes draw them backward. Readers were confused for William's intention, and the final choice should be made soon to make clear these ambiguities.

IV. Final Settlement of the Ambiguities and Author's True Intention

George Blaire once said that when readers were misled by the text and felt a loss in author's narration, readers could try to find author's hiding voice in the works. In many literary works, there exists a narrator that plays a role as mediator between author, text and reader. Since there was no narrator in A Streetcar Named Desire, readers have to find Williams' true voice when confronting to these ambiguities. In the last scene, readers can easily realize Williams' attitude toward Blanche and Stanley.

Readers are successfully led into Williams's trap, and then, it's time to solve these problems. In the last scene, Williams stopped his uncertain description as in the previous ten scenes; instead, he finally gave a certain image of the two protagonists, especially the decisive portrayal of Stanley.

In his competition with Blanche, Stanley took the final stabs at Blanche, destroying the remainder of her sexual and mental esteem by raping her and then sending her to an insane asylum. In the end, Stanley's down-to-earth character proves harmfully crude and brutish. His disturbing, degenerate nature was fully evident after he raped his sister-in-law. Stanley shows no remorse for his brutal actions. When the doctor and nurse tried to take Blanche away, Stanley continually laughed at Blanche: "You left nothing here but split talcum and old empty perfume bottles, unless it's the paper lantern you want to take with you." The mad Blanche was ill treated by the nurse, While Stanley stood aside and peered at all this. It was a vivid description. Compared with Stanley, winner's happiness, Blanche's miserable situation roused more sympathetic feeling from readers. In the end of the play, the poor Blanche blindly allowed herself to be led away by a kind doctor, ignoring her sister's cries. Blanche's final image unavoidably gains the sympathy of all the readers. Blanche once said: " Some things are not forgivable, deliberate cruelty is not forgivable"(1832) . Stanley lost the basic sympathy of human beings, and he also lost readers' heart.

As the article has analyzed, Mitch and Stella actually were also readers as well as us. At the end of the play, they made their final choice in this struggle between Stanley and Blanche. Their attitudes were really that of the general readers. Mitch regretted his formed deeds to Blanche. When he realized Blanche was going to be sent to an insane asylum, he fought with Stanley and sobbed, maybe for Blanche's tragic end, and also for his ever misbehavior to Blanche. In Kalan's 1951 film, it ended with the impression that Stella would take her baby and leave Stanley. It was Kazan and Williams' common decision that "the rapist would not go unpunished." It hinted that the nominal winner, Stanley, had also lost, in that the relationships he valued most---those with his wife and his best friend.

These final details given by Williams clearly gave readers his own choice in the struggle between Stanley and Blanche, that is, despite her contradictions, dishonesty, inconsistency, Blanche was still a sympathetic, if not entirely likeable, character. Williams himself once commented that "... when I think about her, Blanche seems like the youth of our hearts which has to be put away for worldly considerations: poetry, music, the early soft feelings that we can't afford to live with under a naked light bulb which is now." Even though her faults are plain to see, Blanche still commands pity. Williams thought that this pity was an important element of the play. In a letter to Elia Kazan, the first director of Streetcar, he answered a question that Kazan had put to him, saying, and "I remember you asked me what should an audience feel for Blanche, certainly pity. It is a tragedy with the classic aim of producing a catharsis of pity and terror and in order to do that, Blanche must finally have the understanding and compassion of the audience." From these, readers can have a clear idea of Williams feeling for Blanche, reader's confusion in mind finally was solved under the help of Williams, and they also made the same choice with the writer.

V. Conclusion

Concerning the reason why Williams created so many ambiguities in *A Streetcar Named Desire*, critics have been

discussing it for quiet a long time but in vain. Two opinions remains cores of the issue.

The first is that Williams' ambiguous descriptions are actual reflections of his inner conflict. Under Williams's portrayal, Blanche was molded as an immortal woman; a fragile southern beauty whose pathetic last grasp at happiness was cruelly destroyed. She was the last spokeswoman and loyal daughter of the old south. While, Williams himself was also the loyal son of the old south. He once said that the reason he took up the writing career was due to his deep love to south. According to Williams, in south, there owned a life style that was full of charm, gracefulness and civilization, it was not a society based on money. However, it could not prevent its descending from the historical stage. Blanche, as the last representative of the old south, could not either avoid her final tragic destination. In Williams' mind, Blanche was exactly the proper image of his old south. Although he could not save it, he paid his complete sympathy on it. As a result, after a long struggle in writing the play, Williams finally make clear the ambiguities and showed his sympathy on Blanche.

The other opinion about Williams' ambiguous writing is related to his real life at the time. Some critics hold that Williams really reflected his life style into the play. The conflict and struggle between Blanche and Stanley was the true representation of the relationship between he and Pancho Rodriguez, a man who deeply attracted Williams when he was writing the play. These critics think that, in a sense, Williams was Blanche, while Pancho was Stanley. Williams felt deep pain for his improper relationship with Pancho, he knew that this life must lead to a destruction, but he found no way to get rid of these messes in his life. He was caught in a deep conflict that unavoidably reflected in the play. Finally, he chose s destructive end for Blanche, it also represented Williams's own prospective for life. On one hand, he felt guilty of this degrading life but could not get rid of it, on the other hand, he could not stop showing pity on himself. So, Williams' real life experience was authentically displayed in the play.

No matter what is the real cause of Williams' ambiguities in the play, as for the artistic creation, Williams was succeeded. In the play, he implied artistic techniques to intentionally cause readers' different reaction and confusion to the main characters, and only gave them the answer at the end of the play. William successfully used reader-response theory to stimulate reader's active participation in the play, at last, the harmony among author, play and reader was achieved. From this aspect, we can say that Williams deserved to be the outstanding playwright, just as Garson Kanin claimed: " Tennessee Williams was the best, and *A Streetcar Named Desire* was his best."

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 226-233, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.226-233

Analyzing EFL Learners' Errors: The Plausibility of Teachers' Feedbacks and Students' Uptakes

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***Abstract*—The present study was an attempt to investigate the types of error receiving more feedback by language teachers, the types of feedback leading to the greatest amount of uptake, and finally what types of errors lead to what types of teacher corrective feedback. To this end, an observational, analytical and descriptive study was conducted. Six classes with 6 different instructors were chosen. The number of participants was 60 female students at intermediate level from two branches of Jahad Language Institutes. Homogeneous groups of language learners were selected. Each class was observed for 5 sessions and the interaction among students and teacher was recorded. The coding scheme was according to Lyster and Ranta' (1997) model with some additional parts. Two other types of feedback were added, translation and multiple feedback. Also a combination of errors, multiple errors, were added. The analysis of the database revealed first, lexical errors received the most amount of feedback type (78%). Second, elicitation feedback led to the greatest amount of uptake. Third, phonological and grammatical errors mostly received recast and explicit correction. Lexical errors received explicit correction (39%). Multiple and L1 errors were provided by recast (48 and 40% respectively).**

***Index Terms*—corrective feedback, different types of feedback, uptake**

I. Introduction

Learner`s errors and feedbacks followed an error are two significant parts of learning process; therefore, coping with errors and understanding how to tackle them could be considered as a means at teachers' disposal to know how to assist learners. It is through the corrective feedback that students become aware of their inadequacies and are assisted to overcome the problems they face in their language learning experience. Corrective feedback is defined by Lyster & Ranta (1997) as "the provision of negative evidence or positive evidence upon erroneous utterances which encourage learners' repair involving accuracy and precision and not merely comprehensibility". Chaudron (1977) defines it as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demand improvement of the learner utterance" (p.31). It is described by Lightbown & Spada (2003) "as any indication to a learner that his/ her use of the target language is incorrect" (p.172), it is classified into two categories based on the way they are corrected, explicit and implicit. Carrol & Swain (1993), Dekeyster (1993), Lyster (2004), Lyster & Ranta (1997), Mackey (2000), Mackey & Oliver (2002), Mackey & Silver (2005), Nassaji (2009), Nassaji & Swain (2002), and Takimoto (2006) investigated the effectiveness of corrective feedback. Havranek (2002), Havraneck & Ceink (2001), and Oliver (1995, 2000) investigated their studies on the realm of corrective feedback about the factors which are noticeable to promote or impede language learning.

Sheen (2004) stated that the effectiveness of corrective feedback on language acquisition could be measured directly and indirectly: 1) Immediate post-tests (Carrol & Swain,1993; Long *et al.,* 1998); 2) delayed post-tests (Doughty & Varela,1998; Han,2002; and Macky & Philip,1998); 3)learner perception/noticing of corrective feedback by means of (stimulated) recall (Macky *et al*.,2000; Philip, 2003); and 4) uptake (Ellis *et al*.,2001; Lyster, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta,1997; Mackey *et al*.,2003; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Suzuki,2004; Sheen, 2004; Sheen, 2006; and Tsang, 2004) .Uptake is defined by Lyster & Ranta (1997) as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher`s feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher`s intention to draw attention to some aspects of the student's initial utterance" (p.49). Carroll & Swain (1993) stated that uptake provides an opportunity to learners to practice what they have learned and fill the gap in their interlanguage. Panova & Lyster (2002) believed that the notion of uptake helps the researchers recognize different degrees of the learners' participation while they are corrected.

Recast is defined by Lyster & Ranta (1997) as "the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance, minus error" (p.46). Ellis *et al.,* (2006), Han (2002), Long (1996), Lyster & Izquierdo (2009), Lyster & Mori (2006), McDonough & Mackey (2006), Mackey (2000), Nabei & Swain (2002), Nicholas *et at.,* (2001), Philip (2003), and Sheen (2006) investigated their studies on recast. In most of these studies, recast was appeared as the least effective corrective feedback in terms of successful uptake.

II. Purpose and Research Questions

Lyster & Ranta (1997) studied the relationship between different corrective feedbacks and learner uptakes. Their studies gave a systematic picture of student-teacher interactional moves, including the types of feedback provided for different types of errors and the types of feedback leading to uptake. Their studies indicated that recasts were the least effective type of feedback in terms of learner uptake, in spite of its high frequency of occurrence. Lyster & Ranta's study was carried out with young learners sitting at elementary level in French immersion classroom. Hence, it seems that there is a need to investigate a study in EFL context with English learners sitting at intermediate level to examine if the results confirm the Lyeter & Ranta' study. Furthermore, in the present study, the instruction is a mixture of both meaning-based and form-based; whereas, in Lyster & Ranta's it was meaning-centered. Therefore, the present study aims to shed light on the answers to the following research questions.

1: What types of errors receive more feedback by language teachers?
2: Which feedback types lead to the greatest amount of uptake?
3: What types of learner errors lead to what types of teacher corrective feedback?

III. Methodology

A. Participants and Setting

This study was conducted in 6 classes with six different teachers. There were 60 students (about 8-12 students in each class). The participants were female adults aged 23-29 sitting at intermediate level in two branches of Jahad Language Institutes in Karaj. All students did not have any experience of being in target language environments either for a short time or a long time. The learners were studying English for two reasons, to be able to cope with their daily needs at work and to succeed at their university subject matters for their higher education. To assess the participants' level of proficiency, PET was administered to 85 learners at the beginning of the study. Before administering the test to the major group, the test was first piloted in a smaller group of students, consisting of 34 students whose proficiency level was similar to that of the main participants of the study. The reliability of the objective parts of the proficiency test was estimated through KR-21 formula which was 0.87.

The teachers were selected based on their willingness to cooperate in this study. All instructors were non -native speakers and their first language was Persian. All had either BA or MA degrees from state universities in Iran with a score of 7 or upper in IELTS exam.

B. Instrumentation

In this study, the interaction between teacher and students was recorded by means of a high-quality recorder. Then all interaction was transcribed for the purpose of data analysis. Students in each class were interviewed by the researchers to indicate their attitudes toward the way they were corrected. The researchers also got some information about each student`s L1, background knowledge of English, the aim of learning English, and having the experience of spending time in target language environment or not. It is worth mentioning that this intimate interview between the researchers and students was conducted at the end of the term to avoid any impact on students' interaction in the class.

C. Procedure

Having made sure of the homogeneity of the participants, the researchers observed and recorded about 45 hours of six teachers' classes in two branches of Jahad language Institutes for 6 weeks. First, the interaction between teacher and students was recorded by a high-quality recorder. Second, the recorded voices were transcribed. Third, all students` errors were identified and classified into different types. Fourth, all types of teachers' feedback following learners' errors were identified and their effects on students' learning (uptake) were examined. Finally, the researcher analyzed the data.

D. Collecting Data

Lyster and Ranta' s (1997) model was used for coding the data; in this model (Fig.1) the sequence begins with a learner's utterance containing at least one error following either teacher's corrective feedback or topic continuation. In the case of providing feedback from teacher, it could be either followed by uptake or topic continuation. Learners' non target utterance is either *repaired* or remained as a *needs repair* utterance. It is worth mentioning that two categories of feedback types, including, translation and multiple feedback; and one category to error types, namely, multiple error was added to Lyster & Ranta's category.

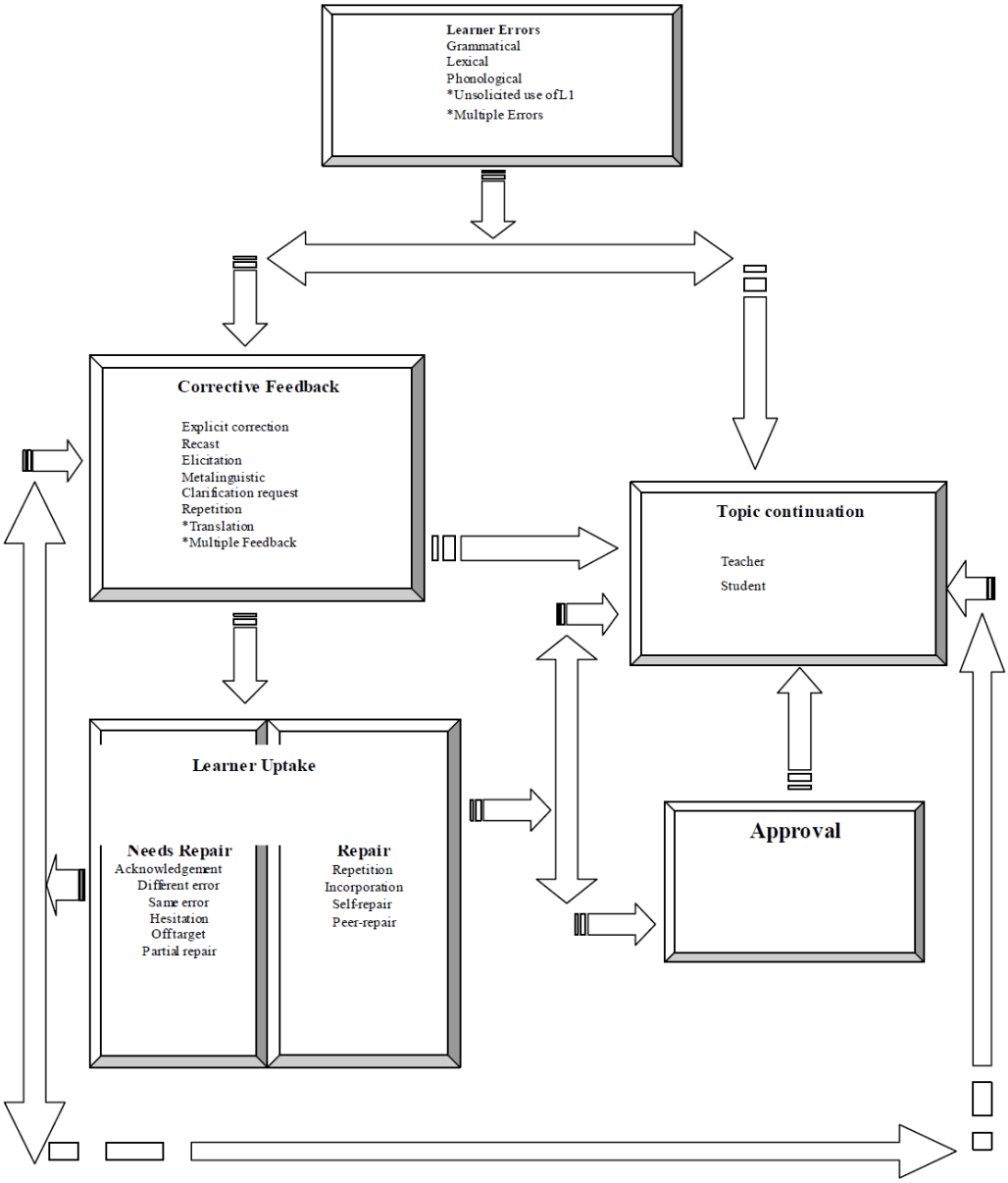

Figure 1. Error Treatment Sequence (From "Corrective Feedback and Learner Uptake: Negotiation of Form in Communicative Classrooms," By Lyster and Ranta, 1997)
*This model was modified by the researchers in two parts, Learner Errors and Corrective Feedback

IV. Results

After analyzing the data, five types of error including phonological, grammatical, lexical, multiple errors, and unsolicited use of L1 were recognized. Graph 2 presents the percentage of each type of errors committed by students. Among these 5 types of errors, phonological errors were committed by students mostly and unsolicited use of L1 was the least one (43% and 6% respectively).

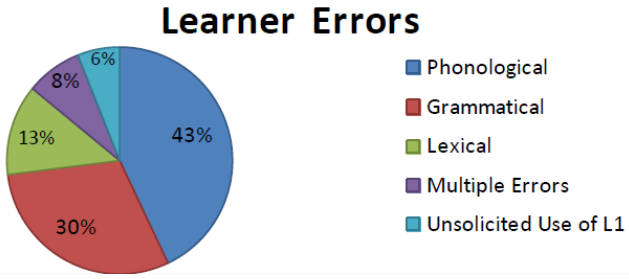

Figure 2. The Percentage of each Error Type

Fig. 3, gives us a general view about the percentages of different feedback types given to students while committing errors, including recast, explicit correction, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation, repetition, translation and multiple feedback. This graph also gives a percentage of those errors which were not provided feedbacks since instructors did not want to stop their students' speech. As the graph illustrates, 38% of errors received no feedback. Explicit correction and recast were two most frequent feedback types used by the instructors (20 and 16 % respectively). In comparison to other types of feedback, metalinguistic feedback and elicitations are two feedback types that occurred the least (both 2%).

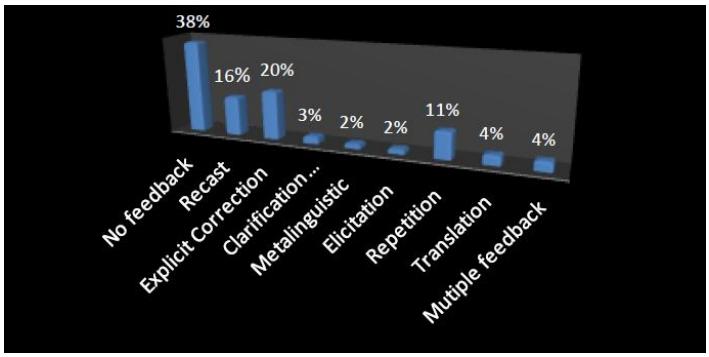

Figure 3. The Percentage of Different Types of Feedback

Graph 4 summaries the findings of this study in terms of students' total number of errors, teachers' provision of feedback, uptake moves-*repair* and *needs repair*. In this study, 1064 error episodes were found by the researcher in which 401 (38%) error cases were left without feedback. 663 (62%) students' errors were provided by 7 types of feedback and a combination of feedbacks (multiple feedback). After the students were provided different types of feedback, they either paid attention to teachers' feedback (uptake) or they did not (no uptake). From 663 teachers' feedback, 167 (25%) of feedbacks remained without uptake. This graph shows that approximately 40% of students' errors did not receive feedback by the instructors. The reasons for this ignorance or not giving feedback may be due to some factors such as topic continuation, not interrupting students' flow of speech, and motivating students to continue talking. From among 663 numbers of feedbacks offered, 496 had uptake, whereas 167 of teachers` feedbacks were not paid attention to by students.

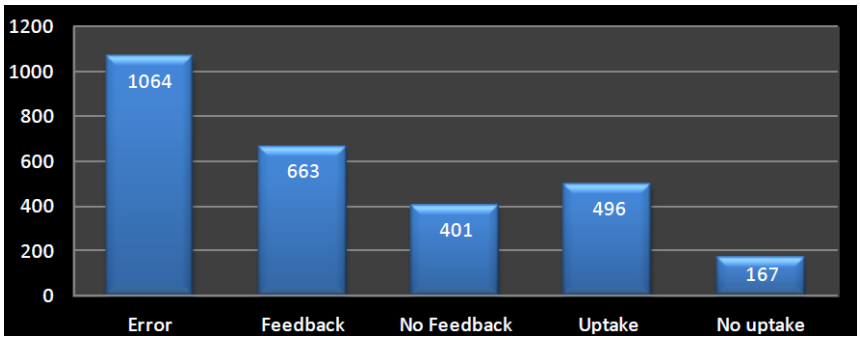

Figure 4. The Frequency of Occurrence of Errors, Feedbacks, and Uptakes

The following Graph (Fig. 5) presents a better picture of uptake. The whole percentage is shown in terms of no uptake and uptake, *repair* and *needs repair*. The first column graph indicates those feedbacks remained with no uptake (25%). The second and third column graphs revealed the percentage of uptake divided into two categories, *repair* and *needs repair*. 75% of teachers' feedback led to uptake, 40% *repair* and 35% *needs repair*.

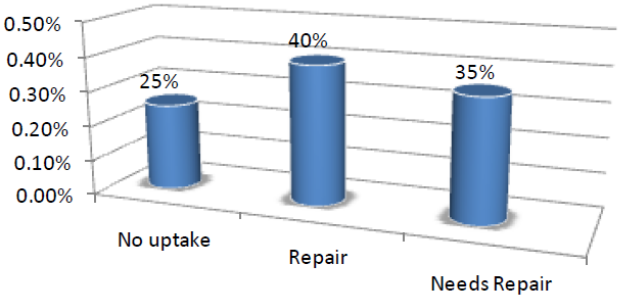

Figure 5. The Percentage of No uptake, Repair and Needs repair

Comparing the Frequency and Percentage of Uptake in this Study with Lyster and Ranta`s Study

Table1, illustrates the frequency of *repair, needs repair, and no repair*. As it was mentioned before, 25% of the teachers' feedbacks led to no feedback which was different from Lyster & Ranta's (1997) study in that 0.45% of feedback provided by teachers in their study was left without uptake. This showed that in this study, students were more motivated to respond to teachers' feedback either in *repair* or *needs repair* form. Table 2, shows that in Lyster and Ranta` study, the total percentage of repair was 0.27% while in the current study it was 0.40% showing the higher rate of learning. In the results of Lyster & Ranta' s study, the subjects did not respond to 69% of recasts and 50% of explicit correction, and there were cases of no uptake for other corrective feedback types such as repetition (22%), metalinguistic feedback (14%), and clarification requests (12%). It is worth mentioning that Lyster &Ranta did not consider two types of feedback; namely, translation and multiple feedback- due to the scarcity of these two types of feedback.

TABLE 1
THE FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF UPTAKE IN RELATION TO CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TYPE

Learner uptake type	Corrective Feedback Type								
	Recast	**Explicit correction**	**Clarification request**	**Metalinguistic feedback**	**Elicitation**	**Repetition**	**Translation**	**Multiple feedback**	**Total**
Repair	28 16%	80 37%	24 78%	14 70%	22 88%	60 51%	28 62%	10 27%	266 40%
Needs repair	61 36%	103 48%	2 6%	3 15%	3 12%	26 22%	17 38%	15 41%	230 35%
No uptake	83 48%	33 15%	5 16%	3 15%	0 0%	31 27%	0 0%	12 32%	167 25%
Total	172 100%	216 100%	31 100%	20 100%	25 100%	117 100%	45 100%	37 100%	663 100%

TABLE 2
UPTAKE FOLLOWING CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN LYSTER AND RANTA (1997)

Learner uptake type	Corrective Feedback Type						
	Recast	**Explicit correction**	**Clarification request**	**Metalinguistic feedback**	**Elicitation**	**Repetition of error**	**Total**
Repair	66 18%	18 36%	20 28%	26 45%	43 46%	11 31%	184 27%
Needs repair	49 31%	7 14%	44 60%	24 41%	51 54%	17 47%	192 28%
No uptake	260 69%	25 50%	9 12%	8 14%	25 0%	8 22%	310 45%
Total	375 100%	50 100%	73 100%	58 100%	94 100%	36 100%	663 100%

Analyzing Error Types Receiving Feedback

Table 3 presents the percentages of error types receiving feedback types. The data revealed that phonological and grammatical errors were mostly provided by explicit and recast. Lexical errors received mostly explicit feedback (32%). The least feedback provided for lexical were multiple feedback and metalinguistic. (0 and 2.5% respectively). Multiple error and unsolicited use of L1 received mostly recast. Both error types received no repetition feedback (0%).

TABLE 3
THE FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF ERROR TYPES LEADING TO FEEDBACK

Learner Error	Teacher Feedback								
	Recast	**Explicit Correction**	**Clarification Request**	**Metalinguistic**	**Elicitation**	**Repetition**	**Translation**	**Multiple feedback**	**Total**
Phonological	65 **23%**	94 **34%**	9 **3%**	4 **2%**	7 **3%**	60 **22%**	21 **7%**	17 **6%**	277 **100%**
Grammatical	41 **20%**	61 **29%**	11 **5%**	9 **4%**	8 **4%**	48 **23%**	14 **7%**	17 **8%**	209 **100%**
Lexical	37 **33%**	44 **39%**	8 **7%**	3 **2.5%**	6 **5.5%**	9 **8%**	5 **5%**	0 **0%**	112 **100%**
Multiple error	18 **48%**	8 **22%**	1 **3%**	2 **5.5%**	2 **5.5%**	0 **0%**	3 **8%**	3 **8%**	37 **100%**
L1 error	11 **40%**	9 **32%**	2 **7%**	2 **7%**	2 **7%**	0 **0%**	2 **7%**	0 **0%**	28 **100%**
Total	172 **26%**	216 **33%**	31 **4%**	20 **3%**	25 **4%**	117 **18%**	45 **7%**	37 **5%**	663 **100%**

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Regarding the first research question and data obtained, it was revealed that lexical errors led to the most feedback types. About 22% of the lexical errors were left without feedback and 78% received feedbacks. From this percentage of feedback, about 31% was provided by explicit correction and the least feedback type was provided by multiple feedback (0%). The reason for providing more feedback for lexical errors could be related to students' high desire to receive more feedback not for grammatical errors but for lexical errors. It also could be related to the students' level of language proficiency (intermediate level) since they are more motivated to be informed of their lexical errors. Analyzing the frequency and percentage of eight types of feedback showed that explicit feedback was the most frequent type of feedback (32%), and metalinguistic feedback as the least frequent feedback type (3%). The findings of the study were not in parallel with findings of Lyster and Ranta' (1997) study in such a way that recast was recognized as the most frequent type of feedback (55%) and the least was repetition(5%). However, repetition was recognized to be the third most frequent type of feedback.

While analyzing the second research question and data obtained from Table 1, it was revealed that although the frequency of elicitation feedback was less than other feedback types, it led to the greatest amount of uptake. Almost 88% of this feedback type led to *repair* and 12 % to *needs repair*. No percentage of this type of feedback was left without uptake. After this feedback type, clarification request, metalinguistic, and translation led to the greatest amount of uptake (78, 70, and 62% respectively). In the current study and Lyster and Ranta's study, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request led to the greatest amount of uptake by providing the students the opportunity to self correct. Recast, despite its high frequency, led to the lowest amount of uptake (16%). Probably this could be attributed to the ambiguity of recast (Lyster, 1998b). In other words, recast might be confusing to the learners and they might be confused whether the instructor was correcting the error or repeating the correct form or rephrasing their utterance. Another reason could be their proficiency level since some researchers emphasized that the effectiveness of the recast would be increased at advance levels (Doughty & Varela, 1998). In some cases, it was observed that the students understood the intended aim of the teacher`s provision of recast but not utter anything. It is worth mentioning that in some cases, instructors took the opportunity from students for reaction to recast.

Considering the third research question, the results showed that phonological and grammatical errors tended to invite mostly explicit feedback and recast. It seems that some teachers tried to provide recast for their students' phonological and grammatical error types to make a natural conversation, whereas some other teachers tended to explicitly inform their students of their errors. The least feedback types provided for phonological was metalinguistic (3%) despite its high percentage of uptake. Lexical errors received mostly explicit feedback (39%) and the least type of feedbacks provided for lexical errors were metalinguistic and multiple feedback (2.5 and 0% respectively). Multiple and L1 errors received mostly recast (48 and 40% respectively); whereas in Lyster and Ranta's study grammatical and phonological errors invited recast but not explicit feedback. Lexical errors favored negotiation of form including clarification of request, elicitation and metalinguistic feedback. The classroom observation revealed that some teachers were reluctant to use clarification, elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback since they thought these feedback types were time consuming and needed more patience.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Since in this study the frequency of repair (*self* and *peer repair)* was low in spite of their high effectiveness in learning a language, some teachers took this valuable opportunity from their students to correct their errors by themselves or their classmates, so it is highly recommended to instructors before correcting students' errors, give a chance to correct themselves or their classmates. Even after the individual student and class have failed to provide self-correction, it is still not recommended to give student the correct form. The instructor can repeat the incorrect utterance

and, by pausing immediately before or after the error, highlight it in the hope that there will be sufficient help to encourage a student to produce the correct answer.

Although recast is considered as the second most frequent type of feedback in this research, the effectiveness of this feedback type in leading to uptake is low, so instructors are recommended to use this type of feedback less than others or to combine it with other feedbacks; for example with elicitation:

S: I am agree with Sarah about this problem of society. (Error-grammar)

T: Really, ***do*** you ***agree*** with Sara about cultural problems of family? Sarah I am agree or I agree? (Feedback-Recast and Elicitation)

S: Sorry sir. I agree. (Uptake- repair-self)

In the above example, the instructor mixed two implicit and explicit feedback types to raise the effectiveness of feedback and inform the student of her error.

In this study, the classifications of errors was based on Lyster & Ranta`s category. The other studies could be done with other categories of errors e.g. errors related to stress, intonation, register, omissions and appropriacy. Classroom observation indicated that some instructors used other way(s) of correcting such as facial expression, delay error correction, …., so the future studies could consider more types of feedback. Since this study was carried out among male and female instructor, it seems that female students were more comfortable, motivated, and confident to negotiate with female instructors; they had more tendency to receive feedback especially explicit feedback from the instructors with the same gender. The next studies could be done to examine the effect of gender on receiving feedback in EFL context as a moderator variable.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 234-238, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.234-238

A Linguistic Study of Antonymy in English Texts

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***Abstract*—This paper aims to study antonymy in English texts. The significance of the study is presented first, then the definition of antonymy and its classification are elaborated with examples. The focus of the paper is the use of antonymy in specific English texts from linguistic perspective, in which abundant examples of antonyms are quoted to help the illustration and prove that comprehending and investigating into antonymy can help the understanding of different texts and the rising of literature flavor.**

***Index Terms*—antonymy, antonyms, English text, linguistic study**

I. Introduction

In linguistics, one of the most important fields is semantic relations, in particular, lexical relation, which includes synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, etc. Antonymy, oppositeness of meaning, has long been regarded as one of the most important semantic relations. Human thinking and language are closely related, and the significance of antonymy in human thinking is inevitably reflected in human language. Lyons (1968) says that human beings have a general tendency to polarize experience and judgment—to think in opposites. And this would explain the existence of a large quantity of antonyms in the vocabulary of human languages.

Antonymy is one of the semantic relations that are very useful. Antonym pairs are often used in texts and in a large number of proverbs and idioms to achieve rhetorical effects, for example, "a friend to everybody is a friend to nobody", no matter it is in common speech or in the literary writing. As a matter of fact, it is even one of the indispensable factors in those figures of speech such as oxymoron, paradox, and irony. In addition, antonymy plays a remarkably significant role in language teaching and learning, which can be shown in many definitions, for example, "tall" is defined as "not short", "trivial" is said to be "not important". It is often the same case when lexicographers define a word. Just as Jackson (1988) notes that, antonymy ranks the second (only next to synonymy), in terms of frequency, among the various semantic relations used in dictionary definitions.

II. Literature Review

A. The Definition of Antonymy

The word "antonymy" was coined by C. J. Smith as an opposite of "synonymy". Since 1867, lots of efforts have been taken to define "antonymy", but the problem is that the definition of antonymy tends to illustration rather than description. For example, if we would like to tell others what antonymy is, to give some examples like *old/young, tall/short, open/close, bad/good*, etc. will be more effective than to give a definition. However, finding a definition which could account for every example of antonymy is difficult, even problematic.

Lyons (1977) defines "antonym" as the words which are opposite in meaning and "antonymy" as the oppositeness between words. For example, "buy" and "sell" is a pair of antonyms and the relation between these two words is termed as antonymy. Leech (1981) puts forward the definition of antonym and antonymy in *Semantics* that the opposite meaning relation between the words is antonymy and word of opposite meaning is antonym. And a famous Chinese linguist Hu Zhuanglin (2001, p.164) simply says "antonymy is the name for oppositeness relation".

Traditional definitions of antonymy only concentrate on the oppositeness of meaning. Some traditional definitions are as follows:

word of opposite meaning; (Leech, 1981)
word of opposite sense; (Pyles & Algeo, 1970)
words that are opposite. (Watson, 1976)

These definitions are only rough ideas and over ambiguous. First, they don't explain the ways of oppositeness very concretely. The antonym pairs like *hot/cold, dead/alive* and *lend/borrow* differ from each other in the way of oppositeness. The pair *hot/cold* belongs to the gradable antonyms; the pair *dead/alive* belongs to the complementary antonyms; and the pair *lend/borrow* belongs to the relational antonyms. Second, these definitions focus more on the discrepancy of the antonyms but they ignore the similarity of the grammar and usage of each of the antonym pairs. Just look at another three pairs, *heat/cold, single/married*, and *beauty/ugly*. Although either of them is opposite in meaning, they could not be regarded as antonyms in that they are not the same in grammatical units. Furthermore, people use the antonyms most of

the time just for the effect of contrast. For instance, the juxtaposition of *spring* and *winter* can constantly be found in the English literature, as is presented in *Ode to the West Wind*, "If winter comes, can spring be far behind?"

Taking the above factors into consideration, Lyons classifies opposition into three categories: antonymy, complementarity and converseness in *Semantics* (1977) and *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics* (1968). Lyons only regards words that are gradable and opposite in meaning as antonyms. Cruse (1986) thinks the same way in his *Lexical Semantics*. So the term "antonym" only refers to the set of gradable opposites, which are mostly adjectives, for gradable antonyms reflect one distinguishing semantic feature: polar oppositeness. However, in our daily life, words like *male*/*female*, *dead*/*alive*, *husband*/*wife* are also considered as antonym pairs, for these words are also opposite in meaning. Therefore, the other two categories, complementarity and converseness, are included in the field of antonymy only in a very broad sense.

In general, there are two criteria in defining antonymy: semantic and lexical. We explain elaborately the antonymy being semantic above, and yet not all semantically opposed words are antonyms. Cruse (1986) exemplifies this with the words *tubby* and *emaciated*. Almost all established antonyms have synonyms which could not constitute the antonym pairs, for example, the antonym pair of *heavy* and *light* is better than *weighty* and *insubstantial*; antonym pair of *fast* and *slow* is better opposites rather than *speedy* and *sluggish*; antonym pair of *happy* and sad is more reasonable than *ecstatic* and *miserable*.

Although both of the antonymy and synonymy link words together in the lexicon, Gross et al. (1988) argue that antonymy and synonymy are different. They say while synonymy is "a relation between lexical concepts", antonymy is "a relation between words, not concepts". Justeson and Katz (1991) also refer to antonymy as a lexical relation, "specific to words rather than concepts". As a matter of fact, the definition of antonymy must be lexical as well as semantic. Antonyms need to have "oppositeness of meaning", but they also need to have a strong, well-established lexical relationship with one another.(Jackson, 1988)

Lexicographer Egan (1968) makes a rather satisfying definition of "antonymy" based on her understanding of the nature of the antonymy: "An antonym is a word so opposed in meaning to another word; it's equal in breadth or range of application, that is, negates or nullifies every single one of its implications". This definition shows clearly what makes two words be antonyms. The antonym pairs are equal in breadth or range of application but opposed in meaning. And the words which contrast in meaning may not be antonyms because they may be different in their breadth or range of application. Therefore, we can draw a conclusion that Egan's definition of antonymy may be fitter or easier to be employed into the actual cases than the theories and definitions of antonymy that have been referred to above.

B. The Classification of Antonymy

There are generally three kinds of sense relations, that is, sameness relation, oppositeness relation and inclusiveness relation. Antonymy is the name for oppositeness relation. And there are three main types of antonymy, that is, gradable antonymy, complementary antonymy, and converse antonymy. (Hu, 2001, p.164-168)

(1) Gradable Antonymy

Gradable antonymy is the commonest type of antonymy. The antonym pairs like *hot/cold, big/small* and *tall/shor*t all belong to the gradable antonyms. We can find that they are mainly adjectives. The gradable antonymy has three characteristics: first, as the name suggests, they are gradable, that is, the members of a pair differ in terms of degree; second, antonyms of this kind are graded against different norms; third, one member of a pair, usually the term for the higher degree, serves as the cover term. (Hu, 2001, p.164)

As for the first characteristic, it also means that if you deny one thing, you do not necessarily assert the other. And the antonym pairs may have the comparative and superlative degrees. For example, "good" and "bad", both of these two words have the comparative and superlative degrees: "better"/"best" and "worse"/"worst". Therefore, being not good is not necessarily bad; and being not bad is not necessarily good. Between "good" and "bad", we can find a degree that is "so-so". Look at other examples, between the two extremes of the size "big" and "small", there is a degree that is "medium"; between the two extremes of the temperature "hot" and "cold", there are degrees that are "warm" and "cool". From the information referred to above, we can see that the gradable antonyms differ in terms of degree.

Look at the second characteristic, it means that there is no absolute criterion by which we tell an object is "big" and another is "small". The criterion is relative but not absolute. As we all know, *a small car* is always bigger than *a big apple*. This is why the antonyms of this kind are graded based on different norms.

As for the third characteristic, one of the antonym pairs is the cover term, which is known as "unmarked". "Unmarked" is used more widely than "marked". We may ask "how old are you" or "how tall is she" instead of "how young are you" or "how short is she". In that, "old" and "tall" are cover terms, "unmarked"; and "young" and "short" are marked. The distinction between "unmarked" and "marked" reflect the potential value system that the speech community holds. People want to be *tall* rather than *short*.

(2) Complementary Antonymy

Antonyms like *awake/asleep, married/single, pass/fail, alive/dead* and *male/female* are of this type. Complementary antonyms also have three characteristics: first, they divide up the whole of a semantic field completely; second, the norm in this type is absolute; third, there is no cover term for the two members of a pair. (Hu, 2001)

As for the first characteristic, unlike the gradable antonyms, the complementary antonyms share a semantic field. But between the two complementary antonyms, there is no intermediate ground. As Cruse (1986) describes it, the essence of a

pair of complementary antonym is that between them they exhaustively divide some conceptual domain into two mutually exclusive compartments, so that what does not fall into one of the compartments must necessarily fall into the other. The members of the antonym pairs of this kind is complementary to each other. For instance, "He is more *female* than *male*". Actually, he is a *male* but not *female*. He is a *male* but he is closer to the state of being *female*. The denial of *male* is the assertion of *female* and the assertion of *female* is the denial of *male*. They don't have the comparative and superlative degrees. And they don't have the intermediate degree between these two words of an antonym pair.

The second characteristic is that the norm in this type of antonymy is absolute, that is, the norm is the same when it is used for all the things it is applicable to. The criteria to tell male from female is the same when we refer to the human beings and the animals. And the death of human beings is the same as that of any animal.

As for the third characteristic, in the complementary antonymy, there is no cover term or covered term. We can not ask somebody's sex like age. It means we cannot say "how boy/male is it" like "how old are you". We should ask "Is it a boy or a girl". That's a normal question.

(3) Converse Antonymy

The antonym pairs like *husband/wife, doctor/patient, teacher/student, buy/sell, above/below* and *employer/employee* are all converse antonymy. They show a reversal relationship. A is B's husband means B is A's wife. A is B's doctor means B is A's patient. A is B's teacher means B is A's student. It is also known as relational opposites.

Egan (1968) describe these antonym pairs as pairs of words which include such a relationship that one of them cannot be used without suggesting the other. Therefore we can see that there is a huge difference between converse antonymy and the other two subtypes of antonymy, that is, one should presupposes the other as for the two members that involved in an antonym pair. If there is a buyer, then there must be a seller. We cannot say he is a husband, we must say he is whose husband, because one can not be a husband if he has no wife. Just like the parent who can not be a parent if he has no child. In this relationship, one can not talk about A without B.

However, there is something special to the "child". Child and parent is an antonym pair if the child means the parent's son or daughter. But when it refers to somebody under the age of eighteen, *child* is the antonym of *adult*. It is the same as the word "teacher". Teacher is a single word when it refers to an occupation. Only when it means one is a teacher only to his student, can this word constitute an antonym pair with "student".

III. Antonymy in Specific English Texts

Antonymy helps achieve textual cohesion. It reveals the opposition and the unity of objects in languages. Employing antonyms in English texts correctly reveals the oppositeness of objects and produces a strong sense of comparison. Therefore, writers are fond of and good at employing antonyms in their literature works, because it makes the works artistically charming and powerfully convincing.

A. Antonymy Used in Poetry

Antonyms are widely used in poetry. English poet Alfred Tennyson had the famous lines in his *Ulysses* "Though much is *taken*, much *abides*; and though/ We are not *now* that strength which in the *old* days/ Moved *earth* and *heaven*; that which we are, we are;/ One equal-temper of heroic hearts,/ Made *weak* by time and fate, but *strong* in will/ To *strive*, to seek, to find, and not to *yield*." How encouraging it is! Even a man in despair can get the power from the lines. And what makes the lines memorable and powerful is the use of antonyms.

In *Romeo and Juliet*, Romeo has the poem, "O *loving hate*,/ O *anything*, or *nothing* first created!/ O heavy *lightness*, serious *vanity*,/ *Misshapen* chaos of *well-seeming* forms,/ *Feather* of *lead*, *bright smoke*, *cold fire*, *sick health*,/ Still-*waking sleep*, that is not what it is!"

B. Antonymy Used in Dramas

Antonymy is also widely used in dramas. It can be seen obviously from the works of William Shakespeare. In *Romeo and Juliet* "My only *love* sprung from my only *hate*. Too *early* seen *unknown*, and *known* too *late*. Prodigious birth of love it is to me, that I must *love* a *loathed*" In the quotation, four antonym pairs are there and they constitute the well known figures of speech in English, oxymoron and paradox. When we read the words at first, we may think them very ridiculous, illogical and raving. However, when we explore the plot of the drams, we can find that the drama uses these antonym pairs and corresponding figures of speech to depict the contradictory mind of Juliet on the occasion. Juliet says this in Act 1 Scene 5 when she finds out who Romeo is. She's expressing a bunch of information and emotion all at once here—she's fallen in love with Romeo, but she's upset that he is a member of the rival family. She saw him first (too early) and fell for him before she found out who he was (too late). Love now seems very strange to her, that she can love someone she's supposed to hate.

Antonyms for the most of time are used to make irony and oxymoron. In *The Tragedy of Julius Caesar*, Caesar states, "I thank you for your *pains* and *courtesy*." Different listeners interpret it differently. Caesar meant one thing; to the audience, who knows that Caesar will soon be killed, the statement means something entirely different. Oxymoron is formed whenever two words that are contrary in normal usage are combined together. (Watson, 2006, p.29)The master of the oxymoron was William Shakespeare. In the Act 5 Scene 1 of Shakespeare's *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, Theseus remarks about the choices for the entertainment in the evening: "A *tedious brief* scene of young Pyramus/ And

his love Thisby; very *tragical mirth*./ *Merry* and *tragical*? *tedious* and *brief*?/ That is *hot ice* and *wondrous strange* snow. How shall we find the concord of this discord? ”

C. Antonymy Used in Novels

In the process of writing novels, numerous novelists are very good at employing antonyms. The following is excerpted from *A Tale of Two Cities* written by Charles Dickens. “It was the *best* times, it was the *worst* times, it was the age of *wisdom*, it was the age of the *foolishness*, it was the epoch of *belief*, it was the epoch of *incredulity*, it was the season of *light*, it was the season of *darkness*, it was the spring of *hope*, it was the winter of *despair*, we had *everything* before us, we has *nothing* before us.” It uses six pairs of antonyms to depict the complicate and dangerous atmosphere before the French revolution. These six antonym pairs are parallel and overwhelming.

In Maxwell Anderson’s *Lost in the Stars*, you will read “That you are all lost here, *black* and *white*, *rich* and *poor*, the *fools* and the *wise*!” In O. Henry’s *The Duel*, you will read “I despise its very vastness and power. It has the *poorest millionaires*, the *littlest great* men, the *haughtiest beggars*, the *plainest beauties*, the *lowest skyscrapers*, the *dolefulest pleasures* of any town I ever saw.” In T. Dreiser’s *Sister Carrie* you will read “there was an *audible stillness*, in which the *common* voice sounded *strange*.” Every famous novelist without exception has a good master of antonyms.

D. Antonymy Used in Speeches

When antonymy is used in a speech, a clear-cut stand and a clear point of view are easily made. The language has stronger rhythm and helps being persuasive. As a result, many people employ antonymy in their speeches to state their opinions, justify their positions and influence the public opinion. This can be best seen from the speeches of American presidents.

Observing Barack Obama’s first victory speech in 2008, we are easy to read following lines: “It's the answer spoken by *young* and *old*, *rich* and *poor*, *Democrat* and *Republican*, *black*, *white*, Latino, Asian, Native American, *gay*, *straight*, *disabled* and *not disabled* — Americans who sent a message to the world that we have never been a collection of *red* states and *blue* states; we are, and always will be, the United States of America.”… “In this country, we *rise* or *fall* as one nation — as one people.”… “our stories are *singular*, but our destiny is *shared*, and a new dawn of American leadership is at hand. To those who would tear this world down: We will *defeat* you. To those who seek peace and security: We *support* you.”… “And tonight, I think about all that she's seen throughout her century in America — the *heartache* and the *hope*; the *struggle* and the *progress*”… “because after 106 years in America, through the *best* of times and the *darkest* of hours, she knows how America can change. Yes, we can.”

Abraham Lincoln once in his *Address at Gettyburg* had “The brave men, *living* and *dead*, who struggled here, have consecrated it, for above our poor power to *add* or *detract*. The world will little note nor long *remember* what we *say* here, but it can never *forget* what they *did* here. ”. The effect achieved by the use of these antonyms is rather striking. With the beautiful language forms with the use of antonymy the persuasive power of the speakers are strengthened greatly and the audience are more likely to be convinced to a greater extent. Examples are many, not only in presidential speeches, like Barack Obama, Abraham Lincoln. Martin Luther King had “one hundred years later, the Negro lives on a lonely island of a *poverty* in the midst of vast ocean of material *prosperity.*”

E. Antonymy Used in Proverbs

Proverb is a form of language with the presentation of each figure of speech, which is a fixed short verse naturally coming from the usual use of some composition of the language. (Xu, 2009) Proverb is simple; meanwhile, it entertains a thought deeply. When antonyms are used in proverbs, the rhetorical effect of phonological harmony, formal beauty and conciseness are achieved.

Several examples are given as follows. “More *haste*, less *speed*.” “Easy *come*, easy *go*.” “Art is *long*, life is *short*.” “An *idle* youth, a *needy* age.” “Small sorrows speak; great sorrows are silent.” Very famous people are more skilful of using antonymy in proverbs. George Herbert has “Love makes all *hard* hearts *gentle*”. And George Eliot has “It is surely better to *pardon* too much than to *condemn* too much”. All these examples listed above are neat in the construction of the sentences. No matter visually or phonologically, a kind of beauty of harmony can be sensed, which helps convey profound messages.

IV. Conclusion

Antonyms are words with opposite meaning. And antonymy refers to the relationship of oppositeness. Antonyms are exceedingly valuable in defining the exact meaning of a given word and its synonyms. Antonyms enable us to express briefly the opposite of a particular thought, often for the sake of contrast.

From the linguistic point of view, one of the main concerns of studying antonymy is to determine the boundaries of antonymy. Antonymy has been divided into three different types by the linguists, that is, gradable antonymy, complementary antonymy and converse antonymy. Gradable antonymy is described as a relation, that is, “not A” doesn’t equal B. There is an intermediate form between A and B. Complementary antonymy is a relation that “not A” equals B. There is no intermediate ground between them. Converse antonymy refers to a kind of reversal relationship.

Antonymy plays rather important roles in specific English texts, especially in poetry, novels, dramas, speeches and

proverbs. Antonymy helps the English textual cohesion. Employing antonyms in texts correctly reveals the oppositeness of the things and produces the strong sense of comparison. Therefore, writers are fond of and are good at employing the antonyms in their literature works, and it contributes to achieve characterization, scene description, statement of opinions, discussion and refutation.

The linguistic study of antonymy in English texts helps readers understand and appreciate authors' intention much more easily. Teachers who emphasize the study of antonymy in class will find their students have a higher reading ability. However, the study of antonymy should not stop at linguistic level. Probing into the rhetorical function of antonymy may help us improve the ability of using language and heighten the effect of language output.

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ISSN 1798-4769
Journal of Language Teaching and Research, Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 239-244, January 2014

doi:10.4304/jltr.5.1.239-244

Literary Translation through the Lens of Poststructuralism

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***Abstract*—The dichotomy between the writer and the translator is de-stabilized with the announcement of death of the author. This paper applies Gadamer's and Barthes's theories to literary translation in an attempt to reappraise the role of the translator. It is believed that the translator is involved in a triad act of transcodification. As the reader of the source text, he is an interlingual transcodifier, and as the writer of the target text, he acts intercontextually and intraliguistically. The given triad task pinpoints the limitations of some of Barthes's notions, specifically the inefficiency of his distinction between 'readerly' and 'writerly' texts. Viewed as such, the freedom of the reader/translator in the playfield of signifiance is challenged by the translator's interlingual and intercontextual transcodification. In a Barthesian key note, the act of translation is performance-based. Hence, the translator is involved in a doing-translation process. Utilizing Barthes's view on the processual nature of reading/writing, the present paper suggests a constant reassessment of the already-translated texts which is necessary for keeping pace with globalization.**

***Index Terms*—Roland Barthes, literary text, readerly, writerly, translation**

I. Introduction

Conventionally, translation is viewed as a lowly paradigm and the translated text undergoes a subsidiary position vis-à-vis the hegemonic status of the original text. The translated text is therefore considered as the ultimate output of projecting the text from the source language to the target language. But when the translator translates literary works, such typical notions are challenged. Here, the translator attempts to capture the source text with all its stylistic and semantic merits and strives to produce it in the target language. The literary text's dynamics and multidimensionality involve a fuller and more profound appreciation of the source text including all of its inter- and con-textual features.

This paper adopts an interdisciplinary approach and touches upon literary translation and its challenges in the light of Roland Barthes's poststructuralist notions. Using Barthes's views on text and textuality, the present paper reveals the limitations of the semiotician's theories when applied to literary works. Simultaneously, Barthes's key theories are utilized in an attempt to reach a new definition of translation as well as its urgency in the postmodern world. Accordingly, the paper argues that translation is more than a mere projection, but rather a textual process; an interlingual performance, which is in constant change even after the translated text is concretized.

II. The Theoretical Framework

In the speedily-globalized world today, there is an urge to satisfy the basic human needs for communication across diverse cultural borders. Actually, the need to know each other and thereby to define oneself in the light of the other(s), and to determine one's position with respect to the other(s), has made translation an indispensable part of everyone's life. With regard to such great urgency, Albercht Neubert and Gregory M. Shreve have become aware of the political implications of the act of translation. Therefore, they argue that "Translation arises from a deep-seated need to understand and come to terms with others" (1999, p. 3). Acknowledging the danger of falling in the trap of political and ideological agendas, Neubert and Shreve explain further:

The capacity of translation for violence ... is no greater than its capacity to heal, to enrich and to educate. ... If we do not translate, then one of the most significant resources we have for conquering the isolation imposed by linguistic and cultural difference is squandered (1992, p. 3).

In literary texts, the danger of ideologizing one's translation is reduced. The issue of ideology and literary works is the core of Macherey's argument. Like any other works, literary works for him are pervaded by ideology. He proposes that in order to transcend the text's ideological forces, one has to begin with "the cracks in its façade, with those sites

where the text is not fully in control of itself" (Bretens, 2001, p. 91). By focusing on what the text does not say and on what it represses rather than expresses, Macherey states that "literature reveals the gaps in ideology" (Bretens, 2001, p. 91). Similarly, Terry Eagleton is interested "not in what makes a text coherent, but in what makes it incoherent" (cited in Bretens, 2001, p. 92).

What really distinguishes Macherey's perspective from that of a poststructuralist like Roland Barthes is the former's belief in an objective truth. According to psychoanalysts like Jacques Lacan, philosophers like Derrida, historical theorists like Michel Foucault, and semioticians like Barthes, objectivity has been replaced by subjectivity and the long-held notion of truth has been rendered relative, context-bound and subjected to deferral and differential relations. For Macherey, the literary text is therefore the site of power struggle between the dominant ideology and counter-ideologies. However, the literary text for Barthes is the site of infinite play between the signifiers.

In his inaugural lecture at the college de France entitled 'Lecture', Barthes believes that language is "a medium of power" (1980, p. 19). He declares:

In language ... subjugation and power are confounded inevitably. If one regards freedom not only as the might to wrest from power but also, above all, the capability of not subjugating anybody, then freedom is possible outside language only. (1980, p. 20)

Barthes looks for the coveted freedom in literature arguing that "this salutary outwitting, this side-stepping, this magnificent lure which enables one to hear the language outside of power, in the splendor of a permanent revolution of language, is what I on my part call: literature" (1980, pp. 23-4). Thus, for Barthes, literature and literary texts are potentially beyond power.

In the light of this potentiality, Barthes distinguishes between the text and the work. In his essay, "From Work to Text," Barthes clearly pinpoints the differences between both of them. The following is the first difference:

The work can be seen (in bookshops, in catalogues, in exam syllabuses), the text is a process of demonstration, speaks according to certain rules (or against certain rules); the work can be held in the hand, the text is held in language, only exists in the movement of a discourse. ... The Text is experienced only in an activity of production. (1977, p. 286)

The other difference is that the work closes on a signified, but the text practices the infinite deferment of the signified. Barthes attributes the infinity of the signifier to the idea of *playing*. He mentions that "the generation of the perpetual signifier ... in the field of the text is realized ... according to a serial movement of disconnections, overlappings, variations" (1977, pp. 287-288). The plurality of the text is another feature which Barthes defines as the text's irreducibility. According to him, "the text is not a coexistence of meanings but a passage, an overcrossing; thus it answers not to an interpretation ... but to an explosion, a dissemination" (1977, p. 288). In fact, all these features lead us to view the text as a productive process rather than as a concrete entity. Indeed, it is this notion of text and textuality which, when applied to translation studies, sheds a new light on translation and translators.

For Barthes, literature is not a finished product, but "a writing practice" (Vollbrecht, 1994, p. 72). This view has been deeply rooted in his belief in the productivity of the text. He writes:

The text is productivity .... Even when written (fixed), it does not stop working, maintaining a process of production. The text works what? Language. It deconstructs the language of communication, representation or expression ... and reconstructs another language, voluminous, having neither bottom nor surface, for its space is not of the figure, the painting, the frame, but the stereographic space of combative play, which is infinite once one has gone outside the limits of current communication (1981, pp. 36-37).

A literary text for Barthes is considered as "the very materiality of the signifiers" (Klinkowitz, 1988, p. 48). This materiality is the realm of interaction, or what Barthes calls, play. It is the signifying practice where the text and the reader meet. For this meeting to take place, the text must be conceived as a production. Barthes replaces signification with signifiance. In this regard, Klinkowitz explains, "signification is something which happens on the level of product, but the signifying work of signifiance happens in the realm of production. The language of writing enters the reader in order to work him or her and undo previous senses of signification–*signifiance* is therefore the text actively at work within the reader" (1988, p. 78). Through this notion of signifiance, Barthes equates reading with writing:

Now, I am convinced that a theory of reading (that reading which has always been the poor relation of literary creation) is absolutely dependent on a theory of writing: to read a text is to discover – on a corporeal, not a conscious level – *how it was written*, to invest oneself in production, not the product. This movement of coincidence can be initiated either in the usual fashion, by pleasurably reliving the poetics of the work, or in a more modern way, by removing from oneself all forms of censorship to allow the text the freedom of all its semantic and symbolic excesses; at this point, to read is truly to write: I write – or rewrite – the text I am reading, even better and more searchingly than its author did (1985, p. 189).

III. Statement of the Problem

How can Barthes's revolutionary theories on reading be linked to translation studies? This question is addressed in this paper. The interdisciplinary methodology of the paper takes us back to Hans-Georg Gadamer and his notion of reading. For this hermeneutist, "Reading is already translation, and translation is translation for a second time" (cited in Chew, 1999, p. 1). It should be noted that the reading that Gadamer speaks about is not reading in its conventional form. Or rather, it is the Barthesian deconstructive theory of reading. Although Roland Barthes delegitimizes hermeneutics as

a structuralist paradigm, his convictions on reading resemble those of Gadamer. This resemblance can be detected in the identification that Gadamer draws a distinction between reading and translation. On the similarities and differences between hermeneutics and Barthes, Peter Vollbrecht explains:

Barthes's view of the text productivity could also be subscribed to by a hermeneutic position which identifies the process of understanding with the event of a meeting of producer, text and reader. The idea, however, that, secondly, the text works as a deconstruction of language is not committed to the idea of understanding any more. It rather opens up a new horizon: the representative function of language is dismissed as metaphysical presupposition. (Maurya, 1994, p. 73)

Despite such a discrepancy, this paper hybridizes Gadamer's with Barthes's view and equates translation with writing. Translation is reading in a Barthesian sense. The translator meets the text and plays with its signifiers and lets the text work on him/her. This mutual relationship would in turn result in the translated text which is the outcome of the translator's attempt to rewrite the source text in the target language. For Barthes, signifiance is indeed a locus of activity.

Signifiance seeks texts not in their meaning but in their differences; it tries to say no longer from where the text comes (historical criticism) nor even how it is made (structural analysis), but how it is unmade, how it explodes, disseminates – by what coded paths it goes off (1977, pp. 126-127).

Such meanings are created when the reader is involved in the act of reading/writing. But what happens when the reader takes a step further in an endeavor to translate the text in the target language? In this stage, the reader is engaged in an interlingual signifiance. What happens in his infinite play with codes and signifiers of the text is extended to intralingual territories where linguistic borders of the source language meet those of the target language. The semantic dissemination which occurs for the reader/writer in Barthesian signifiance takes on a more complicated twist when the translator strives to recreate the same signifiance in another linguistic sign system with all its potential challenges and gaps.

Here, the translator's task contradicts his/her freedom in the signifiance. As the reader/writer of the text, s/he surrenders to the interplay with the signifiers of the text. But as the translator, s/he has to decide, choose, delete, add, and change the signifiers and codes of the source language in order to recreate them in another linguistic format. This ambivalence between translator as reader/writer and translator as translator of the text shows the limitations of Barthes's theories when applied to translation studies. The roots of these limitations could be traced back in the utopian vision that Barthes sets up in his theories on reading. If the Barthesian reader/writer comes to translate the text in the target language, s/he must not only be good at reading/writing, but also familiar with the linguistic capacities and limitations of both source and target languages. S/he should have the ability to create the requisite capabilities in the target language. Such an ideal concept can be easily theorized, but in practice it sounds unattainable. The idealistic view of the translator is similar to Barthes's utopia when the reader of the text becomes its writer. His idealism is depicted as follows:

In fact, the big problem is now to make the reader a writer. When the day comes that the reader is made into a virtual or potential writer, all problems of readability will disappear. If one reads an apparently unreadable text, in the movement of its writing, one comprehends it very well. Evidently a complete transformation – I should say almost an education – is needed; for that, one needs a social transformation. ... I would foresee ... such a thing as writing action, but supposing of course that there would also be numerous channels for the text, so that one would not be attacked by "boring" texts, if I can say – that is, inadequate. (Klinkowitz, 1988, p. 87)

Such a portrait of the ideal reader can also be true for the translator who has been "educated" to become a Barthesian reader before becoming a Barthesian translator. To be an ideal translator, one should be creative and innovative enough to reproduce a text in the target language with almost the same potentialities of the source text both in form and content so that the target readers can also experience the same signifiance. However, facts have proved the opposite. No matter how good the talents of the translator are, s/he has to decide on the most appropriate and closest form and content to the source text.

Thus, although the reader/writer might cherish the potentialities of the text while playing with its signifiers, he still has a number of options that have to be made in order to narrow down the text to specific codes. This reduction entails freezing the interlingual play on the signifiers of the text and imposing some codes over others. This experience leads to the conclusion that an ideal reader/writer never makes an ideal translator in the Barthesian sense. This is because the translator himself steps into the text as a transcendental signifier. Although s/he brings into the text other codes and sign systems, s/he has to enact, to decide, to privilege, and therefore to marginalize some options for the sake of others. This view of the translator makes the Barthesian distinction between readerly and writerly texts blurred and justifies his preference for the latter.

Barthes's objective in reading a text is to "reenact the writing of the text itself". Referring to this point, Klinkowitz mentions:

In this manner even rereading is more play than consumption, since everything is allowed to signify without limit until the accumulation of codes assumes its direction toward the text's total effect. ‘Writerly value’, as Barthes puts it, transforms the reader from consumer to producer, and in so doing activates the text itself. (1988, p. 80).

The writerly text is, as Barthes put it, "ourselves writing, before the infinite play of the world ... is traversed, intersected, stopped, plasticized by some singular system ... which reduces the plurality of entrances, the opening of networks, the infinity of languages" (1974, p. 5). By contrast, "to end, to fill, to join, to unify – one can say that this is

the basic requirement of the readerly" (1974, p. 105). Accordingly, the text in which the reader is passive and has the least chance for play is readerly. The writerly text is the multilateral text which necessitates the reader's active participation in the process of reading. It is the writerly text which Barthes favors because it provides the fullest scope for the reader to rewrite the text. However, when the reader steps in the text as a translator, such a distinction proves inefficient. Being readerly or writerly, the translator is already the active reader, located in interligual moments, and the writer of the target text as well. It is true that with writerly texts the translator has to be more alert and active like any other readers. But this does not necessarily mean that in readerly texts the translator is passive because s/he is already involved, if not in the text's signifiance, at least in the interlingual significance when the two languages merge in order to give birth to another text. Therefore, this paper supports the view that Barthesian distinction between readerly and writerly texts is pale when applied to translation studies, because in each case the translator is always active and participant in the process of rewriting the text in the target language.

Marcel Proust reveals that in the process of writing, “the writer is producing complicated translation of the 'text' of the world: we generate a second translation in our attempt to return to the native tongue of reality” (cited in Chew, 1999, p. 1). Reality for Barthes fades away, but just like Proust, he believes in the textuality of the world. For Proust, the writer is a translator. By the same token, Barthes assigns to the reader the task of writing the text. Hybridizing the two notions, the paper suggests that both the writer and the reader are translators; each one is found to be involved in a continual play with signifiers. When this new approach is applied to translation studies, one can no longer see the translator as merely an interlingual communicator. Rather, s/he acquires a triad task: s/he reads, writes, and transcodes. In the Barthesian signifiance, the translator plays with the signs and lets the code work on him/her. Through this interplay, s/he rewrites the text. When s/he comes to the task of interlingual transcodification, the interplay between the signifiers extends to the realms of the two languages (the source and the target). The expansion of signifiance achieved would render the task of the translator ambivalently easy and difficult. It becomes easy and more joyful because the greater the significance is, the more options will be provided for the semiotic interplay. It becomes difficult due to a couple of obvious reasons. The first is that in the signifiance, the translator like any other reader is subject to the dangers of interpretation and misinterpretation. This would inextricably monitor his/her translation in a specific way which might result in the distortion and misinterpretation of the source text. The second reason is the intercultural and interlingual gaps which sharpen the differences between the two languages. It is the translator’s responsibility, albeit restricted to the signifiers of the text, to decide how to close the gaps.

The other key issue in Barthes's theories is his focus on the erotic pleasure which arises out of the interplay between the reader and the text. In the "Theory of Text", he writes: "the text comes about, as soon as ... the scriptor and/or the reader begin to play with the signifier" (1981, p. 37). The text "comes about" implies that the birth of the text encountered between the reader and the text is an erotic event. In Peter Vollbrecht's words, "[t]he sexual-textual 'coming' happens along with the reader's erotic play with the signifying system and Barthes's idea of an erotic text takes shape" (1994, p.74). Barthes derives the notion of textual eroticism from his poststructuralist interpretation of ‘meaning’. For poststructuralists, meaning is the function of the dynamic drive of the signifiers. Thus, meaning belongs entirely to the realm of the signifier and thereby to the reader. In the Barthesian signifiance, which is "the place of structuration" (1981, p. 38), it is a signifiance-in-the-making, that is, the coming of significance. This is why signifiance is thoroughly erotic. Barthes uses the French "jouissance" to describe the erotic pleasure of signifiance. This selection makes him differentiate between jouissance and pleasure. In Vollbrecht’s words:

A text of jouissance cannot be interpreted because any attempt to talk about jouissance is tantamount to converting jouissance into pleasure, which is enjoyment restricted to cultural norms and identity. (1994, p. 77).

It is Barthes’s jouissance, which he utilizes to designate that the unsayable pleasure experienced in signifiance can also be applied to the process of translation. It is out of the translator's/reader's involvement with the text that the translated text is born. As a result, the translated text "comes about" when the translator and the text interplay.

The Barthesian erotic involvement with the text has been long hinted at, albeit by variation, by the Earl of Roscommon (1633-85). Roscommon concludes his poem on the distinction between translation and writing as follows:

Then seek a Poet who your ways does bend,
And choose an Author as you choose a Friend;
United by this sympathetick Bond,
You grow familiar, intimate and fond.
Your thoughts, your Words, your Stiles, your Souls agree,
No longer his Interpreter, but He. (Wentworth, 1992, pp. 43-5)

On the concluding lines, Susan Bassnett elaborates:

The translator is to choose carefully, to seek an author with whom there is a sense of empathy. ... Through this relationship and by means of a close reading of the source author's work, a symbiosis takes place and the translator and author of the source text are fused in a mystical orgasmic relationship where they cease to exist as separate entities and become one (1996, p. 11).

In the mid-twentieth century when poststructuralist bells tolled the death of the author through Roland Barthes and Michel Foucault, it is the text which replaced the source author. Hence, it is with the text that the translator is fused in a demystified "orgasmic relationship" called "jouissance" by Barthes. Here, it is worth mentioning that the announcement

of the death of the author has led to the death of the original, which in turn leads to a deconstruction of copy/original binary. In Bassnett's words, "once the original ceases to be, the translation can no longer be perceived as subsidiary to it and the translator is released from the thrall to the all-powerful source" (1996, p. 13).

Concentrating on Roscommon's last lines, Bassnett states that "the translator ceases to be an interpreter and becomes the source writer for the target reader" (1996, p. 11). She clearly re-echoes John Dryden's views on the role of the translator. Reclaiming his independence as a translator, Dryden reverses the master-servant dichotomy which rules over translator/ writer relationship:

A translator that would write with any force or spirit of an original must never dwell on the words of his author. He ought to possess himself entirely and perfectly comprehend the genius and sense of his author, the nature of the subject, and the terms of the art or subject treated of. And then he will express himself as justly and with as much life as if he wrote an original: whereas he who copies word for word loses all the spirit in the tedious transfusion (cited in Bassnett, 1996, p. 14).

In Dryden's perspective, the translator should "possess himself" of the original writer. This notion resembles Bassnett's announcement of the identification of the translator with the source writer. Both Dryden and Bassnett remind us of the Barthes's postructuralist reader/writer equation. Bassnett's interpretation and Dryden's viewpoint entirely support the claim of this paper that from a Barthesian perspective, the reader/translator identifies with the source writer. Thus, the translator's role no longer stands in a secondary position to that of the source writer.

Last but not least, the important theory of Barthes views the act of reading/writing as an act of performance. This idea is implicitly expressed in his own statement on the productivity of the text:

This [productivity of the text] does not mean that it is the product of labour (such as could be required by a technique of narration and the mastery of style), but the very theatre of a production where the producer and the reader of the text meet. (1977, p. 36)

Describing signifiance as "the very theatre of production" denotes that reading/writing is an act, a performance. It is not reading, but doing-reading. It is not writing, but doing-writing. Similarly, we can say that a translator does not simply translate, but is involved in a doing-translation activity. The performance-based dimension that Barthes gives to the act of reading/writing has its own connotations. It shows that he considers the reader/writer as an initiator embedded in the context. This point is clearly stated in his elaboration on jouissance:

Text of pleasure: the text that contents, fills, grants euphoria; the text that comes from culture and does not break with it, is linked to a comfortable practice of reading. Text of bliss [jouissance]: the text that imposes a state of loss, the text that discomforts (perhaps to the point of a certain boredom), unsettles the reader's historical, cultural, psychological assumptions, the consistency of his tastes, values memories, brings to a crisis in his relation with language. (1973, p. 14)

In the performance set up between the text and the reader, both work on one another, zero in on each other's fixed codes and deconstruct one another's sign system.

IV. The Implications

In the textual luminal space, both the text and the reader bring to the fore their contextualities which run encounter with each other in signifiance. Regarding translation as a performance would similarly do away with translation *per se* and relocates both the text and the translator in their culturally and linguistically different contexts. This new outlook on the identity of the translator and the act of translation foregrounds the very notion that translation is a process, an on-going process in which not just the translator and the text are at work, but all the interlingual and intercontextual factors as well. This idea highlights the fact that translation-doing does not stop and does not end when the text is translated; rather it is already in a flux of change since the intercultural interstices are fluid. Therefore, the performance of translation is not a finished act since it is exposed to constant change as long as culture, identity and language are redefined and recharted. On the fluidity and instability of translation as an on-going process, Derrida refers to the dynamic entity of the act of translation, bringing texts together in a play of multiple meanings:

Difference is never pure, no more so is translation, and for the notion of translation we would have to substitute a notion of *transformation*: a regulated transformation of one language by another, of one text by another. We will never have, in fact never had, to do with some 'transport' of pure signifieds from one language to another, or within one and the same language, that the signifying instrument would leave virgin and untouched (cited in Bassnett, 1996, pp. 11-12).

The idea of performing translation accentuates the necessity of retranslating the translated texts. This revisit foregrounds the fluidity rather than the fixity of translation, opening up each time new horizons for the translated texts, on the performance of translation as well as the changes which occur to both target and source languages. The examination of such changes emphasizes the unavoidable interrelations of cultures and languages which lead to a better appreciation of the performance of translation and its urgency in today’s changing world.

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