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Individual Differences & Study Abroad: Four Profiles of Oral Proficiency Gain

Sheri L. Anderson
Department of Languages & Literature, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, USA

Abstract—Presented here is a model of second language learner profiles based on individual language learner aptitudes and their outcomes in oral proficiency gains. The data was collected on students (N = 39) who participated in the same study abroad experience during one semester abroad, yet demonstrate strikingly different outcomes in terms of individual aptitudes and their gains made in oral proficiency. Four case studies are outlined to highlight the differential outcomes based on language learner profiles and suggestions are made how to identify individuals with greater needs during the acquisition process to facilitate more gains. Study abroad directors, language departments, international study abroad programs and language instructors are all key players in the experience students have while abroad and can have an impact on both the language learning situation and the outcomes for participants. By being informed of students' language learning and personal aptitudes, both cognitive and affective, all these players can better help students make decisions and increase their potential for improved language skills.

Index Terms—study abroad, oral proficiency, individual differences, language aptitude, cognitive, affective

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a highly regarded myth, both academically and popularly, that going abroad to study a second language is the best and most ideal way to increase oral proficiency. Yet, many second language acquisition (SLA) scholars document a wide range of actual second language (L2) speaking abilities and a great disparity between students' improvements after a sojourn abroad (DeKeyser, 1991, 2010; Freed, 1995; Freed, Segalowitz & Dewey, 2004; Ginsberg, 1992; Isabelli-Garcia, 2010; Kinginger, 2009). Much of this variation can be attributed to individual differences such as: language learning aptitudes, memory capacity, prior language learning, motivation, language anxiety and the overall uniqueness of individuals as they engage in learning in different contexts of study. Freed, Segalowitz and Dewey (2004) note that "interesting literature has emerged that explores various aspects of language learning abroad that offers a series of contradictory, sometimes surprising, and occasionally provocative findings about language gain for students who study abroad" (p. 276). So why are some language learners able to take more advantage of the study abroad experience and make greater oral proficiency gains during the same period of time than others?

Presented here is a model of second language learner profiles based on individual language learner aptitudes and their outcomes in oral proficiency gains. The data was collected on students who participated in the same study abroad (SA) experience during one semester abroad, yet demonstrate strikingly different outcomes in terms of individual aptitudes and their gains made in oral proficiency. The data analyzed is both quantitative and qualitative in nature and triangulates scores on well established data collection instruments, self-report data, open-ended survey responses and researcher observation. This investigation will address three questions: 1) what are some measures that might be used to identify individual differences in a study abroad context; 2) what are characteristic profiles of language learners abroad; 3) and, how can study abroad programs and directors assist learners to make greater linguistic gains while abroad?

Language learning aptitudes

In a general sense an *aptitude* is a natural or acquired disposition for a particular purpose, or tendency to an action or effect, it can also be a general fitness or suitableness to a specific situation or activity. In the SLA literature Robinson (2002) defines second language learning aptitude as, "the ability to succeed in learning a foreign language given adequate instruction and/or experience" (p. 268). There is good evidence that language learning aptitude is relevant to learning success under a variety of classroom and formal learning contexts (Ehrman, 1995; Wesche, 1981). Others have argued that language aptitude is relevant for learning success not only in formal classroom contexts, but also non-classroom L2 learning contexts as well. Gardner's socio-education model (Gardner, 1985) suggests that language aptitude is seen to have a direct influence on second language learning in formal classroom contexts and an indirect influence in informal contexts since "the voluntary nature of these contexts is such that individuals may avoid them if they wish" (Gardner, Day & McIntyre, 1992, p. 215). More specifically, Skehan (1998) says that language aptitude is even more important in informal contexts than in formal ones, because "in informal context it is up to the learner, without the assistance of linguistically organized input to bring structure to unstructured material" (p. 197). Finally, other researchers provide empirical support for the view that language aptitude is relevant for second language learning by adolescents and adults in naturalistic contexts (DeKeyser, 2000; Harley & Hart, 2002; Ross, Yoshinaga & Sasaki, 2002; Robinson, 2002). Fewer studies have focused on the impact of language aptitude for learners in the study abroad

context (some notable examples are: Brecht & Davidson, 1990, 1995; Carroll, 1967; Freed, 1995; Harley & Hart, 2002; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004; Sunderman & Kroll, 2009). Overall more empirical data is needed, particularly in the study abroad context, to better evaluate the importance of individual differences and language aptitude on the SLA for learners in all contexts.

II. Methodology

A. Procedure

After receiving IRB approval and participant consent, a number of cognitive, affective and outcome measures were collected on all participants during a one semester study abroad experience to central Spain. Two measures of cognitive aptitude (MLAT, WM), one measure of affective aptitude were collected (WTC) and a pre/post test was administered to demonstrate gains in oral proficiency (pre-post COPI). The Computerized Oral Proficiency Instrument (COPI) tests were transcribed to calculate a measure of fluency (words per minute) and also calculated for a pre-post score. After all the pre- and post-SA data was collected, including cognitive and affective aptitude measures, outcome measures and self-report data, the researcher identified which students demonstrated high and low aptitude profiles and compared each group with the gains made in oral proficiency during the study abroad experience. The statistical program IBM SPSS Statistics 20 was used to calculate all the statistics for this analysis and the significance level was set at .05.

B. Participants

The participants included in this investigation represent a fairly homogenous group of L2 language learners. The participants for this project were adult, second language learners of Spanish at the university level who participated in a study abroad program during the spring semester to central Spain. For the aptitude profile model presented below the high and low aptitude groups, as well as the outcome measures, are based on data from all the participants (N = 39) in a larger study that addressed primarily oral proficiency gains. However, the following case studies (N = 4) examine four specific students from this group who exemplify most clearly the profile characteristics. Specifically, the researcher chose four female students, with very similar ages, prior language experience and pre-SA COPI scores to compare and detail the profile scheme.

Prior to this investigation all subjects took a minimum of four semesters of university Spanish. English is their first language, and Spanish their second language; any heritage speakers of Spanish or speakers of other languages were excluded from this analysis. They averaged 6.6 years of academic Spanish study, including elementary through university courses. All participants were between the ages of 18-25 (mean = 20.1 years); there were 10 male subjects and 29 female subjects. The participants attended Spanish language and culture classes at the local university five days a week, for five hours a day. Students could enroll in a variety of courses and programs, including Spanish language study, international studies, business or economics. They lived with host families and were also involved in extra-curricular activities and cultural excursions designed expressly to provide further language learning and practice opportunities. Through the intensive language study, home-stay experience, and extra-curricular activities students were exposed to a considerably greater amount of native Spanish language use than in their home institutions in the United States.

C. Cognitive Aptitude Measures

Two measures of cognitive aptitude were employed in this study. First, the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT) which is a commercially-available assessment instrument that measures a person's probable ability, or aptitude, to learn a second language. The MLAT was chosen for this project as a measure of global language proficiency since it has been the standard in the field for over 70 years and has proven to be a highly reliable measure of language learning aptitude. According to the test designers (Carrol & Sapon, 1959), the MLAT (k = 146) is made up of five subtests: 1) number learning (k = 15), 2) phonetic script (k = 15), 3) spelling clues (k = 50), 4) words in sentences (k = 45), 5) paired associates (k = 24) and has shown consistent reliability at Cohen's Kappa .90 or above with various populations. Secondly, phonological working memory span test (Mackey & Goo, 2007) data was collected. This test was a nonword repetition task comprised of 16 pairs of non-words of varying lengths. Students listened to a narrator and immediately repeated the answer back, which was recorded for later scoring. In order to acquire a reliable score for this test, since it has not been normed, an inter-rater reliability protocol was used. First two native English speaking raters scored the tests and a moderate Kappa score of K = .73, p < .001 was calculated. Next, a third rater scored 66% of the data particularly the subjects where raters 1 and 2 disagreed. Following Fleiss (1981) a single measure intraclass correlation (also called ICC) analysis to measure the reliability of the three ratings. The ICC correlation coefficient was ρ = .99, p < .001 indicating a high level of reliability between the three raters and evidence of the validity of the WM data for this study.

D. Affective Aptitude Measures

The Willingness to communicate (WTC) scale is a 20-item, probability-estimate scale (McCroskey, 1992) and is made up of 12 scored questions and eight fillers. The scale was designed as a direct measure of the subject's predisposition toward approaching or avoiding the initiation of communication. At the end of the experience students

completed a questionnaire in English, with open-ended questions about their experience to document their reflections on their own goals and accomplishments during the program. Finally, personal interviews between the students, language instructors, peers and host families, and researcher were conducted, and observation field notes were taken throughout the language learning experience.

E. Outcome Measures

The Computerized Oral Proficiency Instrument (COPI, 2009) was administered pre and post-SA to measure change (gains) in participants' Spanish speaking abilities during the study abroad experience. The COPI is a computer-based, semi-adaptive test of Modern Standard Spanish oral proficiency intended for use with native-English-speaking students. Performance on the COPI is rated according to the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines – Speaking (Revised 1999). The trained raters rated each student on the pre- and post-SA COPI tests and awarded each individual a score, that was then used to calculate the gains (post test – pre test) in oral proficiency during the study abroad experience. In addition to the numerical coding of the COPI ratings, detailed linguistic transcriptions were made of the pre- and post-SA COPI tests in order to measure the fluency of the oral samples by calculating words per minute of each task and the whole test (following Segalowitz & Freed, 2004).

TABLE I.
NUMERIC SCORING OF ACTFL PROFICIENCY LEVELS

ACTFL Level	Numeric Score
Novice Low	.5
Novice	**1**
Novice High	1.5
Intermediate Low	1.8
Intermediate	**2**
Intermediate High	2.5
Advanced Low	2.8
Advanced	**3**
Advanced High	3.5
Superior	**4**

Inter-rater reliability protocols were used to establish the reliability of the data for analysis, following best practices in the field. 50% of the pre- and post-SA COPI scores were double-rated by two trained raters; the Cohen's Kappa score between the two scores was K = .63 (p < .001). This initial analysis included all the sublevels (Novice Low to Superior) on the ACTFL scale. Following Landis & Koch (1977) this high Kappa statistic demonstrates substantial agreement between the raters. However, in much of the SLA and other social science literature the excepted norm for Kappa agreement is K ≤ .80. The researcher took a closer look at the two raters' scores to ascertain where discrepancies occurred and found that the two raters differed on 30% of the cases, and in all instances there was a difference in only one sublevel – for example, between Novice Mid and Novice High or Intermediate Low and Intermediate Mid. Conducting a second inter-rater reliability analysis on the major levels of the ACTFL scale; the Cohen's Kappa agreement was K = .79 (p < .001) coming much closer to the K = .80 norm generally sought in SLA literature and demonstrating the reliability of the data.

F. Analysis

For each aptitude measure high aptitude and low aptitude groups were determined by using the standard error of the mean (SE); students were excluded who fell between one SE above or below the mean for each measure. In this way a clear high and low cut-off scores were established and ensured that no student was erroneously classified as high or low if they fell near the mean. For example, the mean score on the MLAT was 125.10 (out of 149), with a standard error of 3.14 for the group. Therefore, any student that scored ≤ 121.96 was considered in the low MLAT group and those scoring ≥ 128.24 were in the high MLAT group. For the aptitude profile outlined below only three aptitude measures are included in order to not confound the scheme with too many variables, the measures including are: global language aptitude (MLAT), working memory (WM) and willingness-to-communicate (WTC).

A similar method was used to determine students who fell into the group of higher COPI gains compared to lower COPI gains in oral proficiency. COPI gain was calculated by subtracting the pre-SA COPI score from the post-SA COPI score (see Table 1). The mean COPI gain was .86 and the SE was .06; this is approximately two sub-level on the ACTFL scale, for example moving from a Novice level (1) to an Intermediate-Low (1.8) from pre to post-SA. This is especially relevant when a student moves from one major level to another, for example from Novice to Intermediate or Intermediate to Advanced levels on the ACTFL scale.

III. RESULTS & ANALYSIS

A. Aptitude Profile Model

In creating the aptitude profiles for students we can begin with a 2x2 matrix of possible outcomes with high/low aptitude groups and high/low proficiency gains (see Table 4 below). For demonstration purposes the case studies below represent the most extreme examples where high aptitude indicates a student placed into the high group on all three

aptitude measures (MLAT, WM, WTC) and low aptitude designates that they scored in the low aptitude group on all three measures. Many students actually display a combination of aptitudes, being high in some areas but lower in others. Yet, in this way we can observe more specifically which factors may have the greatest impact on oral proficiency gains in the study abroad context. Likewise, in the model here higher oral proficiency gain is near one whole major level increase on the ACTFL scale, and less oral proficiency gain is improvement by less than two sub-levels on the ACTFL scale. Of the 39 subjects in the larger study only two students made no improvements whatsoever, and the great majority of students made significant gains in their oral proficiency during the study abroad experience. What we want to explore here is why some students make more gain than others, particularly as is related to their aptitude strengths and weaknesses.

TABLE II.
DATA COLLECTION DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (N = 39)

Test	Scale	Mean	SD	SE
MLAT	149	125.10	19.58	3.14
WM	32	22.72	7.27	1.16
WTC	100	68.63	15.14	2.42
Pre-SA COPI	4	1.99	.50	.08
Post-SA COPI	4	2.85	.29	.05
COPI Gain	post (-) pre	0.86	.40	.06

TABLE III.
APTITUDE HIGH & LOW SCALES

Test	Low group	High group
MLAT	≤ 121.96	≥ 128.24
WM	≤ 21.56	≥ 23.88
WTC	≤ 66.21	≥ 71.05
COPI gain	$\leq .80$	$\geq .92$

As Table 4 demonstrates, there are four distinct profiles possible for students based on their high/low aptitude profiles and more or less oral proficiency gains. It is easy to expect that a student who has higher aptitudes (type A) will make greater gains in oral proficiency; likewise we might expect a student with lower overall aptitudes (type D) to make less gain during the same experience. However, there remains the question why do some students with higher aptitudes (type B) make less gain, and why do other students with less aptitudes (type C) make more gains? Through the following case studies we will look at other affective variables that may contribute to this phenomenon in addition to cognitive aptitude, such as motivation, language anxiety and a discourse analysis of language samples produced by individual students. We can find a few clues to how individual differences and aptitude profiles can help or hinder students during a study abroad experience and help predict the oral proficiency gains made by diverse students.

TABLE IV.
APTITUDE & ORAL PROFICIENCY MATRIX

	High Aptitude	Low Aptitude
High Proficiency Gains	**A** MLAT score ≥ 128.24 WTC score ≥ 23.88 WM score ≥ 71.05 COPI gain $\geq .92$	**C** MLAT score ≤ 121.96 WTC score ≤ 21.56 WM score ≤ 66.21 COPI gain $\geq .92$
Low Proficiency Gains	**B** MLAT score ≥ 128.24 WTC score ≥ 23.88 WM score ≥ 71.05 COPI gain $\leq .80$	**D** MLAT score ≤ 121.96 WTC score ≤ 21.56 WM score ≤ 66.21 COPI gain $\leq .80$

B. Four Case Studies

In order to demonstrate the different types of students and possible outcomes of a study abroad experience, following here are examples of four individuals who made varying degrees of improvement in their oral language skills and demonstrate the model proposed above. The model, specifically the high and low aptitude groups, is based on data from a larger study (N = 39) including the aptitude and oral proficiency data; while the case studies present data from only four individuals who exemplify the model. Each student is given a pseudonym here following IRB protocols. To best exhibit how aptitude interacts with oral proficiency gains and has an impact on students' experience abroad the researcher chose four individuals with very similar demographic backgrounds and excluded as many individual differences as possible. All four students examined here are female, between 19-20 years old, and who studied Spanish for an average of 7 years prior to the study abroad experience. All four individuals indicated that they are majoring in Spanish, and therefore had both academic and personal motivation to participate in the study abroad experience. In addition, in order to best demonstrate gains made by the students based primarily on aptitude profiles, they were chosen because they began at a similar pre-SA COPI level, either Intermediate low (1.8) or Intermediate (2). The majority of

the group in the larger study began at the Intermediate level (23 out of 39). While the demographic profiles of the four students are similar, the aptitude and proficiency profiles are different and express the four different profile types.

TABLE V.
CASE STUDY PARTICIPANTS (N = 4)

	Scale	Emily	Laura	Gina	Danielle
Profile type		A High Aptitude/ High Prof. Gains	B Low Aptitude/ High Prof. Gains	C High Aptitude/ Low Prof. Gains	D Low Aptitude/ Low Prof. Gains
Gender		Female	Female	Female	Female
Age		19	20	19	19
Prior study		6 years	7 years	7 years	8 years
Academic major		Spanish	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish
MLAT	149	132	112	137	98
WM	32	26	10	29	16
WTC	100	84	51	75	55
Pre-SA COPI	0 – 4	Intermediate (2)	Intermediate-low (1.8)	Intermediate (2)	Intermediate (2)
Post-SA COPI	0 – 4	Advanced-high (3.5)	Advanced-low (2.8)	Intermediate-high (2.5)	Intermediate-high (2.5)
COPI gain		1.5	1	.5	.5

C. Proficiency Gains

First Emily (A type), exhibits high aptitude on all three aptitude tests and made impressive gains by moving from the Intermediate Mid (2.0) level at the beginning of the study to the Advanced High (3.5) level after four months of study abroad. These gains are equivalent to more than one whole level of oral proficiency (1.5 points) on the COPI scale. On the other end of the scale Danielle (D type) portrays less inherent language learning aptitudes and scored low on all three aptitude tests, both cognitive and affective. Following her lower aptitude profile she made significantly less gains moving up only one sub-level on the ACTFL scale from an Intermediate (2) to an Intermediate-high (2.5). She was not able to move forward from the intermediate to advanced levels after the same four months abroad. These results are expected for Emily and Danielle (types A and D): students with high aptitude tend to learn or gain more, while students with lower aptitude do not. However, Laura and Gina do not follow this pattern and demonstrated unexpected outcomes in their oral proficiency gains based solely on aptitude abilities.

Laura (B type) portrays a lower aptitude profile falling into the lower aptitude groups on global language learning aptitude phonological working memory and has less willingness to communicate in both her first and second languages. Laura scored lower on the pre-COPI that the other there participates beginning at the Intermediate-low level (1.8) and yet she, remarkably was able to make the jump to the advanced level and scored an Advanced-low (2.8) on the post-COPI test. Over four months she improved a whole level on the ACTFL scale and was able to demonstrate advanced level skills, even if she could not sustain them during the entire test. Conversely, Gina (C type) displayed a similar high aptitude profile as Emily (type A) but was not able to make the same types of gains in oral proficiency during the experience abroad. She began at the Intermediate (2) level but only moved up one sub-level to Intermediate-high (2.5) similar to Danielle. Based solely on her aptitude profile she should have made more gains and been able to move up at least to the Advanced-low level. More information and data is needed to explain this variation and why some students, despite their higher aptitude profile are still not able to make important gains in oral proficiency given a comparable language learning experience abroad.

D. Fluency Analysis

An added measure we can compare is fluency on the oral proficiency measures to elucidate more what takes places from pre- to post-SA COPI for each student. Some patterns emerge when we compare Emily and Gina who both have high aptitudes for language learning but are different in their oral proficiency gains. Emily produced almost double the amount of speech compared to Laura on both the pre-SA COPI test (1797 words by Laura compared to only 733 by student Gina) and post-SA COPI tests (2052 words as compared to 1732 for Gina).

TABLE VI.
CASE STUDY FLUENCY MEASURES

	Emily		Laura		Gina		Danielle	
	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Total words	1797	2052	751	1301	733	1732	1379	1584
Total time (min)	16	22	13	16	12	21	19	18
Fluency (wds/min)	112	93	58	81	61	82	73	88
Fluency Gain	-19		23		21		15	

According to Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985) language students must produce the L2 in order to improve and make significant gains in their language skills. Swain says:

To produce, learners need to do something. They need to create linguistic form and meaning, and in so doing, discover what they can and cannot do. Output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. Students' meaningful production of language – output – would thus seem to have a potentially significant role in language development. (Swain, 2000, p. 99)

Laura and Gina here are clear examples of Swain's hypothesis; with similar language aptitude abilities and language learning background, one of the key differences in their behavior and aptitude profiles is that Laura more actively produced the L2 and engaged in constructing meaning through output. We may deduce that Gina, despite her high aptitude profile, in part, did not make as much gain in her oral proficiency because she did not actively produce language in the L2 as often as necessary to improve her skills. Laura and Danielle both have lower aptitude profiles, but they also demonstrate a similar pattern in that Laura has a great increase in her output from pre- to post-SA COPI test, but Danielle only slightly increases her output. It is true that Danielle produced more words on the pre-SA COPI, but her overall fluency gain is still lower than Laura's. Despite Laura's lower aptitude profile, the fact that she produced more may have played a part in helping her make more oral proficiency gains during the study abroad experience than other lower-profile students.

E. Discourse Analysis

Taking a closer look now at actual speech samples produced by the four students, Table 7 is a comparison table with the same tasks on both the pre- and post-SA COPI tests. The COPI test is self adaptive, and not all students took exactly the same tasks on both the pre and post-test; here we will examine one Intermediate level task for each subject which she did take on both the pre- and post-SA COPI. The topics are slightly different between subjects, but the level and the type of task is similar. For each task the student had the opportunity to speak for the same amount of time (up to three minutes) and could respond to the prompt in any way that she deemed appropriate.

TABLE VII.
COPI TASK COMPARISON PRE TO POST

	Pre-Study Abroad COPI	Post-Study Abroad COPI
Emily A – High Aptitude/ High Prof. Gains	TASK 30102: (278 words/ 2. 6 minutes) Um yo tengo que vivir afuera de la casa porque yo vivo casi casi una hora de mi universidad. Pero yo tengo amigos que viven muy cerco, muy cerca a la universidad que han decidido que no quieren vivir a la casa y hay ventajas por ejemplo…tienes más independencia cual es muy importante porque después de tenemos los dieciocho años en los Estado Unidos que dijimos que votar, votear, elegir el presidente y tenemos más independencia para hacer nuestras propias decisiones. Y que mas, hay más libertad si es importante puedes hacer lo que quieres, puedes, se puedes volver cuando quieres…y también si no quieres ir a la clase, no tienes que ir a la clase. Sin embargo hay que, hay que ir a los clases porque en los estados unidos los estudiantes pagar mucho, mucho dinero para ir a la universidad. Pero que son los desventajas, los ventajas son, son, son mucho ventajas. Pero los problemas vienen del dinero d-person-personalmente y también hay una otra casa, otra cosa si vives en el dormitorio tienes que comer la misma comida de la cafetería, cada día, cada día, día después día y a veces esta aburrido, aburrido comer el mismo, la misma comida. Pero también cuesta mucho de vivir en los dormitorios por ejemplo cuesta a mi universidad…um…casi mas mas de cinco mil dólares y es un problema y también es que tienes que hacer tiene que lavar tus propias ro-ro ropa pero si no es un problema, no ser un problema. Y también si si le gusta…pasar pasarle pasarle buen tiempo con tu familia no puedes hacer algo así cuando vives en la universidad en el dormitorio.	TASK 30102: (264 words / 2.87 mintues) Pues, yo tengo que decir que hay muchas ventajes, ventajas que no vivas ah, a su casa. Lo más importante es que se puede aprender un sentido de independencia si siempre estás, si siempre, si siempre estuviera con mi familia, nunca aprendería como vivir, como, como un adulto, como una persona en el mundo real, so, o lo que sea. Pero, um, Si, las ventajas. La independencia, por cier-seguramente. Numero uno. Y, pero luego, ah, cosas practícales,.. por ejemplo, tendrás que aprender el método de pagar pegar para la casa para la electricidad, para, la- para el agua, para… sacar la basura, um, para cocinar.. Aunque aunque sea difícil para aceptar, mi madre no siempre estará áall íaqu íconmigo para cocinar cualquier cosa que quiero, y necesitas aprender hacerlo, y es m- si no hay nadie allí si no hay nadie all íque pueda hacer nada para ti, luego tendrás que, por ti, luego tendrás que hacerlo aunque no, aunque no podemos. Y que mas, uh, se puede tener la opor-oportunidad compartir espacio con gente que no son tu abuelita. Y vas a mejorar tus- tu capacidad social. Um, des-ah-desventajas, pues… los-las cosas que yo dicho, son los opuesto- son opuestos, ahora no, ahora hay más responsabilidad, hay que, hay que compartir por la-las medares de vivir, las medares de vivir. Necesitas un trabajo para pegar la cas-uh, para parcar, se puede ahorrar mucho dinero si vivo con mi familia, pero, pero no es un -el intercambio no es, no es igual. Independencia que estás si tienes los recursos, no s-no será mejor que el indepencia- independencia.

Laura B – Low Aptitude/ High Prof. Gains	TASK 30103: (93 words / 1. 5minutes) Una de los ven-, um, -tajas de comer en un restaurante es que la comida es muy rica y hay un variedad que posiblemente que no tiene en su casa. Y también, es divertido comer con amigos en un restaurante pero hay desventajas también porque los restaurantes son más caros de…comer en su casa. Y también, no…sabes cual son los ingredientes en…los restaurantes pero en su casa, todo el tiempo sabes los ingredientes. Otro ven-tajas de comer en un restaurante es que es más fácil y…probablemente uh…es más rápido de…coci-na en su casa. Um…um…	TASK 30103: (192 words / 2.3 mintues) Pues hay muchas ven-ventajeas y desventajas de comer en una restaurante. Cuandooo comes una restaurante necesitan pagar más peroo no necesitan pasar tiempo cocinando yy hayy más variedad een laas restaurantes y puedeen comer muchas cosas queee… no tiene een su casa peroo muchas veces es mucho más caro yy no ees tan saaludable sii come en casa y para mí no puedo comer en muchos restaurantes porque tengo muchos alergias y por eso es muy difícil para comer algo en una restaurante porque necesitoo hablar con eel- la gente para saber… todos los ingredientes y en la cocina hay un mezcla de todos los ingredientes y es posible quee mi comida va a tener algo que yo no puedo comer y eso es un desventaja para muchas personas para comer en una restaurante yy cuandooo cocina ee cocina en su casa puede cantrar-controlar la graza y todos los ingredientes yy por eso muchas veces es más sano comer en su casa. Porque todo es fresco yy en los restaurantes muchas veces es comida que está congelado y después estaa áuum está cocinado en el harno yy eso no es muy sano.
Gina C – High Aptitude/ Low Prof. Gains	TASK 30403: (53 words / 55 seconds) Alberto, no es muy difícil pedir una pizza por teléfono. Primero um, te llamas la tienda y dices…que es tu nombre y su número de teléfono y después ellos te pregunta qué tipo de pizza quieres y um…después ellos…ellos dicen cuánto cuesta y um…a qué hora la pizza uh…era recibido a su domicilio.	TASK 30403: (140 words / 1.5 minutes) Ah hola Alberto um, um, también me, me, gusta uh, la pizza mucho entonces um, me alegro de, de que quieres uh, tener pizza. Um, bueno coger tu teléfono y entre el- el numero y, um, y…y dilo, diles qué qué quieres un, un pizza y lo uh, lo qué quieres en en el pizza y um, um, píeles cuanto uh, cuanto te va a costar y, y ellos um van a a llevar el pizza a su casa si tu les les…si tu les da su…uh, si tu les da tu número de, de teléfono y tu dirección de casa. Y después de eso ellos van a a tocar la puerta cuando la pizza esta aqu íy tu tu…les pagas y uh, y ya esta es un proceso muy, muy fácil y esta compañía tiene pizza muy, muy buena.
Danielle D – Low Aptitude/ Low Prof. Gains	TASK 30202: (208 words / 3.7 minutes) Primero me gusta las universidades más grande porque tienen muchos diferentes clases con todos los temas como los negocios, a los artes…y clases de baila, clases de fotografá Todos que crees. Los universid-universidades grandes…y para mi, hay muchos diferentes tipos de personas en los universidades con diferen-tes…opiniones de polúicos y es muy interesante para mí Pero las talles de las clases en las universidades grandes son muy, muy grandes como cien personas a quinientos personas y es muy, muy duro en…en la año primero de universidad a tener clases con muchos, muchos personas. Los universidades pequeña…hay muchos positivos también. Los clases son con menos personas, con la media creo que es más o menos de veinte o veinte cinco personas en cada clase pero no hay muchas diferente clases en estes universidades y muchos de los universidades son religiosa y para mí no le gust, no me gusta este porque yo no soy religiosa. y… los pequeñas universidades no tienen la, diversidad que los universidades grandes tienen. P-pero para mí es muy bien que tu quieres…ir la universidad en los estados unidos porque educativo es muy importante y s-si. Y para mi universidad es un experiencia bueno y crees, creo que tú te gusta cada universidad que crees.	TASK 30202: (238 words / 2.7 minutes) Uh. Para mí Uh yo creo que si asistir una universidad es un bue-prefecto apción pero los- las universidades pequeñas y las universidades grandes tenen su propios ventaje y desventajas. Um en es mi experentia a asistir a estudiar en un universidad muy muy muy grande con más de cuarenta mil estudiantes en la universidad. Y me gusta es.te porque tiene muchos apiones para tomar um temas dee clases de cualquier temas le gusta. Por ejemplo hay clases uum como tenis y que le enseña sobre vino o las peli- políticas del mundo oo arte contemporánea, ekcétera. Y en universidades más pequeñitas este no es un apción, no tienen la misma calidad dee… la misma um. misa- um opciones para ese clases. Pero en las universidades grandes las clases tienen cien o quinientos persona en cada lectura y ese es un poquito extraño porque no tienen la contacto con el prof-esor como en las escuelas secundarias. Y en universidades pequeñitas tienen ese contacto personal porque solamente hay veinte o veinticinco personas en cada clase. Yy también mi universidad tienen más aportunidades para um para… uh actividades culturales. Por ejemplo para ir al cinee o ir un um concierto ekcetra y um muchas universidades pequeñitas no tienen la publicidad para hacer eses actividades. Y pero en general es solamente un diferencia de opinión porque yo tengo muchas amigas que estudia en un universidad pequeñita y le gustan muchísima.

In order to understand the differences between these four profiles another tool we can use is a closer discourse analysis of the language produced on the pre- and post-SA COPI tests. On both the pre- and post-SA tests Emily (type A) is much more accurate with gender agreement and verbal morphology than the other students, and when making mistakes she self-corrects to a more accurate form. She uses circumlocution when she does not know a word and does not repeat the same word while mentally searching for a term. On the post-SA test Emily makes marked improvement in vocabulary and accuracy. She also uses more difficult syntactic structures such as the present and past subjunctive, as well diversity of verbal forms such as present, future and conditional tenses. She additionally incorporates several dialectal words from the region of study. In contrast, Danielle (type D) makes many more mistakes with gender and verbal morphology agreement, even with high frequency words, and she also makes syntactic order errors. On the post-SA test Danielle makes fewer errors, but there are still many accuracy errors of the same type. Also she does not ever self-correct and repeats words over and over to buy mental time to continue her thought. There is no diversity of verbal forms on the pre- or post-SA tests and she speaks exclusively in the present tense, although could use other verb forms to express her opinion. While Danielle does produce more words in numbers than other students, most of the words are repeated and there is no lexical variety showing advancement in vocabulary, dialectal or regional words. Finally, the semantic content of the post-SA test is almost identical to the pre-SA test and yet Danielle is unable to sustain the

comparison between advantages and disadvantages in the task. This closer look at the actual kind of language produced demonstrates the disparity between not only how much individuals produce, but also to what extent they can accurately and adequately communicate their ideas in the second language. Given their aptitude profiles we would expect such disparities between Type A and Type D speech patterns.

What is more interesting is the comparison between Laura and Gina, who demonstrate unexpected outcomes given their aptitude profiles. On the pre-SA COPI both Laura and Gina are similar in that they use only the present tense, have many filler words or pauses and use more English cognates. On the post-SA COPI we see more divergence in their performance and despite Gina's higher aptitude profile, she produces less accurate speech and continues to use the same strategies to buy mental time as she thinks of the next word or phrase. There is a marked difference in Laura's performance on the post-SA COPI task; instead of repeating, or using filler words she elongates the words or draws out the final syllable to connect to the next thought. She self corrects more frequently and uses more difficult lexical items. The task does not require a wide variety of tenses or syntactic complexity, so she does not produce any subjunctive, conditional or future forms maintaining her speech in the present indicative tense, but she does improve the content of the passage and uses more authentic speech on the post-SA test. Here we see that despite Gina's potentially superior aptitude profile, she does not demonstrate significant increases in learning or oral proficiency Spanish skills. Through more produced output Laura is able to make more improvement and overcome her possible challenges.

IV. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSIONS

One of the purposes of individual difference (ID) and aptitude research in second language acquisition is to identify better who are second language learners and how do they perform in varying contexts, conditions and language use situations. Much of the ID research has informed classroom instruction and will continue to aid instructors and educational institutions to adapt to the needs of students in order to provide better instruction and more efficient learning for students. Similarly, by helping students to identify their own strengths and weaknesses in language learning, they can better advocate for themselves and take advantage of their own skills while strengthening areas in need of growth. Yet, little research has been conducted in the study abroad context to see how individual differences impact learning, opportunity for L2 language use and discrepancy in language gains made by students while abroad. The present research project attempts to address some of these questions and in doing so demonstrates that similar learners abroad react differently to the experience abroad and as a result display diverse results in oral gains.

In answering the investigation questions this study shows that aptitude measures, both cognitive and affective, in addition to pre-SA oral proficiency testing can be helpful in identifying students who may need additional resources and support while abroad. The MLAT test can help institutions and instructors identify global language learning aptitudes and closely related would be using a working memory test to specifically identify students with higher or lower memory capacities for language learning. Affective measures such as a willingness to communicate survey can also be instructive in identifying students who naturally tend to produce more language in their first language, and may tend to also produce more in the L2. Conducting discourse analysis or fluency analysis of students' discourse can also be productive tools to help identify students who may have challenges in producing and therefore making gains in the second language.

Described here are four distinct profiles that we might find among the study abroad population. The Student A profile describes a student who demonstrates high cognitive and affective aptitudes and begins the study abroad experience with higher production of words and higher fluency rate. For students who fit this description higher oral proficiency gains can be predicted during SA due to both higher cognitive and affective aptitudes. For this type of student, it is suggested that the SA director and supporting institutions encourage Student A, like Emily, to use their aptitude strengths to produce as much in the target language as possible and continue what comes naturally for language learning.

The Student B profile portrays a student who displays lower cognitive but higher affective aptitudes, and begins the study abroad with a higher fluency rate. For students, like Laura who fit this profile higher oral proficiency gains during SA can be predicted due to the lower fluency rates and initial production on the pre-SA oral proficiency measure, but higher affective aptitudes, specifically higher motivation. In order to encourage and assist students with a B type profile instructors, SA directors and the supporting institutions can teach the student study skills and memory strategies to increase chances of improvement and compensate for a lower aptitude profile. Furthermore, the student can be encouraged to engage in L2 practice as much as possible and might be assisted in finding opportunities for oral and written practice in innovative and creative ways.

The Student C profile, like Gina, is a student who demonstrates high cognitive and affective aptitudes but begins the study abroad experience with a lower fluency rate or production of words. For this student lower oral proficiency gains during SA can be predicted due to lower pre-SA fluency levels and lower engagement in the L2, despite higher cognitive and affective aptitudes. For this type of student the SA director and supporting institutions could encourage Student C to use his or her L2 aptitude strengths to produce as much in the target language as possible. It could be suggested that the student try to seek opportunities to interact with native speakers on a regular basis, through activities such as volunteer work, language exchange partners, a sport or a club.

Finally, students with a D profile, like Danielle, are students who exhibit lower cognitive and affective aptitudes and begin the study abroad experience with a lower fluency rate and lower oral proficiency scores. This type of student will

have significantly lower motivation and/or higher language anxiety and may not engage in the L2 even for test taking purposes. Additionally, this student may display signs of using the L1 as a crutch and may often revert back to English instead of using other language learning devises (i.e. circumlocution). For this student lower oral proficiency gains during SA can be predicted due to both lower cognitive and affective aptitudes. Students with a D profile require more intervention both cognitively and personally in order to make gains in the study abroad experience. Language instructors, directors, the supporting institutions and even the host family should all be involved in supporting this student and encouraging language practice and development. Specifically, the student should be instructed in methods or techniques to reduce L2 anxiety, and positive experiences for the student should be arrange to help him/her produce in the L2. Moreover, the student can be taught study skills and memory strategies to compensate for a lower aptitude profile. As mentioned, more research is needed in this area to detail these student profiles and evaluate what methods and strategies are most effective to increase oral proficiency and compensate for lesser inherent language learning aptitudes.

Study abroad directors, language departments, international study abroad programs and language instructors are all key players in the experience students have while abroad. These individuals and organizations can have an impact on both the language learning situation and the outcomes for participants. By being informed of students' language learning and personal aptitudes, both cognitive and affective, all these players can better help students make decisions and increase their potential for improved language skills. By identifying students' needs at the beginning of the study abroad experience, they can offer advice, different programs and continued support during the study abroad experience—all of which may assist students toward better language growth. Further research needs to be conducted to evaluate what methods can be used to help students improve their oral proficiency gains based on their aptitudes, their own motivations and reasons for learning a second language and their individual differences. However, certain outcomes can be expected and many suggestions can be made for students of different aptitude profiles based on this investigation.

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Sheri L. Anderson is from Fort Collins, Colorado in the United States. She received her Ph.D. in Spanish applied linguistics from Georgetown University in the Department of Spanish and Portuguese in Washington, D.C. in the United States in 2012. Prior to attending Georgetown, she earned a master's degree from Texas A&M University in College Station, Texas in modern languages in 2004, and a bachelor's degree in Spanish education from Whitworth University in Spokane, Washington in 2000.

She has held a number of teaching positions teaching Spanish language and linguistics courses across the United States including at Colorado State University in Fort Collins, Colorado and the University of Utah in Salt Lake City, Utah. She currently holds a position of Visiting Assistant Professor at the University of Utah. She has directed a number of study abroad programs taking students around the world to La Universidad Autónoma de Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic, summer 2012 and 2013, to la Universidad de Alcalá de Henares, Spain, January – May 2010, and she took two group to Mexico to Guanajuato, summer 2007, and to Cuernavaca, summer 2003. She has received a number of grants including a Technology Curriculum development grant through the Center from Teaching and Learning Excellence at the University of Utah 2012-2013, a USET Undergraduate Research Grant to work with undergraduate scholars at the University of Utah for two years 2013 & 2014 and was a Georgetown Consortium Project grant winner in 2006.

Dr. Anderson is a member of a number of regional and national professional organizations including the American Association of Applied Linguistics (AAAL), the American Association of Teachers of Spanish & Portuguese (AATSP), the Utah Foreign Language Association (UFLA), and the Modern Language Association (MLA). Dr. Anderson is the Chair of the Utah State Office of Education Dual Language Immersion Research Advisory Board for the state of Utah.

Vocabulary in CLIL and in Mainstream Education

Riika Merikivi
Department of English, University of Turku, Turku, Finland

Päivi Pietilä
Department of English, University of Turku, Turku, Finland

Abstract—The focus of the study reported in this article was vocabulary size attained in two learning environments, i.e. in regular mainstream instruction and in CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning). Receptive and productive vocabulary sizes of sixth-graders from both environments were compared with the respective vocabulary sizes of corresponding ninth-graders using the Vocabulary Levels Test and the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test. It was hypothesized that CLIL would produce larger vocabularies, as it offers learners more extensive and versatile exposure to the target language. This turned out to be the case, as did the previously attested phenomenon that receptive vocabularies are larger than productive vocabularies. However, the development of the productive-receptive ratio was not uniform across the frequency levels, even though it was at its highest at the third frequency band (3000 most common English words).

Index Terms—CLIL, L2 vocabulary, vocabulary size, lexical frequency levels, language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The main objective of the study reported in this article was to compare vocabulary acquisition in two different learning environments, i.e. in regular mainstream classes and in CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) instruction. The study investigated the development of English vocabulary of pupils in the sixth and ninth grades of the Finnish comprehensive school, using both receptive (the Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT); Nation, 1983, 1990) and productive (the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (PVLT); Laufer & Nation, 1999) tests to measure the size of the learners' vocabularies. The study was, thus, concerned with the breadth of the learners' vocabulary knowledge and not the depth of it, as the tests that were used only addressed the form-meaning connections of words. We hypothesized that students in CLIL classrooms would have bigger receptive and productive vocabularies than those in mainstream education because of the larger amount of foreign language input that is available in CLIL. The benefits of CLIL education have been documented in previous studies (e.g. Dalton-Puffer, Nikula & Smit, 2010), although a recent review by Sylvén (2013) demonstrates that CLIL does not always lead to better learning results compared with traditional foreign language learning methods. It is important to take into consideration a number of nation-specific contextual factors which influence learning in different countries. According to Sylvén, the not so encouraging results of CLIL in Sweden can at least partly be attributed to the fact that CLIL is not recognized in the national curriculum and, therefore, also the amount of research into CLIL is relatively scarce in Sweden. On the other hand, the generally high level of English proficiency of young people in Sweden seems to be largely due to the abundance of English in Swedish society today. In her 2004 study on vocabulary development of Swedish learners of English, Sylvén had already concluded that the importance of exposure to English outside school was greater than that of CLIL (Sylvén, 2004).

The present article focuses on the situation in Finland, which in some ways is different compared with Sweden. First of all, immersion and CLIL programmes are recognized and encouraged in the national curriculum, which gives schools a great deal of freedom to plan their teaching. This is probably one reason why there has been a considerable amount of research interest in the functioning and learning results of CLIL (e.g. Järvinen, 1999, 2005; Nikula, 2005). Secondly, Finland requires CLIL teachers to have a specific level of foreign language competence (at least C1 on the CEFR proficiency scales) and offers them both pre- and in-service training in CLIL teaching (Järvinen, 2012). Moreover, CLIL programmes are implemented in all school levels, unlike in many other countries.

In addition to investigating the entire vocabulary sizes of the participants in CLIL and in mainstream education, the relative sizes of their receptive and productive vocabularies were also examined, particularly as they bear on word frequency.

II. VOCABULARY SIZE

How many words can L2 learners of English be expected to learn? Nation and Waring (1997) estimate that native speakers typically learn an average of 1000 word families[1] a year in their early life. According to them, this goes on up to the vocabulary size of around 20000 word families; thus, a child beginning school at the age of five has a vocabulary of about 4000 to 5000 words and a 20-year-old knows approximately 17000 to 20000 words. The vocabularies of L2 learners are generally substantially smaller than those of native speakers. Table I summarises the results of studies by Schmitt and Meara (1997) and Laufer (1998) on L2 vocabulary sizes (in word families).

TABLE I.
PREVIOUS RESEARCH ON L2 VOCABULARY SIZES

	Schmitt & Meara (1997)	Laufer (1998)
Years of acquisition	5-6	6-7
Receptive vocabulary	3900	3500
Productive vocabulary		2550

The results of the present study might be expected to resemble those depicted in Table I, at least to some extent, as the number of years that the subjects had learned English in those studies (in Japan and in Israel, respectively) were rather similar to the situation in the present study, and the vocabulary tests that were used were the same (VLT and PVLT). The subjects in the present study, however, came from two different learning environments, so we expected there to be a difference in their learning outcomes.

III. WORD FREQUENCY

A good measure of word usefulness is *frequency*, i.e. how often a word occurs in normal use of a language. A small number of the words in English, for instance, occur very frequently and thus comprise large proportions of both written and spoken texts. It makes sense that language learners are taught words which belong to the most frequent lexemes of the language, as those frequent words are likely to be the most useful. According to Laufer and Nation (1999), teachers of English should focus on the 2000 most frequent words, i.e. on *high-frequency words*, and instead of teaching individual words which are less frequent, they should introduce strategies for coping with unfamiliar vocabulary. Several studies have also found, unsurprisingly, that high-frequency words are mastered better than low-frequency words (e.g. Laufer & Nation, 1999), and that learners with larger vocabularies use more low-frequency words than learners with smaller vocabularies (Laufer & Nation, 1995).

In a study involving students at the final stages of lower secondary school (i.e. from the same age group as the 9th graders of the present study) in Denmark, Stæhr (2008) found that the 2000 most frequent English words constituted an important watershed and a sensible learning goal, as those learners who knew those frequent words (the minority of the pupils) also performed relatively well in listening, reading and writing. The vocabulary size test used by Stæhr was the same as the one used in the present study to measure receptive vocabulary (the VLT devised by Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham, 2001, based on Nation, 1983), except that he had excluded the academic word level from the test, claiming that it was not relevant for low-proficiency learners. We decided to keep the academic words in our test, as they occur quite commonly, for example, in textbooks (for more information, see Section VII C).

IV. RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE

An L2 learner's lexical competence consists of *receptive (passive)* and *productive (active)* vocabulary knowledge. Generally, receptive vocabulary comprises the words a person is able to understand, whereas the words in productive vocabulary are not merely understood but they can also be produced.

Laufer (1998) differentiates between *passive knowledge*, *controlled active knowledge* and *free active knowledge*. Passive knowledge includes comprehending the core meaning of a word. Active knowledge is divided between words one can produce when required to do so (controlled active knowledge) and words one would use without prompts to specific items, as is the case when writing a composition (free active knowledge). She considers the division necessary because people tend to provide different lexical items when the situation necessitates particular words as opposed to when they are left to their own devices. According to Laufer and Nation (1999), this usually has to do with word frequency, as people may hesitate to use some infrequent words of their controlled active vocabularies in free production and, consequently, end up choosing simpler, more frequent synonyms instead.

It is commonly acknowledged that reception precedes production and that production is more demanding than comprehension (cf. Waring, 1997). Furthermore, passive vocabulary is typically regarded as wider than active vocabulary. Laufer (1998) found that passive vocabulary size was larger than controlled active vocabulary, the mean ratio being as high as 80%, and the difference in the sizes was bigger in the more advanced learner group (11th graders) than in the less advanced group (10th graders), indicating that passive vocabulary grows considerably faster than active vocabulary. Nemati (2010), on the other hand, compared passive and controlled active vocabulary competence and discovered that the productive vocabularies of her participants were around 20% of their receptive vocabularies. According to her results, the ratio was not fixed but mounted along development, implying a narrower gap between the two knowledge

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[1] A *word family* consists of a head word, its inflected forms and its transparent derivations (cf. Nation & Waring, 1997).

systems at higher levels of learning. Laufer and Paribakht (1998) noticed both tendencies: higher proficiency led to an increase in the ratio in their EFL group and to a decrease in their ESL group. It is worth noticing that the results of these studies vary substantially despite the fact that they exploited the same instruments (i.e. the Levels Tests), revealing the complexity of the phenomenon. Acknowledging the widely documented supremacy of reception over production in language learning, our study took the matter one step further and examined the reception-production relationship in the various frequency bands of the English lexicon.

V. CLIL AS A LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

The study reported here examined the vocabulary sizes attained by learners of English in two different learning environments, regular foreign language education involving two or three hours of English instruction per week, and content and language integrated learning (CLIL), where most school subjects were taught in English (L2), within the Finnish educational system.

As a learning environment, CLIL has its roots in the immersion education which first began in Canada in the 1960s (e.g. Swain & Johnson, 1997). It also relies on Krashen's (e.g. 1983) notions of comprehensible input and on the ideas of the so-called communicative approach. Krashen's work has been reappraised on a number of occasions, but the core ideas still constitute some of the fundamental principles of CLIL. The notions that a degree of learning is automatic (i.e. learning can occur even when attention is not consciously paid to vocabulary or structures), and that learning is partly related to exposure (i.e. high exposure to a second language is seen to enhance language mastery) are still of marked importance for CLIL (cf. Wode, 1999). On the other hand, as also output is claimed to be of crucial importance if learning is to be successful (Swain, 1996; see also Swain & Lapkin, 1995), CLIL typically provides input that learners can understand as well as gives them plenty of opportunities for meaningful interaction using the L2.

However, N. Ellis (1994) and Schmidt (2001) strongly oppose Krashen's conception of the minimal role of consciousness and attention, and state that acquisition never occurs in a totally incidental manner but is a by-product of attention to relevant, rule-governed structures. As far as lexical learning is concerned, N. Ellis (1994) claims that both implicit and explicit operations are crucial in L2 word acquisition. Verspoor and Lowie (2003) and Carter (2001) argue that sometimes looking up words in dictionaries or using explicit mnemonic strategies to commit words to memory may be more beneficial than simply meeting words in various contexts over time.

VI. LEARNING IN CLIL

Research concentrating on the development of L2 skills in CLIL classes has mostly produced promising results. Järvinen (1999) tracked the syntactic development of relativization and found that the CLIL group could produce sentences significantly longer, more complex and more accurate than the mainstream control group, in an elicited imitation task. Valtanen (2001) investigated overall English proficiency at the end of lower secondary school. He exploited a national language test and measured English skills in reading, listening, writing, speaking, and grammar. CLIL learners scored on average higher than their peers, attending the monolingual stream, in each section of the test, which, in line with Järvinen, implies that CLIL has a clear positive effect on the development of English competence as a whole.

Studies on vocabulary learning in CLIL are still fairly sparse. Karonen (2003) 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 and that they would give more paradigmatic responses typical of native speaker adults. On the other hand, she expected the learners in formal language instruction to react to the stimulus differently by giving more syntagmatic responses, typical of native speaker children. Contrary to her expectations, however, no developmental syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift was found in either of the groups. As far as we can see, one possible explanation for this may be that her subjects' (5th, 7th and 9th graders) lexicons were still so narrow that the organisation dimension simply had not developed sufficiently (cf. Meara, 1996).

Nevertheless as mentioned in Section I, some studies conducted in Sweden have produced contradictory results. Sylvén (2004) concluded that exposure to English outside school was more influential in the development of the learners' vocabulary skills than participation in CLIL. Similarly, Lim Falk (2008) discovered that there was less interaction (and hence L2 use) in a CLIL classroom than in a mainstream class. Results of this kind are in the minority but they certainly warrant a careful consideration of individual CLIL situations. Learning outcomes are the result of a combination of factors, and, therefore, generalizations should be made with caution.

In conclusion, research has indicated that, by and large, learning in a CLIL environment seems to have a more favourable effect on pupils' L2 skills than the monolingual stream, although many questions still remain open in this area. As for word acquisition, optimal learning may be best attained by combining explicit and implicit learning conditions which is exactly what a CLIL context normally does. Besides receiving formal instruction, the pupils are exposed to authentic input and have a multitude of opportunities to communicate and practise. The matter is far from established, however, and relatively little is known about the effects of CLIL on second language vocabulary development, which is precisely the focus of the present study.

VII. THE STUDY

The main objective of the present study was to examine how much English vocabulary pupils learn in a general (GEN) and in a CLIL classroom by the end of the lower and upper levels of the Finnish comprehensive school, i.e. by the end of the sixth and ninth grade. The vocabularies were studied from the perspectives of receptive and productive knowledge and word frequency.

A. Research Questions

The study at hand sought to answer the following three questions:
1. How large are sixth-graders' passive and active vocabularies in GEN and in CLIL education?
2. How large are ninth-graders' passive and active vocabularies in GEN and in CLIL education?
3. How does word frequency affect vocabulary learning, especially the active-passive ratio?

B. Subjects

Altogether 367 Finnish comprehensive school pupils took the vocabulary tests, but the sample was pruned to comprise 330 pupils according to the information gathered based on a background information questionnaire. Only the learners who had Finnish as their mother tongue, who did not have English as the language spoken at home and who had not lived in an English speaking country for any significant period of time (here defined as more than two weeks) were chosen. The sample was, thus, as homogenous as possible, and therefore, the educational context (CLIL or mainstream instruction) could conceivably be assumed to account for the test results.

A total of 149 of the 330 subjects were finishing primary school and 181 lower secondary school, which means that the participants were aged around 13 and 16 years, respectively. The subjects in the experimental groups were CLIL pupils in grades six (CLIL6) (N=75) and nine (CLIL9) (N=88). Altogether eight CLIL classes participated, four of them primary and four lower secondary classes. As is common in Finland, their teaching had followed the national content curriculum, but they had been exposed to English from the first grade onwards (cf. Nikula & Marsh, 1999), the proportion of English having been largest in the lower grades (even close to 80% in the first and second grades), after which it had started to decline to reach approximately 40% of class time in the ninth grade. Their formal English instruction had begun in the third grade, similarly to mainstream education.

The participants in the control groups were pupils attending the general monolingual education in grades six (GEN6) (N=74) and nine (GEN9) (N=93). In total, nine mainstream classes were tested, four of them at primary level and five at lower secondary level. As stated above, the content syllabus had been congruent with CLIL education and the formal English classes had begun in the third grade, entailing that the mainstream participants had studied English for four and seven years, respectively. Table 2 shows the ages of the subject groups and the amount of English instruction that they had received.

TABLE II.
SUBJECTS OF THE STUDY

Groups	N (total = 330)	Age	Instruction in English (years)	Instruction in English (h)
CLIL 6	75	13	6	2600
CLIL 9	88	16	9	3400
GEN 6	74	13	4	330
GEN 9	93	16	7	600

The figures indicating the number of hours are estimates based on the general guidelines of CLIL teaching and formal foreign language teaching in Finland. The considerably lower figures of the GEN groups refer to formal English classes which amount to about 2.3 hours per week throughout the school year.

C. Methods and Procedures

The data were collected in a total of seventeen classes in eleven comprehensive schools situated around southwest Finland. The collection took place in the spring term in 2011. All the schools were state schools of typical, if different, sizes and thus in all likelihood representative of the Finnish educational context.

As the present study aimed to explore both receptive and productive vocabularies, two distinct tests were included in the test pattern. The Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1983, 1990) was administered in order to measure receptive vocabulary knowledge whereas the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (Laufer & Nation, 1999) was used to gauge productive vocabulary knowledge. These tests were chosen because, at present, they embody the nearest-to-standard instruments in the field of vocabulary testing, they are widely used and, most importantly, their validity has been assessed by distinct scholars (see e.g. Beglar & Hunt, 1999; Laufer & Nation, 1999; Schmitt, Schmitt & Clapham, 2001).

The validity and reliability of the study were enhanced by diminishing the effect of extraneous variables. In order for the testing situation to be as familiar and neutral as possible, the testing was implemented under normal classroom circumstances during schooldays. To provide enough time, the tests were conducted on two different occasions, the duration of each being 45 minutes, and to counteract lassitude, there was a break of 15 minutes between the sessions. This time frame proved to be sufficient for finishing the tests without haste, as the fastest pupils completed them in approximately 25 minutes and even the slowest ones did not use more than 40 minutes. On the first testing occasion, the par-

ticipants were asked to fill in the background information form and to take the receptive test and on the second, they were asked to take the productive test.

1. The Vocabulary Levels Test

The Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) was originally devised by Nation (1983). It is described and is available in Nation (1983, 1990). Recently, the initial test has been replaced by improved versions 1 and 2 by Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham (2001), found in Schmitt (2000) and in Nation (2001), respectively. The present study exploited Version 1. The VLT was in fact originally not designed to estimate learners' vocabulary size but as a diagnostic test to be used for pedagogic purposes. However, it has been used to measure vocabulary size in a number of studies (Stæhr, 2008). The version used in this study consists of five parts, representing the following five levels of word frequency in English: the levels of 2000, 3000, 5000 and 10000 words and academic words.

The 2000 and 3000 word levels contain high-frequency words. Knowledge of the 2000 most common words provides the resources required for rudimentary everyday spoken discourse, whereas the next 1000 words provide additional material for oral uses as well as enable learners to begin to read at least some unsimplified materials. The 5000 word level represents the ultimate boundary of high and low-frequency items. The words below this threshold are central if one wishes to read authentic texts fairly fluently. The 10000 word level contains low-frequency items. An L2 learner with a vocabulary of the 10000 most common words can be considered notably proficient as he can read practically any texts, excluding specialised materials, without major difficulty. Finally, the academic word level is based on Coxhead's (2000) Academic Word List. This level of formal words contains specialised vocabulary important for learners who engage in an English-medium learning environment. The items in it occur widely in textbooks and in other academic materials. It is not a separate frequency level but it contains items from the fourth to sixth levels.

As for the format, the test involves matching a word with a suitable definition. At each level, there are 60 words and 30 definitions, in groups of six and three respectively, as in example (1) from the 2000 word level:

(1) 1 cream
    2 factory _____ part of milk
    3 nail _____ a lot of money
    4 pupil _____ person who is studying
    5 sacrifice
    6 wealth

According to Nation (1990), this format allows test-takers to exploit whatever knowledge they have of the meanings of the words; the option words in each cluster are selected so that they are not related in their meanings nor do they have similar orthographic forms. Thus, an examinee should be able to make the appropriate match even if s/he had only a rough impression of the meaning of a word. Nation (1990) also reports that all the words in each section were selected so that they would be representative of the words at that frequency level. In this way the results of the test are presumed to provide an estimate of the proportion of the words at each level that a learner knows.

2. The Productive Vocabulary Levels Test

The Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (PVLT) seeks to measure the ability to provide a word when required to do so by the given context. In other words, it is a test of controlled productive knowledge. The PVLT has been modelled on the original VLT by Laufer and Nation (1999). There are two equivalent versions available, both of which can be found in Laufer and Nation (1999). The present study exploited Version 2. Instead of meaning-definition matching, as in the VLT, the examinees are presented with sentences including a missing word and required to fill in the blanks with appropriate target words. Each frequency level section consists of eighteen sentences. Examples (2) and (3) from the 2000 word level elicit the words *hungry*, and *usual*.

(2) They sat down to eat even though they were not hu_____.
(3) This work is not up to your usu_____ standard.

According to Laufer and Nation (1999), the first few letters of the target words are always provided in order to prevent the test-takers from filling in some other word which may be semantically suitable in the given context but which comes from a wrong frequency level.

3. Calculating Vocabulary Size

As for the Vocabulary Levels Test, each frequency level section consists of 30 items. Therefore, the maximum score for each level is 30 and for the whole test 150. The answers were scored as correct or incorrect, and each correct match was given one point. As regards the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test, the total number of items is 90, with 18 items at each frequency level. This holds that the maximum score for the test is 90 and for each level 18. As in the VLT, the scoring was in terms of correct (one point) or incorrect/blank (zero points). An answer was considered correct when the item was semantically appropriate. If used in a wrong grammatical form, for instance the wrong tense, it was nevertheless accepted. A word spelled wrongly was not marked as incorrect either if the word was nonetheless recognisable and if the error did not distort the word (e.g. *dwel* instead of *dwell*). Most of the incorrect answers were non-words or existing words incorrect in the particular context, like ro*om* instead of ro*ots* in example (4) from the 2000 word level.

(4) Plants receive water from the soil through their ro_____.

As discussed above, the scores are thought to indicate the proportion of words a learner may know at a particular frequency level. This entails that they do not actually reveal much of the total number of words the learner knows, and,

consequently, the size of the lexicon has to be calculated separately. We decided to apply a formula introduced by Laufer (1998) since her way of treating the missing levels and the additional university word level is generally accepted. Laufer had excluded the last frequency level from her test, so the calculations she made represent a vocabulary of merely 5000 word families. Furthermore, she used the older version of the VLT which holds that the maximum score for each level was 18, as opposed to 30. According to Laufer (1998), the first and the second thousand levels can be assumed to have a corresponding score, whereas the fourth level score can be taken as an average of the third and fifth levels. The sum of the scores at all the levels is then multiplied by 5000 and divided by 108 (eighteen items per level for six levels).

Up to the fifth level, the calculation in the study at hand was done following Laufer. As for the upper levels, we finally chose to extend her model to cover also the sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth levels. That is to say, the missing levels were taken as an average of the fifth and tenth levels. This solution entails a great deal of rough estimation and gives a disproportionate weighting to the results of the third and fifth sections of the tests but, on the other hand, it exploits all the information that is available and builds directly upon the results elicited in the tests. After having calculated a score for each frequency level, we multiplied the sum of the scores at all the levels by 10000 (as the tests with all the levels included represent a lexicon of 10000 word families) and divided it by 330 in the case of the VLT (thirty items per level for eleven levels – 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, academic words) and by 198 in the case of the PVLT (eighteen items per level for eleven levels).

VIII. RESULTS

The participants' passive vocabulary knowledge was measured with the Vocabulary Levels Test and their active vocabulary knowledge was evaluated with the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test. The scores of the tests represent estimated receptive and productive vocabulary sizes of the participants, calculated in word families. The calculations were done according to the principles described in the previous section.

Research question one asked how large sixth-graders' passive and active vocabularies in mainstream and in CLIL education are. Table III displays the results of the receptive test for sixth-graders by frequency levels.

TABLE III.
SIXTH-GRADERS' RECEPTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE

	Vocabulary size		Difference betw. groups		
	GEN6	CLIL6	t	df	p
2000	410	702	10.08	147	<0.001
3000	251	547	9.77	137	<0.001
5000	141	417	10.97	120	<0.001
AWL	94	364	9.16	107	<0.001
10000	23	153	7.24	91	<0.001
Total	1853	4505	11.39	116	<0.001

As indicated in Table III, the mean passive vocabulary size of the GEN6 learners was approximately 1850, while the corresponding figure for the CLIL group was 4505. The difference between the groups was examined by using the t-test. As can be seen in Table III, significant differences were found across all frequency levels, together with the total score.

As regards active vocabulary knowledge, Table IV shows that the GEN6 pupils could, on average, produce nearly 800 word families, whereas the CLIL6 pupils' total estimated productive vocabulary size was somewhat less than 2300 words. As was the case with receptive vocabulary, also productive vocabulary showed significant differences between the two groups across all frequency levels.

TABLE IV.
SIXTH-GRADERS' PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE

	Vocabulary size		Difference		
	GEN6	CLIL6	t	df	p
2000	198	488	11.48	136	<0.001
3000	154	381	9.9	129	<0.001
5000	39	128	5.84	91	<0.001
AWL	24	154	7.36	88	<0.001
10000	1	41	4.19	75	<0.001
Total	788	2271	9.22	102	<0.001

In conclusion, the results of the Levels Tests for the sixth-graders indicate that the CLIL learners scored, on average, significantly better than the pupils studying in the general classroom, i.e. they appear to have larger receptive and productive vocabularies.

Research question two addressed the passive and active vocabulary sizes of ninth-grade students in mainstream and in CLIL education. The scores in Table V suggest that the CLIL9 learners have generally succeeded better in the VLT than the mainstream ninth-graders. In other words, their passive vocabulary size seems to be, on average, larger. Significant differences were found across all of the tested frequency levels along with the total score.

TABLE V.
NINTH-GRADERS' RECEPTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE

	Vocabulary size		Difference		
	GEN9	CLIL9	t	df	p
2000	741	841	5.54	151	<0.001
3000	608	724	4.46	179	<0.001
5000	451	575	4.34	179	<0.001
AWL	472	625	4.87	179	<0.001
10000	239	325	3.18	179	0.002
Total	5161	6379	4.82	179	<0.001

Regarding active vocabulary knowledge, Table VI displays the scores of the PVLT for the ninth-graders. Significant differences were found for all the frequency levels and for the total score alike, with the CLIL students exhibiting larger productive vocabulary sizes, on average.

TABLE VI.
NINTH-GRADERS' PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE

	Vocabulary size		Difference		
	GEN9	CLIL9	t	df	p
2000	499	646	5.77	179	<0.001
3000	427	559	4.66	179	<0.001
5000	152	257	4.52	179	<0.001
AWL	203	320	6.23	179	<0.001
10000	64	130	3.52	154	0.001
Total	2565	3742	5.26	179	<0.001

Research question three asked about the effect of word frequency on the relationship between passive and active vocabularies. The results presented here will show, first of all, how the two knowledge types correlated with each other. Table VII displays the correlation coefficients and the significance levels for each group individually and for all subjects together as measured by Pearson's correlation.

TABLE VII.
CORRELATION BETWEEN RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE BY LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AND GRADE

	N	Vocabulary size		Correlation	
		Receptive	Productive	r	p
GEN6	74	1853	788	0.74	<0.001
CLIL6	75	4505	2271	0.87	<0.001
GEN9	93	5161	2565	0.84	<0.001
CLIL9	88	6379	3742	0.91	<0.001
All groups	330	4595	2462	0.91	<0.001

As indicated in Table VII, very strong positive correlations (r>0.8) were found between the receptive score and the productive score, indicating that generally pupils who scored high in the receptive test were likely to score high in the productive test as well. That is to say, it appears that wide passive knowledge usually means wide active knowledge. This holds across all groups, save GEN6 in which case the effect size can be considered strong (r>0.5). These results are not surprising, as they are in line with most earlier studies. To further investigate the relationship between the two vocabularies, the dimension of word frequency was introduced.

In what follows, the lexical profiles of the subjects are illustrated by frequency levels. Fig. 1 depicts the passive and active vocabularies of all of the participants at the tested word frequency levels and Table VIII presents the situation for each group separately. The maximum score for each level is 1000 word families.
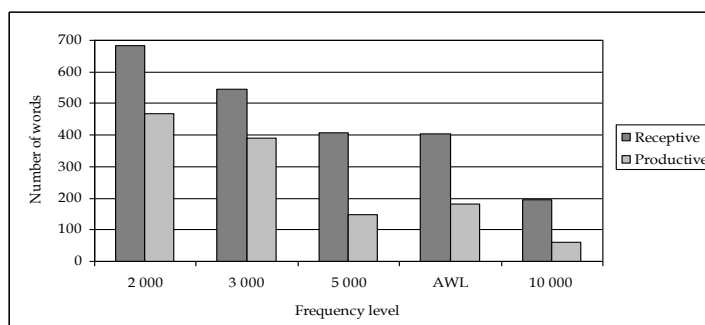

Figure 1. Receptive and productive vocabulary size at different word frequency levels

TABLE VIII.
RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE BY LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AND GRADE AT DIFFERENT WORD FREQUENCY LEVELS

	GEN6	CLIL6	GEN9	CLIL9	All groups
2 000	410 / 198	702 / 488	741 / 499	841 / 646	648 / 468
3 000	251 / 154	547 / 381	608 / 427	724 / 559	545 / 390
5 000	141 / 39	417 / 128	451 / 152	451 / 257	407 / 149
Academic	94 / 24	364 / 154	472 / 203	625 / 320	404 / 183
10 000	23 / 1	153 / 41	239 / 64	325 / 130	194 / 62

Fig. 1 and Table VIII show a similar tendency: both passive and active scores decrease systematically with decreasing word frequency, suggesting that word frequency is in direct proportion to vocabulary knowledge. (That some of the scores at the academic word level are higher than at the 5000 word level does not contradict this finding. As pointed out earlier, the academic level consists of words from 4000 to 6000 frequency levels, which means that the academic words cannot necessarily be regarded as more infrequent than the words at the 5000 level.) Concretely, the subjects seem to have known more frequent than infrequent vocabulary across the entire sample, the smallest lexicons comprising almost exclusively common words.

Whether the differences in the numbers of words known at distinct frequency levels are statistically significant was examined by a one-way ANOVA. The academic word level is not a frequency level of its own and, therefore, it was not treated separately but as a part of the 5000 word level (see above). The ANOVA showed that word frequency had a significant effect on both receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge overall (F=269, p<0.001 and F=395, p<0.001, respectively), and the Scheffe post hoc test confirmed that the differences were highly significant across all of the frequency levels (p<0.001). That is, the learners appear to have known notably more common than rare words.

To view the relationship between word frequency and vocabulary learning further, an active-passive ratio for each frequency level was calculated. Table IX presents the ratios for each group of learners as well as for all groups together.

TABLE IX.
PRODUCTIVE-RECEPTIVE RATIO BY LEARNING ENVIRONMENT AND GRADE AT DIFFERENT WORD FREQUENCY LEVELS

	GEN6	CLIL6	GEN9	CLIL9	All groups
2000	47.3	68.8	66.4	76.2	68.4
3000	62.4	74.4	70.0	76.4	71.6
5000	30.9	28.4	32.6	41.3	36.6
Academic	23.1	43.3	46.2	50.7	45.3
10000	8.8	15.6	26.4	41.1	32.0

Table IX exposes an interesting phenomenon: the gap between active and passive vocabularies differs at different frequency levels, entailing that the receptive and productive scores do not diminish at the same rate from one level to another. The gap is narrower at the more frequent levels and wider at the less frequent levels, suggesting that rarer words were less likely to be part of the participants' active vocabulary knowledge. Rather unexpectedly, the active-passive ratio did not drop right after the second frequency band but only after the third, it actually being at its highest at that level. The difference between the 2000 and 3000 word levels is, however, small.

The significance of the differences between the ratios was explored by conducting a one-way ANOVA, the result of which implies that word frequency influences the active-passive ratio significantly (F=170, p<0.001). According to the post hoc Scheffe test, the differences were pronounced between all of the frequency bands (p<0.001), save the 2000 and 3000 word levels (p>0.05). This implies that the first three thousand words are more readily available for production than the more infrequent words.

In conclusion, the results suggest that word frequency and vocabulary learning are related. The learners knew significantly more vocabulary both receptively and productively at the higher word frequency levels than at the lower frequency levels. However, the relationship between active and passive vocabularies was not uniform across the levels in that the proportion of actively known words lessened drastically after the 3000 word level. This indicates that infrequent words were less likely to be active than the highly frequent first 3000 words.

IX. DISCUSSION

The primary objective of the present study was to estimate and compare the vocabulary sizes attained in mainstream and in CLIL education by the end of the lower and upper levels of the Finnish comprehensive school. Both receptive and productive lexicons were measured and examined in relation to frequency bands. The vocabulary tests used were the Vocabulary Levels Test (Nation, 1983, 1990) and the Productive Vocabulary Levels Test (Laufer & Nation, 1999).

The first and the second research questions attempted to estimate the vocabulary sizes of sixth- and ninth-graders studying in the traditional classroom and in CLIL. Table X shows a summation of the approximated vocabularies, as calculated in word families.

TABLE X.
SUMMATION OF RECEPTIVE AND PRODUCTIVE VOCABULARY SIZE

	Sixth grade		Ninth grade	
	GEN (N=74)	CLIL (N=75)	GEN (N=93)	CLIL (N=88)
Receptive size	1800	4500	5200	6400
Productive size	800	2300	2600	3700

As could be expected, the vocabulary sizes elicited in the present study lag behind native speaker word knowledge. At the age of thirteen an L1 learner would probably know well over 10000 word families and at the age of sixteen the number would typically be around 15000 to 16000 (cf. Nation & Waring, 1997). On the other hand, the results imply 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 (cf. Table I).

Regarding the difference between the learning streams, our results confirm the prevailing perception that the CLIL environment is more fruitful for foreign language development than the monolingual stream. Namely, the scores of the vocabulary tests, summarized in Table X above, indicate that the average CLIL pupil could both comprehend and produce notably more words than the average GEN pupil in the same grade. The observed differences were statistically highly significant as measured by the t-test.

It can safely be assumed that the results are largely due to the different learning environments, CLIL classes providing the learners more opportunities to be exposed to English and to use it than regular classes. It is important to note that the CLIL participants had been admitted to the CLIL programmes (before starting the first grade) on the basis of their achievement in an entrance procedure which had not tested English language skills but sought to measure school readiness and general language awareness. Furthermore, it is noteworthy that in Finland, children start the CLIL programme typically without any knowledge of the foreign language, from zero, as it were, and they do not take additional language classes outside school as seems to be customary in some other countries, for example in Spain (Bruton, 2011).

As discussed above, vocabulary acquisition appears to be both an implicit and an explicit process, which implies that optimal learning may be best attained by combining explicit and implicit learning conditions (cf. e.g. R. Ellis, 1994; N. Ellis, 1993). As suggested by N. Ellis (1994), the process begins by unconscious form acquisition after which the meanings are learnt consciously. Furthermore, the faster the lower-level acquisition of forms becomes efficient, the sooner learners can focus on the higher-level acquisition of meanings and thereby extend their lexical knowledge. Besides involving formal instruction, CLIL provides frequent exposure to versatile and meaningful input and a multitude of opportunities to use the target language in situations that have a communicative function. This means that CLIL learners have more opportunities for both implicit form acquisition and explicit establishment of form-meaning links than GEN learners, accumulating larger lexicons. It is worth noting that the CLIL participants also reported reading in English outside school more often than their GEN peers, their interest in reading probably being a by-product of CLIL education. This issue is developed and discussed more thoroughly in another article by the same authors (Pietilä& Merikivi, 2014).

The third research question addressed the connection between active and passive vocabulary knowledge in relation to frequency bands of the lexicon. Our results reassert the prevalent view that the most frequent items are typically learnt before the rarer items (e.g. Read, 1988; Nation, 1990; Milton, 2006) in that the typical frequency pattern was observable across the data (cf. Richards & Malvern, 2007; Milton, 2007). This could be expected, as meeting and using the most common words of a language cannot, in practice, be avoided.

Most of the participants knew infrequent items without having full-scale competence of the first three frequency bands, strengthening the idea that learners do not acquire vocabulary strictly frequency level by frequency level (cf. Schmitt & Meara, 1997) but tend to pick up at least some lower-frequency items alongside learning the most common words. This seems only natural when it comes to our data, as comprehensive school pupils are commonly exposed to learning materials that often present words in semantic fields rather than purely in their order of frequency. That all the groups showed strong receptive and productive knowledge of common words at the end of the comprehensive school is another sign of successful language training, frequent lexicon forming the base for extensive reading and being indispensable in all communication.

Pupils in a CLIL context probably have substantially more time and opportunities to process the target language than pupils in a GEN context, and CLIL environments may require the students to produce the second language more frequently than GEN environments, factors likely to further lexical activation. Moreover, we believe that learners in CLIL may invest more effort into acquiring vocabulary in general than learners in GEN, as they have to cope in the CLIL language in their studies. If this is correct, the greater mental effort required for conscious learning may result in more forceful activation of the receptive lexicon in the CLIL pupils. This explanation is consistent with Swain and Lapkin (1995) and Carter (2001) who state that acquisition is more profound when students stretch their linguistic resource, and with N. Ellis (1994) who stresses the importance of explicit processes in thorough lexical learning, including word activation. On the other hand, Laufer (1998) found that by concentrating on vocabulary acquisition, her monolingual stream participants' active vocabulary size increased by 850 words on average during a single school year. In our opinion, the result implies that GEN is not automatically less efficient than CLIL and that also the CLIL stream could well afford to aim for larger active vocabularies. This is consistent with Järvinen (1999; see also Swain, 1993) who presumes

that in CLIL word acquisition should be emphasised and the students' own production encouraged even more to ensure optimal development of linguistic competence.

X. CONCLUSION

Many questions concerning vocabulary acquisition and different learning contexts remain unanswered. For example, according to our results, the CLIL environment does seem to be more conducive to word acquisition, especially the development of active vocabulary, than the traditional language learning classroom, but it may not make full use of its potential as regards lexical learning. It would therefore be interesting to examine which pedagogical solutions, if any, would alter the situation most favourably. Furthermore, whether mainstream pupils would attain the same results as, or even better results than, CLIL pupils if they also began receiving English instruction from the first grade onwards, can be speculated. Regarding the relationship between active and passive knowledge, the results of the present study strengthened the perception that a learner's receptive knowledge is greater than his/her productive knowledge and that the two vocabularies correlate strongly. However, we suggest that it would be too simplistic to express the connection merely in terms of mean ratio and correlation for all foreign language learners because the linkage was found to be neither uniform nor stable. On one hand, the proportion of active items became larger along development and, on the other, the active-passive ratio altered within a learner's lexicon at distinct frequency levels, being the highest at the most frequent levels. In the Finnish context, it would be of particular interest to study the development of a foreign language not as outstandingly present in our society as English is. In other words, it would be enlightening to examine whether decidedly fewer contacts with the target language would result, firstly, in a lower ratio between active and passive lexicons and, secondly, in a widening gap at higher levels of proficiency, as opposed to the tapering gap in the case of English.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Riika Merikivi comes originally from Huittinen, but lives now in Turku, Finland. Her MA degree, with English philology as her major subject, is from the University of Turku, Finland (2012). She has formerly worked as a CLIL teacher and is now teaching English in a vocational institute in Turku. She is interested in researching foreign language learning, particularly vocabulary acquisition in a CLIL environment. Her research interests also include the relationship between receptive and productive vocabularies in different target languages and, more recently, child language development.

Päivi Pietilä was born in Pori, Finland. She received her MA degree, majoring in English, from the University of Turku in 1978; a *maîtrise ès lettres* degree from l'Université de Franche-Comté, France, in 1979; a Licentiate in Philosophy from the University of Joensuu, Finland, in 1983; and completed her PhD at the University of Turku, Finland, in 1990.

Her permanent position is that of Professor of English at the University of Turku, Finland, but in 2013, she divided her time as a visiting scholar at the University of Cambridge, UK, and the City University of New York, USA. Her research interests include second/foreign language learning, second language attrition, L2 speaking skills, L2 academic writing, vocabulary development and the lexis-grammar interface.

ESL/SSL Strategies that Bridge Content and Language in Science: Experiential Learning in an Environmental Education Workshop

Esther V. Garza
Texas A &M University-San Antonio/Bilingual Education, San Antonio, USA

Kimberley Kennedy
The University of Texas at San Antonio/Interdisciplinary Learning & Teaching, San Antonio, USA

Maria G. Arreguń-Anderson
The University of Texas at San Antonio/Interdisciplinary Learning & Teaching, San Antonio, USA

Abstract—**This qualitative research study examines how 66 generalist and bilingual education pre-service teachers responded to and engaged during a dual-language environmental education workshop. Workshop facilitators-researchers designed the workshop to alternate the language of instruction throughout the daylong workshop. Since approximately half of the participants were monolingual-English speakers, the research question addressed by the study was: What teaching strategies did the pre-service teachers identify as essential and apply in order to comprehend the academic content of the dual-language environmental education workshop? The following components were identified and/or applied: bilingual pairs, multisensory approaches, use of visuals, and identification of Spanish/English cognates.**

Index Terms—**bilingual education, teacher preparation, dual-language strategies, science education**

I. INTRODUCTION

International studies have shown that science achievement in the United States falls short in comparison to other industrialized countries (NCEE, 2006; PISA, TIMSS & PIRLS 1995-2003 in Lee, 2005). This shortfall in the science fields is mirrored at the national level, where the achievement gap between mainstream students and non-mainstream students, specifically students with little or no English and bilingual learners, continues to grow (Lee, 2005). This demographic reality calls for pedagogies that tear content and language barriers so that all students can learn science while they acquire English.

Scholars propose that teacher educators equip prospective teachers with methodologies and strategies that not only attend to students' linguistic needs but draw their interest to science fields. These prospective teachers will be placed in US schools where much importance is placed on science inquiry and development of a highly specialized scientific vocabulary or language (NRC, 1996). Coupled with that demand is the increasing ELL (English Language Learner) population. Lee and Buxton (2010) explain that the only approach to encourage support for cultural and linguistic awareness for teachers is to provide "teacher education that specifically addresses both pre-service and in-service teacher's beliefs and practices with regard to student diversity as it relates to subject areas" (p.113).

Moreover, experiential learning for prospective educators is an opportunity to address student diversity with a particular focus on subject areas. In this article, the authors propose that this urgent need can be addressed through a purposeful infusion of experiential learning in which linguistic accommodations and science are learned. Therefore, in this study, the researchers narrate the results of an environmental education workshop in which the authors modeled a variety of strategies and created opportunities for prospective teachers to practice and reflect as they designed ways to develop science concepts and vocabulary.

II. RESEARCH QUESTION

In order to examine the development of strategic approaches in a dual language context, the following question was posed in order to understand and frame this study:

1. What teaching strategies did the pre-service teachers identify as essential and apply in order to comprehend the academic content of the dual-language environmental education workshop?

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Strategy instruction can be instrumental for ELLs and bilingual learners due to the short amount of time to attain conceptual development in science. Lee (2005) states that "the need for such integration is especially urgent, given the climate of standards-based instruction, high-stakes assessment, and accountability facing today's schools" (p.492). Thereby, teachers must be aware that there are specific strategies that can assist bilingual learners in science learning and first and second language development. According to Lee and Buxton (2010) there are instructional strategies that are pivotal for science learning such as the activation of prior knowledge, the use of graphic organizers, the inclusion of science trade books, and comprehension of language functions (i.e. interpersonal, heuristic etc…) in relation to science process skills. In addition, gaining linguistic proficiency in a particular content requires such strategies as hands-on activities and realia for science concept development. Some examples of these multimodal strategies are "…gestures, oral, pictorial, graphic and textual communication" (Lee & Buxton, 2010, p.77). Le Pichon et al (2010) found that children, who experienced formal contexts, where multimodal strategies and linguistic strategies can be applied, accessed the use of more strategies than children who experienced the acquisition of language in informal contexts.

In addition to these instructional and linguistic strategies, there is also the use of a student's home language as an opportunity for different strategic and pedagogical uses for science learning. Therefore, code-switching and the use of cognates are useful strategies in communicating science understanding (Lee & Buxton, 2010) and comprehending scientific processes and reasoning. If teachers are familiar with their students' native languages, they may introduce key vocabulary and/or conceptual aspects in their native language(s).

Brown (2007) presented several strategies that are useful for ELLs in their development of content area learning. For example, she discussed implementing the use of graphic organizers such as content maps that point out the location of the main idea and draw students' attention to it. Guiding questions were also a useful strategy for students in order to focus their attention on the most important points of the theme being studied. Teachers also required that students activate their prior knowledge in their first language in order to engage in comprehension of a text or concept. Though these strategies were critical to students' conceptual understanding of the content however, Brown found that many teachers who teach content are not usually concerned with teaching the structure or grammar of a language since they view their task as only content delivery. Such a perspective is limiting for teachers of ELLs and bilingual learners because a lack of integration of content acquisition strategies that supports the development of academic language can reject opportunities to practice literacy and computational skills needed to develop scientific reasoning and arguments. Echevarria, Short & Vogt (2004) introduced a lesson design titled Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) that approaches learning content with a focus on both language and conceptual development for ELLs.

Tran (2006) also focused on strategies for ELLs in the area of teaching vocabulary. She described how students could acquire new vocabulary through memorization of vocabulary words. If the instructional materials presented and emphasized the memorization of key vocabulary in science, that would also assist ELLs in acquiring and learning new vocabulary via pronunciation and repetition eventually leading to conceptual development. Tran also found that students should be exposed to explicit instruction of vocabulary in terms of interactive or cooperative instruction such as in cooperative grouping. Students can utilize dictionaries and vocabulary notebooks in order to semantically or visually develop a more advanced register in the English or Spanish language. Context clues were another strategy mentioned that would promote the acquisition of new vocabulary through the contextual reading of a text. Such a practice could assist students in understanding how particular words are utilized within a decontextualized content area. Finally, the use of summarization was also a helpful strategy for reviewing and reiterating new vocabulary that was just introduced.

To further examine the use of strategies to increase comprehensible input in science, Hampton and Rodriguez's study (2001) demonstrated interest in students' concept and vocabulary development through the use of science inquiry. In their research, students who were involved in a student-centered type of inquiry had more access to language and content learning. Students were allowed to examine science through their own worlds and engage in scientific processes (Hampton & Rodriguez, 2001). Through the use of science inquiry, students were able to utilize the following strategies "…observe, introduce variables, record, measure, predict, infer, inquire and explore" (Hampton & Rodriguez, 2001, p.464).

IV. METHODOLOGY

Participants
There were 66 students that participated in the study. The participants were mainly women with just a few men in attendance. In addition, the majority of the participants were Hispanic or White. All of the students were either pre-service bilingual education or general education teachers from a Hispanic-serving institution.

Data Sources
In order to attempt to discover the strategy use by these pre-service teachers in this dual context in the content area of science, a qualitative approach was conducted in order to view pre-service bilingual and general education teachers' use of strategy instruction. The qualitative data was collected from a narrative provided by a Project WILD facilitator and the bilingual and general education teachers' interviews. This data was transcribed and coded as themes for evidence of strategy use. Braun and Clark (2006) note that a theme "captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set" (p.87). Following up

the theme analysis, a deductive thematic analysis was conducted in order to deduce the strategy use from the data and understand the conceptual strategy categories being derived from the data. "Deductive reasoning is a theory testing process which commences with an established theory or generalisation, and seeks to see if the theory applies to specific instances" (Hyde, 2000, p. 82).

Additional data sources were collected from pre-service bilingual education and general education teachers through interviews and open-ended questions posed throughout the workshop. Finally, other data sources included reflection notes, workshop survey, field notes and Project WILD agenda (Figure 1, See Appendix A):

Context of the Study

The study took place in a local public park made up of 320 acres of hill country landscape within the southernmost part of the United States. This large sized setting houses a family public park, five miles of trails for hiking, jogging, and nature study. The park also includes wooded dry creek beds and rocky canyons. The park's large pavilion, restrooms, and surrounding nature trails made this setting appropriate for the environmental education workshop where bilingual education and general education pre-service teachers would learn about a curriculum, Project WILD that enhances their knowledge of conservation and environmental education with students in kindergarten through high school.

Project WILD

Project WILD emphasizes wildlife because of its "intrinsic value… and addresses the need for human beings to develop as responsible citizens of our planet" (Project WILD, 2013). The one-day workshop is designed to ensure that all students develop an understanding of key science concepts in environmental education. These concepts were identifying wildlife in/out of the classroom, understanding the ecological impact of human beings and nature on wildlife, and identifying eco-friendly ways that humans can promote advocacy for wildlife. Therefore, throughout the Project WILD workshop, pre-service educators were placed in cooperative groups adhering to effective practices such as bilingual pairing and a dual language or bilingual content approach to learning science. The following is the agenda that students experienced (Figure 1, See Appendix A):

Project WILD Facilitators/Researchers

The three professors/researchers in this study were faculty in large Hispanic-serving institutions. All three professors had experience working with pre-service teachers enrolled in science methods courses; during the spring 2012 semester attendance at the Project WILD workshop was required for pre-service teachers. The facilitators had experience teaching in the area of science education and are Project WILD facilitators. The guides in the study were students who had participated as Project WILD participants in the last two semesters and served as facilitators of the workshop.

Project WILD Workshop

The student groups were created as a linguistically mixed cooperative group. Moreover, the requirements of each were the following: one speaker of English, one bilingual speaker and an English or bilingual speaker. Each of these groups would later in the workshop be assigned a topic that they would have to deliver in a lesson format, before the last activity, in English or in Spanish.

This workshop has been integrated as a course requirement for pre-service bilingual and general education students. Funding from the pre-service students' institutions has been instrumental for student attendance. For the past eight years, our pre-service teachers have been receiving Project WILD training. However, they had always received the training solely in English if they were seeking generalist certification and bilingually only for pre-service teachers seeking bilingual education certification. This was the first dual language workshop where pre-service generalist and bilingual education teachers were paired up and received training bilingually (in Spanish and English). Therefore, two major modifications were made (1) deliberate use of collaborative grouping and (2) ESL and SSL modeling by facilitators.

1. Deliberate Use Of Collaborative Grouping

The use of collaborative groups provided project participants the opportunity to construct scientific meaning and develop pedagogical approaches for teaching science to all students. For example, the participants were placed in groups of different sizes (i.e. 3-5 students) by the facilitators in order to begin touring the natural environment through a nature hike guided by area naturalist volunteers. On the hike, the pre-service teachers were asked to observe the different types of plants and animals that coexist in this natural habitat. They were also asked to write down, take pictures and discuss any observations with their group members that may have provided them an understanding about this outdoor living environment. In these field observations, the pre-service teachers collaboratively discussed and began to develop questions and hypotheses about some of the characteristics found in this outdoor environment.

Following this activity, participants began to relate their observations and discussions during the hike to an activity titled "Wildlife is Everywhere". The participants were placed in collaborative groups and were asked to categorize an animal as domestic or wild. Students were given hula hoops to use to create a Venn Diagram and then categorize whether their animal or insect was domestic or wild according to its characteristics. From observational notes, it was noted that working in groups allowed both the bilingual and the monolingual speakers to collaborate and communicate using their languages to negotiate meaning and place the animal or insect in the correct category.

Another collaborative activity conducted in the second half of the workshop that provided the participants the opportunity to apply their learning, in reference to pedagogical approaches, were group presentations of a Project WILD lesson. Participants were required to collaborate in groups where bilingual educators and general educators worked in

groups of five. These students presented an assigned lesson activity from Project WILD in English or Spanish and demonstrated for the other participants how to effectively deliver science instruction. Participants presented on a range of environmental science topics such as physical characteristics of wildlife animals, wildlife habitats, interdependence among domestic and wildlife animals, and they incorporated the modeled strategies (i.e. cooperative grouping, use of realia and visuals) that made the science content more contextualized and comprehensible for their Project WILD peers.

2. ESL and SSL Modeling by Facilitators

In order to better understand these pedagogical approaches to science learning and strategy use, modeling was also employed by Project WILD facilitators. Such a method has been very beneficial for future educators because they are allowed to witness and experience these approaches first hand. Modeling for the participants aims to assist the preservice teacher to apply such approaches and strategies in their current and future educational settings. Since one of the goals of the workshop was dedicated to science learning, project participants were able to participate in different activities that assisted them in understanding outdoor science education. The dual language format served as an overlay of how the instruction would be delivered. Therefore, the Project WILD facilitators modeled bilingual content instruction using a dual language format throughout the entire workshop. Figure 1 (See Appendix A) demonstrates the 50/50 split of instruction in each respective language; English and Spanish. Therefore, participants learned through this workshop design how to engage students in science academic language development and learning. This occurs by the purposeful demonstration and actualization of learning language and content simultaneously. Such practice allows for the acquisition of a first and second language and aids in the comprehension of science concepts to encourage the use of academic language. Therefore, additional strategies modeled by the Project WILD facilitators are developing in an environment that supports science inquiry and questioning for clarification of science misconceptions and uncertainties. Facilitators also embedded additional science delivery strategies such as enunciating scientific terms clearly, repeating key concepts and informing the pre-service teachers with directions in the language of instruction.

IV. FINDINGS: TEACHING STRATEGIES FOR BILINGUAL SCIENCE CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

The findings indicated that through the engagement in collaborative groups and the observance of modeling of strategic instruction were key to the development science content learning and the development of scientific pedagogical approaches that are applicable in all settings. Moreover, the usefulness of the each of the strategies presented here was based on the needs of the learner during the different sessions presented. The needs of the learner were an important factor when considering which strategies were beneficial.

A. Bilingual Pairs: Bridging Linguistic Barriers

One of the strategies that were indicated in the pre-service teacher interviews by the majority of the participants in the dual language workshop was the use of bilingual pairs. In the literature, the strategy of using bilingual pairs or peer teaching is considered an effective strategy to facilitate the learning of a language and literacy (Angelova et al, 2006). Such a strategy prompted the workshop participants to develop cross-cultural relationships due to the pairing of bilingual and monolingual English speakers during different Project WILD activities. These collaborative groups provided the opportunity for the learners to communicate new information or prior knowledge using the content and/or a new language.

However, an interesting finding discovered through the pre-service educators' interviews was that the workshop participants referred to each other as bilingual partners and not pairs. For example, a general education pre-service teacher stated "It was a unique experience to be thrown into. I have a lot of background knowledge in Spanish…..but as far as it would be for a child in the classroom with no background knowledge, it would have been pretty difficult…it was nice to have a '*partner*' too. If you had no idea what they were talking about it was nice to have someone to clue you into what was going on" [Interview#3, 10/5/11]. Another general education pre-service student described her experience as "She was my 'partner' and she helped me because I don't know Spanish so I think to have a peer to explain because a lot of times the kids that don't know the language might get lost" [Interview #4, 10/5/11]. The use of the word "partner" seemed to be interpreted by the participants in the following ways: as a buddy who was empathetic and patient. The partners were also viewed as receptive, willing to share ideas and collaborated on developing many questions about the science concepts presented. Such partnership was also described as participants being immersed or included in an activity versus being submersed or forced in it. For example, a bilingual pre-service teacher described her experience as "I think that placing them in groups that [are] heterogeneous to where one person is strong in a certain subject so that they can help the person that [can't] keep up and help them when they have questions" [Interview#3, 10/5/11]. It was also described as an opportunity to share a cultural perspective to negotiate meaning in science. The partner was seen as a "cultural broker" (Aikenhead, 1996) and for many participants a short friendship was established due to the peer interactions. Partners became more comfortable with their peers because they each contributed to comprehending the science content. For example, a general education pre-service teacher made the following comment after being asked in an interview how they felt about the use of partners as a strategy for learning science. The participant responded "I think it makes it easier. I mean, I would prefer working with a partner than working by myself anyways so I personally like it. If I was by myself, then I definitely would have been lost because there was a lot of words that I didn't understand even though I do understand the majority of Spanish. I mean, I don't understand

everything so having a partner made it easier" (Interview#8, 10/5/11). Another general education pre-service teacher described working with her partner as "having group work peer interaction because children learn socially. So definitely whether bilingual or not, the big things was having us interact with each other because we learn from each other" [Interview #4, 10/5/11]. This pre-service teacher's partner added her thoughts about this topic "I liked how kids can look at nature differently, like for example, the food chain, that was really useful. And I really learned that having interactions and activities is key to the education" [Interview#4, 10/5/11].

However, there were some challenges noted in the pre-service teacher interviews that were faced by the bilingual partners at different times during the workshop. For example, some of the challenges were at times inaccurate translations by some partners, difficulty in hearing a partner in an outdoor setting, tension due to partner's personality, partner's background knowledge in science, and the responsibility sensed by the partner on the success of the task at hand. These findings should be explored further.

B. Multisensory Approaches

Another overarching strategy found during the implementation of this outdoor education workshop was the use of kinesthetic and fine-motor skills to develop scientific meaning. The following activities provided the context and engagement for the development of new scientific ideas and learning: role playing or dramatization, use of gestures or body language, interactive nature walk, and the use of music. The students' engagement in each of these activities lowered the anxiety and fear about learning science particularly in a dual language format. Pre-service teachers became more involved and it was observed that they used humor to offset their fears and concerns about science learning. The use of collaborative approaches coupled with the multisensory approaches assisted students in learning science. For example, one of the pre-service general education teachers stated "I liked the hiking. It was a lot of activity, a lot of movement, and a lot of doing [inaudible]…instead of just sitting there and not talking, we actually got to move. The hiking was awesome. It was visual, that was a lot of visual and I think that is the key also to learning, a lot of visual." [Interview#X, 10/5/11] This student's perception of being placed in cooperative groups in order to engage in these kinesthetic and fine-motor activities groups prompted students to interact, provide scaffolding to new science learning and allowed for lowering of the affective filter (Krashen, 1981) or the invisible barrier that allows information to be produced after true comprehension and language acquisition has occurred. More importantly, the student could use language, through the use of multisensory approaches, for the comprehension of science concepts and learning.

C. Use of Visuals

Visuals were also key to the comprehension of the different animals found in the environment and studied during the workshop. The pictures and photos about the different types of wildlife animals presented in the Project WILD manuals, in facilitator presentations and the materials created by project participants provided an understanding of the different characteristics that assist in identifying a wild animal. All participants did not have to entirely depend on oral or written communication but could rely on the visual cues provided by the different texts. For example one of the monolingual English pre-service participants mentioned in their interview when asked "What are some strategies you can use to meet the needs of bilingual students in your classroom?" This participant responded "Definitely, the pictures. Like that brings meaning a lot. Because like me is not knowing it. The pictures were the ones that helped and I like that." Another participant stated: "Thank God for the pictures too but also have the pictures combined with a peer actually more details like they were able to pick up." [Interview#4, 10/5/11].

D. Identification of Spanish/English Cognates

Another strategy frequently mentioned by the participants was the use of cognates during the content instruction. Cognates are words that have a similar structure and meaning, in terms of their spelling in two languages. For example, the Spanish-language cognates for observation, animal, habitat, and predator are observaci ón, animal, habitat, and depredador. In the current study, this strategy manifested as described in the following example, a bilingual education pre-service teacher mentioned in her interview that "the similarities of the words like 'animal' that are spelled the same. Find those words or look for words that look alike to facilitate [for] the Bilingual learners" (Interview#1, 10/5/11). Thus the use of cognates was described to be an important strategy in dual language settings because a student has to identify when new science terminology in another language can be synonymous with prior terminology that has been conceptually developed. Such a strategy also reduces the amount of time needed to learn new science vocabulary.

V. Conclusions & Implications

The usefulness of a strategy depends on the needs of the learners and their understanding of how to apply it in the learning process. In this study, the project participants were exposed to specific strategies such as collaborative grouping and modeling that were applicable to learning science in a dual language context. Moreover, project participants were able to describe how their use of a strategy facilitated science content and language development in either English or Spanish. These strategies also assisted in facilitating science content and prompted scientific reasoning and argumentation during workshop activities. The following four strategies were identified in the study by pre-service bilingual and general education students as being useful in science content learning: bilingual pairs or partners,

multisensory approaches, use of visuals, and the identification of Spanish/English cognates. Such identification of useful strategies is an insight that is not commonly understood since a large portion of research has been conducted on teacher preparation with monolingual speakers versus a combination of monolingual and bilingual speakers (Loughran, 2007 in Abell & Lederman, 2007).

In addition, the pre-service teachers also provided a unique perspective or insight in the role of the learner in a dual language context. This is a significant contribution of this research because the articulation of the effectiveness of strategies as scaffolds to new learning can be more introspective when communicated by the learner. Moreover, this study expands and elaborates the result of this type of learning as articulated or interpreted by pre-service teachers to facilitate science content and academic language development.

An additional result of this experience was the pre-service teachers' engagement in collaborative activity with students who were culturally and linguistically diverse. Such a grouping provided all group members an authentic learning opportunity to develop a cross-cultural sensitivity as learners of science. Moreover, all the pre-service teachers were exposed to the challenges and difficulties experienced and communicated by group members. As demonstrated in the data, this experience prompted the pre-service teachers to expand their own notions about the pedagogical approaches and learning strategies that will provide their future student access to the science curriculum that may enhance their scientific understanding of the how their world works and begin the formation of scientific identity. Lack of access to the science discourse has been attributed by many (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2004; Lee & Buxton, 2010; Gee, 2009) as missed opportunities for ELLs, bilingual learners, and educators to simultaneously encourage the development of science content and language development. Thus, this lack of opportunity has resulted in a low number of ELLs and bilingual learners seeking careers in STEM fields.

It is important to note that a limitation of this study was the length of observational time available to conduct this research. Even though this workshop has been conducted in a bilingual format for over five semesters, further research is warranted to study application of these strategies in the bilingual or general education classroom. This would require a researcher to observe Project WILD participants in their future classrooms or during their field-based residency experience. This next level of research is important for future study.

APPENDIX A

Figure 1. PROJECT WILD DUAL LANGUAGE WORKSHOP AGENDA

Hora	Actividades
8:00-8:30	Registro de participantes/Registration
8:30-9:00	Bienvenida y presentación de guías del taller y participantes/Welcome and introduction of facilitators and guides (English and Español)
9:00-9:45	Repasando y explorando el libro de las Guías del Plan de Estudios de Proyecto Wild (Español)
9:45-10-45	Wildlife is Everywhere! (WILD: Hike through the park)(English)
10:45-11:30	GUW (Repasando y explorando la Guía de Actividades) (Español)
11:30-12:00	Wildlife is Everywhere! (GUW: Mighty Math) P24. (English)
12:00-12:30	Preparación de presentaciones de grupo mientras comemos. Working lunch
12:30-1:00	¡Ah, mi querido venado! (GUW: Actividad de matemáticas y conexiones con la casa del hábitat) P.48 (Español)
1:00-1:45	Oh Deer! (WILD) P.39 (English)
1:45-4:00	Presentaciones de los grupos/Group Presentations (English and Español)
4:00-4:30	(Lapsit) Simulación física del hábitat Proyecto Wild P. 17 (Español)

Marco Conceptual	Actividad Proyecto Wild (Versión en español a menos que indique lo contrario)	Actividad GUW In English
Conciencia Ambiental	¿Qué significa silvestre? P. 4	¿Qué significa silvestre? P.22
Conocimientos Ambientales	¿Cuántos osos pueden vivir en el bosque? P.33	Comida para un oso P.26
Acción Ambiental	¿Cuánto le costó tu comida al medio ambiente? P. 68 Proyecto Wild Versión en inglés?	Menos es más P. 62

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Esther V. Garza is an Assistant Professor of Bilingual Education at Texas A&M University-San Antonio. Her research interests are in the fields of teacher preparation, biliteracy, multiculturalism and bilingual education in the content area of science. Dr. Garza received a Bachelor's of Science from Texas A&M University in College Station, TX, her Master of Arts from The University of Texas at San Antonio and her Ph.D. from The University of Texas at San Antonio.

Kimberley Kennedy is an independent educational consultant. Her research interests are in language and literacy particularly for students who fall outside the "mainstream" (i.e. ELLs, bilingual learners, special education).
    Dr. Kennedy received a Ph.D. from the University of Texas at Austin in Curriculum and Instruction.

María G. Arregín-Anderson is an Assistant Professor of Early Childhood and Elementary Education at the University of Texas at San Antonio. She focuses on issues of equity in culturally and linguistically diverse environments. Dr. Arregín-Anderson received her B.A. from the Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León in Monterrey, Mexico, her M. Ed. from the University of Texas Pan-American in Edinburg, Texas and her Ed.D. from Texas A&M University-Kingsville.

Motivational Differences between Monolinguals and Bilinguals in the Context of English as a Foreign Language: A Case Study on the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region

Rayhangül Ahät
College of Foreign Languages, Xinjiang University, Ürümqi, China;
Department of Foreign Language Acquisition and Education, Kyoto University, Kyoto, Japan

Abstract—Learner motivation is considered one of the most important individual variables that affect learners' achievement in the educational domain. Utilizing the Expectancy-Value Theory (EVT) of achievement motivation proposed by Eccles and her collaborators, this study focuses on the motivational differences between minority and majority learners[1] in the context of English as a foreign language in Xinjiang where minority students learn English (L3) in Chinese (L2). This study further explores how much the minority learners' L2 proficiency level influences their motivation in learning L3. Three hundred and seventy-one students from one of the top universities in Xinjiang voluntarily answered a questionnaire and forty of them were interviewed. Results of both quantitative and qualitative analysis showed that minority learners were more motivated than majority learners in learning English. The minority students' L2 proficiency level was found to have an influence on their interest in learning L3 at the low-intermediate level. From these findings, the present study discusses the importance of systematic English education and the medium of L3 instruction for the minority as well as the implications for improving the motivation of the majority EFL learners in Xinjiang.

Index Terms—motivation, minority, majority, L2 and L3, language policy and planning, bilingual education

I. INTRODUCTION

Language services several interests of people--economic, developmental, scientific and cultural (Pattanayak, 1990). Thus language policy and planning (LPP) must be understood in relation to macro imperatives such as sociopolitical, historical, and socioeconomical factors at the local and national level (Kaplan, 2011; Kaplan & Baldauf, 1997). As a leading developing country in the world, China places a high value on the role of LPP in developing the country and integrating its 55 ethnically minority nations into mainstream society. With the wide spread use of English as an international language, rapid economic development, and the growing status of China in the world, LPP for minority groups has become more complex and challenging, as does the process of teaching Chinese as a national language and English as an international language to a minority population of over 120 million. In China, the notion of bilingual education (双语教育) has a different meaning for the majority and the minority. For the majority (Han ethnicity), bilingual education refers to Chinese-English education designed to cultivate talented citizens who can survive the competitive global economy and make contributions to the modernization of the country. As Baker (2006) and Hu (2008) claim, it also differs from most forms of bilingual education for the minority language students that are typically denoted by the term in international contexts, because there are no power relations between Chinese and English, and nor has it the goal of assimilation into mainstream society. For the minority, bilingual education refers to Chinese mother tongue education designed to cultivate minorities and integrate them into mainstream society with a national identity within China and ethnic identity within their homeland (Feng, 2009). This study focuses on investigating minority students' responses to Chinese-English bilingual education and LPP. This research explores the EFL motivational differences between the majority and the minority in the context of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region where Uyghur make up the majority.

Geographical location and population distribution of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region

The Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region is located in northwestern China, with a total area of 1,6640,001 square kilometers, which makes up one sixth of China's total territory. It is the largest provincial-level administrative region in the country. To the north, east, and west, Xinjiang shares its 5600 kilometers of borders with eight countries: Russia, Mongolia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Pakistan, India and Afghanistan. The region's location makes it a crucial part of the historical "Silk Road," as the strategic channel by which Eastern Asia connects to Central Asia, the

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[1] The term majority learners refer to Han ethnicity and minority refers to majority Uyghurs and other non-Han ethnicities in Xinjiang.

Middle East, and Europe. Therefore, the Autonomous Region occupies a vital strategic position of international importance.

According to the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region Bureau of Statistics in 2010, there are 13 ethnic minorities in Xinjiang with the total population of over 21 million. Minorities account for twelve million, 60.4% of the total population. Over nine million Uyghur make up 45% of the total population of Xinjiang and 0.79% of the total population of China. Over eight million Han make up 41% of total population of Xinjiang and 91.9% of the total population of China. Kazaks make up 7% and the other nine ethnic minorities account for 7.5% of the total population of Xinjiang. Based on historic migration, the total population of Xinjiang has grown from 2.1 million in 1900 to nearly 20 million in 2000 (Cao, 2010). The Han population has grown from nearly 6% in 1953 to over 41% at present.

Education

1. Bilingual education

Chinese and Uyghur languages are the two official languages of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region since the establishment of People's Republic of China (PRC), and they play different roles and have different status. Regarding the goal of minority education, Ma (2007) and Eric (2007) assert that minority education in Xinjiang followed the Stalinist philosophy of language that emphasized the notion of a single and unified socialist state. Thus minority LPP was of a top-down nature. Under this policy, although a minority population could account for the majority in a specific region, the same minority LPP was administered by the central government throughout the country even though regional governments had some limited autonomy. The present educational system for the minority in Xinjiang follows the same pattern: mother tongue-Chinese (mainly Uyghur) bilingual education, and it has been introduced to almost all minority schools whether they are ready or not. The mode of this bilingual education differs from region to region as a result of varying levels of economic development and the population distribution of the each ethnicity in each region.

The recently issued draft plan by the Educational Bureau of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (2012, August) once again emphasizes the importance of bilingual education for the minority. According to this plan, from 2015 to 2020, minority children should receive two years' Chinese education before they enter elementary school, so that they can easily transfer from native language instruction to second language instruction from elementary school on. According to Ma (2009), in 2000, there were 461 minority-Han joint schools in total; in 2004, the number was 656; in 2005, it increased to 707. However, these schools only make up nearly 13% of the total minority schools. In 2004, there were 5451 primary schools in Xinjiang of which 3777 (70.3%) were minority language schools, and 3297 (60.5%) were Uyghur language schools; there were 1965 Secondary schools of which 971 (49.4%) were minority language schools, and 726 (36.9%) were Uyghur language schools. Uyghur language primary schools make up 87.3%, and Uyghur language middle schools make up 74.8%. According to Zhou (2004), the percentage of ethnic minority students receiving education in their native language medium schools represents somewhere between 65%-70%, and in southern Xinjiang as high as 96% of the total. Those who do not attend native language medium schools went to Han schools or a variety of other schooling where the medium of instruction is Chinese. These include Minkaohan students (民考汉) who go to Chinese language medium schools, special classes set up for ethnic minorities outside Xinjiang (内地新疆 班), special classes for ethnic minorities in Chinese language medium schools in Han majority areas in Xinjiang (疆内 民族班), mixed Uyghur-Han schools (民汉合班)and experimental Chinese language medium based classes in Uyghur schools (实验班，宏志班，尖子班).

2. English education

Foreign language education is not new for minorities in Xinjiang. Right after the foundation of People's Republic of China (PRC), when language policy was tolerant of minorities, Uyghur and other non-Han minority students in Xinjiang had the freedom to choose either Chinese or Russian as a second language, and these two languages had the same status (Masataka. 2008; Zhou, 2004). If we compare the following two policy documents specifically mentioning foreign language education for minorities in the region, we are able to comprehend the policy changes in minority language education. The first was issued in May 1950 by the then provincial government. The document entitled "*Directive on Reforming the Current Education System*" required students whose native language was Chinese to opt for either an ethnic minority language or Russian, and minority students to opt for Chinese or Russian (Xinjiang Weiwuer Zizhiqu Difangzhi Bianzuan Weiyuanhui, 2000 <cited in Sunuodula & Feng, 2011: p262). The second document issued by the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region Education Bureau on December 15th 1977 explicitly recognized two different systems in foreign language education for the minority and the majority (cited in Sunuodula & Feng, 2011:p 263). The document entitled "Curriculum Plan for Ten-year Full-time Primary and secondary schools in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (draft plan)" stipulated that:

"**ethnic minority schools** *provide Chinese as the compulsory second language school subject from Year 3 of primary school until the end of secondary school education;* **no foreign language courses are to be provided**. *Han and Hui primary schools should generally teach an ethnic minority language as a school subject. At the junior secondary school, two thirds of the Han and Hui schools should offer ethnic minority language courses and the other third should offer foreign language courses. At the senior secondary school level, all Han and Hui schools should offer* **foreign language curriculum;** *no ethnic minority language curriculum is to be offered".*

From the above documents, it can be inferred that after the Cultural Revolution, no foreign languages were offered for minorities in Xinjiang. Instead Chinese education was strengthened and its domination in school curricula was increased from four hours from junior high school to four hours from elementary grade three after the Cultural Revolution (Masataka, 2008). Chinese was perceived to be the only language capable of enhancing minority education in an era of rapid economic development, modernization and globalization (Ma, 2007 & 2009). However, the situation is changing rapidly as may be seen in a recent Regional-level document promulgated by the Xinjiang government on promotion of 'bilingual education' (the Ministry of Education < MoE>, 2004). Moreover, an increasing number of Uyghur pupils in mixed communities or cities attend Chinese medium schools or Chinese-Uyghur mixed schools from childhood (Tsung & Cruickshank, 2009). This context brings a new challenge to bilingual education for minorities. The new environment for minority education was acknowledged in guidelines set out by the MOE (2001a, 2001b & 2007) which emphasized the need to vigorously promote the study of English at schools attended by Chinese speakers. Minority students or those who go to Han schools or other kinds of Chinese medium schools mentioned previously have the privilege of learning English either from Junior high school or from Senior high school. However, these students make up a small percentage (民考汉、5.8 %; 内地新疆班, less than one percent; 实验班, 6.6%) of minority students (Ma, 2009).

Although documents issued by the MoE call for English provision from primary school Grade Three (MoE, 2001a; 2001b), English provision for the minority is simply kept out of the system, and the opportunity to learn English in minority schools in the entire region is simply not available. LPP for the majority is further in accordance with the concept that "Educational institutions reproduce social hierarchies that advantage those who have access to the ways and norms of the dominant group and that marginalize those who do not" (Lee & Anderson, 2009). Recently some minority schools in more Han populated areas such as Ürümqi (Han ethnicity makes up over 75%), Karamay (Han ethnicity makes up over 76%) and Shihezi (Han ethnicity makes up over 95%) have begun to have English classes. However, these schools make up a very small proportion.

After the issuance of the MoE's directives (2001a, b and 2007), at some tertiary schools, minority students have formally begun to learn English as an L3 in L2. Regardless of their English level they study English from the beginning for one or two school years (This largely depends on schools and field of study. Art students usually learn for one year, and science students for two years). There is not any explicit or implicit LPP on their English education from either from central or local government. When discussing implementation of the MoE's guidelines for introducing English as a compulsory subject from primary school, scholars have (Lam, 2007b; Feng, 2005 and Yang, 2005) addressed the challenges in promoting English education that language educators face in ethnic minority areas. These not only concern external factors such as poverty, inadequate teacher supply and excessive school work, but also minority students' ethnic identity, personal development and academic performance in L1 and L2, and their low motivation for learning L3. In this context, Hu (2005) notes similar problems faced by Han students in the process of EFL learning.

An attitude can simply be a state of mind, a 'disposition to react favorably or unfavorably to a class of object', and values are developed and adapted in the process of socialization from parents, peers and social institutions such as schools (Ager, 2001). The beliefs, attitudes and discourse of a given society are reflected in educational LPP, specifically in language planning at schools (Cenaz, 2009). At the same time schools have influence on society, and in the case of Xinjiang, knowledge of English affects minority learners' personal development, social attitudes and status, identity and career opportunities. In addition to these factors, minority English education is important for the security, stability and development of the region that has a long border with foreign countries and greater economic potential for tourism and trade. In the case of foreign language learning, motivation, one of the key individual variables, is an influential factor that reflects learners' beliefs about learning a given language required or privileged by a certain LPP. In the case of Xinjiang, the present mother tongue-Chinese bilingual education and the medium of L3 instruction for the minority may play a critical role in their EFL motivation that reflects the MoE's LPP that vigorously promotes English education in schools where majority students attend. Understanding the EFL motivation of minority learners in comparison to the majority can help actors in the field of LPP make sound policy and assist instructors in designing a curriculum that meets students' needs while promoting their learning of the target language at the same time. Thus the goal of this study is to explore and understand the EFL motivation of two different cultural groups within same social context but under different LPP system. EVT of achievement motivation is selected as the theoretical base of this study, because (1) in the case of minority learners, the task value "*cost*" suits them best because of the L3 medium of instruction; (2) in the case the majority, many studies using other motivational theories were conducted to explore EFL motivation in other regions of China, however, they revealed conflicting results and failed to explain EFL motivation; (3) in the authors knowledge, to date there are no empirical studies on the EFL education of culturally, historically and linguistically distinctive minority and majority groups in a multilingual and multicultural context like Xinjiang. In this context, this study aims to answering the following research questions.

RQ1. *Do minority EFL learners have the same motivation as majority EFL learners?*
RQ2. *Does minority students' L2 proficiency have an influence on their L3 motivation?*

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The conception of the term *motivation* differs among theorists and researchers from different fields. In the *EVT* model of achievement motivation, Eccles et al. (2004) defined learner motivation as the combination of individual's expectancy for *success* and their *value* beliefs in a task. They define *expectancy* as the individuals' beliefs about how well they will do on an upcoming task; this depends on learner confidence in their intellectual abilities and on their estimation of the task difficulty, and relates to a sense of competence, self-efficacy and locus of control. In self-determination theory, competence refers to the feeling that one has the capacity to effectively carry out an action. Feelings of competence are promoted by communicating expectations that are challenging without being overwhelming. Deci, Ryan, and their colleagues (1985, 1995, 2000) include the need for competence as one of the three basic needs of human psychology and discussed how this need is a major reason for people to seek out optimal and challenging activities. Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997) also mentioned the importance of expectancy in his self-efficacy theory. He defines self-efficacy as one's judgment of ability to complete a task successfully. This factor can affect effort through expectations for success, and efficacy expectations determine how much effort learners will expend and how long they will persist at a given task. Learners' attributions of success or failure to internal or external factors such as effort, ability, and task difficulty also influence their motivation (Graham, 1988a; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995) and the attributions learners make about their past experience have an impact on their expectancy in pursuing or avoiding their goals (Weiner, 1985). Expectancy for success is incorporated in the above-mentioned motivational theory as an important element.

Regarding *task values,* Eccles et al. (2004) defines these as the qualities of different tasks and how those qualities influence individual's desire to complete the task. They grouped individual value beliefs toward a task into four types. *Intrinsic value*: the enjoyment or emotional incentives a person receives from completing the task and his or her subjective interest in the task; this is closely linked to intrinsic motivation in self-determination theory. Decy & Ryan (1985, 2002) also define this concept as the enjoyment one feels while performing an inherently interesting activity, as in the case of a learner who experiences a spontaneous sense of satisfaction in mastering linguistic and communicative challenges and elaborating on her capacities in the new language. *Utility value:* the individual's future goals for undertaking the task such as achieving required credit at school, gaining a prestigious job in society and so on. This component of subjective task values is very similar to the external regulation of extrinsic motivation in self-determination theory in which the cause of an action is out of the learners' own control. *Attainment value*: the personal importance of doing well on a given task. This refers to the needs and personal values that an activity fulfills and includes the following subcomponents: (a) conceptions of personality and capabilities, (b) long-range goals and plans, (c) ideal images of what one should like to be, and (d) schema regarding the proper roles of men and women (Eccles, 1994). Thus, in this sense, attainment value closely links to the more internalized form of external regulation in self-determination theory and the ideal L2 self in the L2 motivational system *Cost*: negative aspects of engaging in a task, such as performance anxiety, task difficulty, fear of failure, the time spent on a given task and so on. Choices are influenced by both negative and positive task characteristics and all choices are assumed to have costs associated with them (Wigfield el at. 2004), because learners will loose opportunities that result from making one choice rather than another. In this sense, task difficulty plays an important role in learners' choice of a task and engagement in it.

Competence beliefs and higher levels of value motivate students academically (Pintrich, 2003). Based on the EVT model of achievement motivation, learners' academic engagement is best predicted by the combination of students' expectancy, ability, beliefs and task values both directly and indirectly (Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). Research has provided support that ability beliefs are positively related to educational expectancy (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara, & Pastorelli, 2001; Trusty, 2000) and task values (Bong, 2001; Chouinard, Karsenti, & Roy, 2007; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Eccles & Wigfield, 1995). However, these beliefs and values vary from culture to culture and change in the process of learners' socialization in a certain culture (Eccles et al, 2004 & 2008).

III. METHODOLOGY

1.Quantitative

Participants: Participants in this study are university students from two different ethnic groups who are linguistically and culturally different. The students from the minority group have a language of the SOV pattern as their mother tongue and students from the majority speak Chinese as their mother tongue that belongs to the SVO pattern. Their mean age is 21. The learners from the minority group began to learn English formally half a year before the study was conducted, and many of them learned English previously at private language centers. Among this group, most are Uyghurs including a small number of Kazaks (the total number of Kazak students is eight); all have taken the Chinese Proficiency Test (HSK)[2]. Their HSK levels range from band six to band eight. The sample size of the study is 371, there are 175 participants from the minority group and 196 from the majority.

Research Instrument: The research instrument (see appendix) utilized in this study is composed of two parts: a personal information sheet, and a six point Likert scale questionnaire where learners chose a response from *strongly*

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[2] The Chinese Proficiency Test (HSK) is China's national standardized test designed and developed by the HSK Center of Beijing Language and Culture University to assess the Chinese language proficiency of non-native speakers (including foreigners, overseas Chinese and students from Chinese national minorities).

agree to strongly disagree. This is designed to explore learner motivation. The personal information sheet is used to establish the minority students' L2 proficiency level, previous English learning experience, age and major. The questionnaire on learner motivation is based on the Motivational Scale proposed by Wigfield & Eccles (1994; 2000), later modified by Ohki (2009), and was distributed during English class time by the author's colleagues after some modifications. Although the instrument has been tested in EFL contexts, a pilot study was conducted to further confirm its reliability and validity.

Medium of Instruction and duration: At colleges in Xinjiang, the required medium of instruction for the minority students is Chinese, and even if they have English teachers from the same ethnic group, English classes are basically conducted in Chinese and English, and sometimes include a little Uyghur[3] if the teachers are Uyghur. For students from the majority group, English classes are conducted in Chinese and English even if they have teachers from the minority group, because they don't learn the languages of minorities. English courses for the minority usually start either from the second or third college year, and it is now a compulsory school subject[4]. They have regular English classes normally five hours a week for one or two school years[5]. Learners from the majority group also have five hour long English classes held every week for two school years. Teaching materials are also different. A unified textbook[6] is used for majority learners. They have a two-hour listening class per week. Minority students use textbooks for beginners. Teaching methods for both groups are focused on vocabulary explanation and grammar translation.

IV. RESULTS

After investigating the internal consistency, Pearson's correlation analysis is conducted to explore the coefficients of each motivational variable. Results are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1
PEARSON'S CORRELATIONS OF EACH MOTIVATIONAL VARIABLE

	Expectancy	Attainment	Intrinsic	Utility	Cost
Expectancy	—	.37**	.67**	.16**	-.36**
Attainment		—	.54**	.62**	-.16**
Intrinsic			—	.36**	-44**
Utility				—	-.03

N=360   minority =175   majority= 185   **p<.01

As Table 1 reveals, all motivational variables except for cost positively correlated with each other and negatively correlate with cost. Utility value also negatively correlated with cost, but this finding is not statistically significant. This result demonstrates the high utility value given to English in Chinese society. These results further support Nunan's (2003) idea of the impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in China when knowledge of English enhances promotional prospects in the job marketplace.

A T-test was conducted to compare the overall motivational differences between the two groups. Table 2 reveals the results.

TABLE 2
MEAN, SD AND THE RESULTS OF T-TEST

Group	Mean	SD	t-value
minority	51.04	16.79	
majority	39.30	33.59	4.14***

N=360 (minority=175   majority=185)   ***p<.001

The t-test results in Table 2 show that the overall motivation of the minority group was significantly higher than the motivation of the majority group (t=4.14).

In order to investigate each motivational variable of the minority EFL learners in comparison to the majority group, a further t-test was conducted. Results are shown in table 3.

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[3] Uyghur is the mother tongue of the Uyghurs, a minority group. According to bilingual education polices for minorities in Xinjiang, minorities should have classes in Chinese at tertiary level.

4 English education for minority students changes frequently and varies among faculties

[5] An hour is 50 minutes; one school year consists of two semesters, and one semester is four months.

[6] Unified textbook refers to the *New Horizon College English* published by Shanghai Foreign Language Press. This textbook is used in others parts of China as an English textbook for college students. It is composed of listening, intensive reading, extensive reading and fast reading activities.

TABLE 3
THE RESULTS OF T-TESTS

	Minority		Majority		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t-value
expectancy	4.76	.81	3.61	1.06	11.54***
attainment	4.86	.90	4.80	1.03	.55
intrinsic	4.60	1.02	3.87	1.24	5.84***
utility	4.96	.76	5.16	.78	-2.46*
cost	3.92	.73	4.06	.93	-1.60

N= 360   minority=175   majority=185   ***p<.001; *p<.05

As shown in table 3, statistically significant differences were revealed between expectancy for success (t =11.54), intrinsic value (t = 5.89) and utility value (t = -2.46) between the two groups. Expectancy for success and intrinsic value of the minority group were higher than that of the majority group; when it came to utility value, the majority group held significant higher utility value than the minority group. Based on the t-test results, the author further conducted ANOVA to explore the relationship between each motivational variable in order to better understand the motivational differences between the two groups. Table 4 reveals the results.

TABLE 4
THE RESULTS OF ANOVA

minority	utility≥ attainment ≥expectancy>*intrinsic >***cost
majority	utility>***attainment>***cost≥ intrinsic>**expectancy

Notice: *p<.05   **p<.01   ***p<.001

Table 4 reveals that both groups attach a high utility and attainment value to English, with intrinsic value the same for both groups. However, in the case of majority learners, no significant differences occurred between intrinsic value and cost as it did in the minority group. This group held higher expectancy and think English less costly than the majority even if they learn it in L2. These results are further explored at a later stage of this discussion.

Based on the correlation analysis results shown in table 1, there is a strong negative correlation between intrinsic value and cost. Based on ANOVA results shown in table 4, there is a strong relation between intrinsic value and cost in the minority group. This indicates that the medium of L3 instruction (the cost of learning L3 in L2) most likely influences the minority learners' interest in L3. In this context, research question two was designed to explore the motivational differences of the minority students with different L2 proficiencies.

The students are divided into three groups according to their L2 proficiency level: group A (low-intermediate level), group B (intermediate level), and group C (high-intermediate level), and to address the second research question, one-way ANOVA is conducted to explore motivational differences among the three groups. Table 5 shows the results.

TABLE 5
MEAN, SD AND THE RESULT OF ANOVA

	Group A		Group B		Group C		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Sig
expectancy	4.55	.58	4.67	.68	4.75	.81	.48
attainment	4.33	.66	4.52	.57	4.44	.63	.40
intrinsic	4.14	1.30	4.723	.85	4.62	1.03	.042*
utility	4.75	.68	4.96	.75	5.13	.81	.29
cost	3.80	.57	3.66	.64	3.72	.67	.64

N=166   (group A=26; group B=64; group C= 76)   *p<.05

The results in Table 5 show a significant difference in only intrinsic value between group A and group B. This indicates that even within the intermediate level, minority learners' L2 proficiency is largely different. This result is further examined at a later stage of this discussion.

2.Qualitative

Interviews

To extract the reasons of students' learning English specifically, 40 students were interviewed for a more in-depth exploration into what the questionnaire responses might mean. Of this group, 20 were majority and 20 were minority students.

A. The Majority Students

Student 1. Learning English helps us know and understand the cultures and habits of others. It is convenient if I know English when I am traveling abroad.

Student 2. I like learning English and I am interested in western culture. I learn English to get a better job and to go abroad.

Student 3. I like American films and I think its cool to speak in English. I also study it to pass the English exam.

Student 4. I like western music and films. They are more interesting than ours.

Student 5. English enriches our life and helps self-development. It is an international language.

Student 6. I am interested in western culture and now English is an international language.

Student 7. English is a global language and it helps us survive the challenges of the competitive society.

Student 8. I am learning English to go abroad in the future and to find a better job. English is an international language, if you don't know English, you will be out.

Student 9. I am studying English to go abroad. I also like English films.

Student 10. You have to study English to pass CET band four and for further study. Learning a language means you have more advantages over others.

Student 11. I learn English to get a batter job and to have a better social position.

Student 12. English is an international language. It helps us develop ourselves.

Student 13. English is very difficult and I don't like at all, but I keep learning it because it is useful in communication with others.

Student 14. English is an international language. So I am learning it to catch up with the modern development and technology.

Student 15. I learn English just for the exam. I think it should be an elective class, not compulsory.

Student 16. I just learn English to get enough credits for graduation. I think we need to learn more practical things than bookish English.

Student 17. English is an important subject for graduation and further study but it takes too much time and effort.

Student 18. I study English for exams and for further study in order to get a better job in the future.

Student 19. English is an international language and very important. It helps us communicate with people from different cultures and we can learn about modern technology and development with it.

Student 20. You can communicate with different people around the world if you know English. It also helps you understand the advanced culture of others.

The qualitative part of this study further proves the quantitative part of it. From the above extract, it can be inferred that the EFL motivation of the majority students is mostly based on its instrumentality. Seven of the interviewees said that English was an international language and it helped them learn about modern technology. Five of the students said that they learnt English to find better jobs or have a better social position. This means that the students are already aware of the fact that English is the international language of science, it has a high utility value in the job market and in the process of social promotion in the Chinese society. Five of the interviewees mentioned that they were interested in western culture, English films and music. This suggests that students are exposed to foreign cultures through modern information technologies such as the Internet both directly and indirectly. Three of the students said that they felt English was difficult and took too much time and effort. They also suggested that it shouldn't be compulsory. This finding emphasizes the fact that majority students felt less successful although they spent more time and started learning English earlier than minority students.

B. The Minority Students.

Student 1. English is an international language. My major and my future have a strong link with it. I think knowing a language can help one become knowledgeable.

Student 2. English is an international language. We are able to know more advanced techniques if we know English. English helps us become more knowledgeable.

Student 3. I like English. I think it plays an important role in developing myself, exploring my potential and making progress in my future.

Student 4. I am learning English for further study and going abroad. I think its easy.

Student 5. I am learning English for further study, getting a job and traveling abroad.

Student 6. Learning English is a social expectation. The job market requires you to know English.

Student 7. I am learning English for further study, getting a better job and studying abroad.

Student 8. I want to study abroad and I am very interest in international affairs.

Student 9. I am learning English to develop myself, get a better job and study abroad.

Student 10. I love learning English. I study it for further study and a better job.

Student 11. I am learning English in order to communicate with the people from other countries and to get a job.

Student 12. I am learning English to gain more knowledge and advanced techniques, to broaden my worldview and to compete with the Han.

Student 13. I am learning English to catch up with social developments, find a better job and go abroad.

Student 14. Learning English is an interesting thing. It enriches my life. Most importantly, it is an international language. I want to go abroad in the future.

Student 15. English is an international language. It helps us improve our cross-cultural communication ability and helps us better understand the cultural differences between them and us.

Student 16. I am interested in learning English. I want to study abroad if possible. Anyway, if I know English well, I won't be in trouble in the future.

Student 17. I am learning English to catch up with social developments, to pass the exam, to find a job and to improve my language skill.

Student 18. I think English is very important in my life. If I know English, I can find a job easily.

Student 19. I like learning foreign languages. I am learning English to go abroad and find a better job.

Student 20. I found English interesting after I learn it. It helps us broaden our knowledge and get a better job.

Minority students have more reasons than the majority for learning English. Nine of the interviewees said that they learnt English either to find jobs or to study abroad. This indicates that minority students face more difficulties than the majority in finding jobs and they are better able to compete with majority learners in the competitive job market if they know English. Among them one clearly stated that he learnt English to broaden his knowledge, to gain modern technology and to compete with the Han. Seven students said that English was the international language and they learnt it to catch up with modern technology, to gain more knowledge and to communicate with people from foreign countries. This indicates they viewed English as important in developing themselves and widely recognized it as the lingua franca of international communication. They are motivated to learn English for career and academic development and to act as a global citizen. Three students stated that they like learning English. Unlike their majority counter parts, they said English was interesting and easy to learn. This finding is most likely the effect of their L2 learning experience and geographical location. As noted in the introduction, minority students have language-learning experience and Xinjiang has a long border helping exposing them to foreign cultures and languages either directly or indirectly.

V. DISCUSSION

RQ1. *Do minority EFL learners have the same motivation as majority EFL learners?*

In answer to research question one, t-test results showed that the minority learners held higher expectancy and intrinsic value than the majority learners. These findings are in disagreement with the study results reported by Shaaban et al. (2000) and Ibrahemi (2003), in which no motivational differences were found between monolinguals and bilinguals. They are also inconsistent with those of Jiang et al. (2007) who found that the minority learners were less motivated than the majority learners. In their study, the minority participants Hui speak Chinese as their mother tongue. The results also have contradicted the findings reported by Ojijed (2010) who found the Mongolian minority students were instrumentally motivated. Based on utility value, the majority learners in this study held higher utility value than the minority learners. None of the findings of the above studies are in line with the findings of the present study. The findings regarding research question one will be further discussed in terms of their relationship to each motivational variable in the *EVT* model of achievement motivation below.

Expectancy for success: Considering the present educational system and the minority students' native language, their higher expectations for success in L3 in comparison with the majority can be explained by the operation of the following two factors: language learning experience and language typology.

In terms of the present educational system as mentioned in the methodology, minority students in Xinjiang have language-learning experience. As a result of the bilingual educational system, two languages: Uyghur and Chinese are utilized in the minority students' daily communication. For example: in formal situations at school they have Chinese medium instruction, after school they communicate in their mother tongue with people from their own ethnic group. Moreover, in internet communication, they use both Uyghur and Chinese, and Chinese *Pinyin* simultaneously in different amounts. Both English and Uyghur are stress-based, and Uyghur has a larger consonant and vowel inventory than Chinese does, making most English sounds easier for minority students to learn. Moreover, unlike the native language of the majority, a large number of technical words and expressions are directly borrowed from English to the minority students' native language. For example: computer→*compyoter;* telephone→telefun; television→*telivizor*, and internet→*internet.*

The main source of the majority students' lower expectation can be attributed to the evaluation system and social comparison to peers. For example, most majority students feel less successful at the expense of long duration and more effort in learning English compared with other school subjects. Even though they learn English for about ten years, most of them fail national tests such as the CET and PETS[7]. This negative feedback probably results in low expectancy of learning English. Another possible explanation for their lower expectations is social comparison. Most majority students tend to compare their English proficiency, especially oral skills, with minority students' in terms of the amount of effort and the time they invest. This social comparison might negatively influence their expectations.

Attainment Value: The increasingly high status of English in Chinese society leads both minority and majority students to believe in its importance. The source of these perceptions mainly comes from both social and individual expectations. According to recent documents released by the MoE (2001,No.2; 2007, No.2), universities should strengthen and create conditions for Chinese-English bilingual teaching in order to raise teaching standards, accommodate internationalization, globalization and modernization. Various academic exams such as exams for Master or Doctorial Degrees test their English proficiency, and in a competitive job market some businesses require English competency. As Wigfield (2010) noted the task of learning EFL was important when students viewed it as central to their own sense of themselves. For minority students, mastering English brings them a sense of security in a competitive job market and symbolic power in comparison with the majority. These social issues lead both groups to believe that English plays an important role in both future career and personal development.

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[7] CET is the abbreviation of College English Test and PETS is the abbreviation of Public English Test System organized by the MoE to test English proficiency.

Intrinsic value: The higher intrinsic value of minority EFL learners' motivation can be explained by the following: interest in knowing about the world and the influence of native culture. As citizens of China, minority students in Xinjiang are very interested in knowing about world events. If they acquire English, they are able to better comprehend the cultures of both Islamic and non-Islamic countries. This feeling of curiosity likely enhances their interest. 90% of the minority students in this study are from border areas of Xinjiang like Ghulja, Kashgar and Hotan. These areas are more influenced by the culture of neighboring countries compared with more Han populated areas such as Shihezi, Ürümqi, Karamay. The geographical location of ethnic minorities in Xinjiang most probably enhances their interest in foreign cultures and languages for different purposes. They learn English, Turkish and Russian for academic and trade goals, and Arabic for religious reasons. As Renninger et al. & Hidi (2002) claimed, minority students' high interest in learning English may be supported through their interaction with their social environment.

Utility Value: Values are promoted in society, and students react to these values differently according to the intensity of their social needs (Viau, 2004). Judging from the hierarchy of motivational variables, utility value ranked first in both groups. This is most probably the result of rapid economic development and a series of recent events such as entering the WTO, hosting the Asian Cup, and the Shanghai Fair in China. These events may lead students to perceive the market value of English in a competitive job market.

Both groups place a high value on the utility of English, however, based on this quantitative study, utility value in the majority group is significantly higher than in the minority. These findings support the results of previous studies (Gao, Zhao, Chen & Zhou, 2004; Warden & Lin, 2000; Chen, Warden & Chang, 2005) which show that majority EFL learners in China are instrumentally motivated. This trend can be attributed to the advantages of social mobility for majority students inside and outside of China. In comparison with minority students, the majority are able to find jobs more easily in coastal regions or in other more developed areas of China where there are more opportunities to use English.

Cost: Minority students ranked cost last among the five variables while the majority group ranked it third. This finding can be attributed to differences in the school curriculum. Minority students in Xinjiang have less test anxiety compared with the majority because they are exempted from the CET. As mentioned previously, recently released documents by the MoE state that if possible, majority students should have science instruction in English: the minority students are free from these requirements. Therefore, majority students are forced to spend more time learning English than other courses in order to meet the English language requirement set by the MoE.

RQ2. *Does the L2 proficiency of minority students have influence on their L3 motivation?*

Research question two aims to explore whether the minority students' L2 proficiency has an influence on their motivation in learning L3. ANOVA results showed significant differences between the intrinsic value of groups A and B. This result indicates that even though minority students achieve the required L2 level set by the Xinjiang educational Bureau theoretically, this does not imply that they are ready to have instruction in L2. In this case, the minority learners' limited L2 proficiency negatively influences their interest in learning L3. As Yang (2005) claims, the first and foremost thing they have to do is to reach the required L2 proficiency level set by colleges and universities. Otherwise they need to spend extra time and money to graduate on time. In this regard, the cost of achieving the required level of L2 proficiency decreases their interest in learning L3. Another explanation for this result may be that in order to protect their self-esteem students with lower L2 proficiency would likely lower the intrinsic value of English in comparison with group B and C whose L2 proficiency is higher than themselves.

VI. Conclusion and Limitations

Educational Implications and limitations for the majority

The results of this study show that among the motivational variables expectancy for success and intrinsic value in the majority group were relatively lower than in the minority group. Judging from the correlation results, expectancy for success and intrinsic value show the highest positive correlation, and cost shows the highest negative correlation with expectancy for success and intrinsic value. This implies that if majority learners' intrinsic value increases, their expectancy for success increases and cost decreases as well. Therefore, assisting majority students to develop interest in English is an effective means to improve their motivation in EFL learning. All over China everybody knows the expression '*yaba yingyu*'; the literal meaning of this expression is that students can read and write in English, but cannot speak it fluently. As Viau (2000) claimed, helping majority students develop good study habits and learning strategies may be helpful to enhance their interest. Designing activities that assist them in developing communicative skills or activities that are close to the target culture beneficial means to increase their interest. Methodology is another important determinant of learner motivation in formal learning situations. In Xinjiang, EFL teaching follows the traditional method of grammar explanation and English classes usually involve discussions of classroom routines such as '*Have you recited the text?, Please open your books…; today's grammar is….*' .As Dörnyei (1994:281; 2001:123) suggests EFL teachers can help students develop interest by introducing novel unexpected topics that incite their curiosity, and also support them by providing information about the target culture. Thus in order to enhance the motivation of the majority EFL learners, the influence of teaching materials, classroom interaction and teaching methodology needs to be further studied.

Educational implications and limitations for the minority students

For minority EFL learners, the primary goals of this study are two-fold. First, by discovering the motivational differences between the minority and the majority in EFL learning, this study emphasizes the importance of continuous systematic English provision for the minority. Second, by investigating the influence of the minority learners' L2 proficiency on their L3 motivation, it provides suggestions for improvements in current L3 instruction. From the study results, it can be claimed that minority students are willing to learn English. Thus implementation of a systematic and well-planned English education system not only helps minority students to survive in a global society, it also avoids further exacerbating their marginalization. Moreover, such a system enhances integration into mainstream society, and narrows the educational and economic gaps between the minority and majority. In terms of L3 instruction, the school system that requires the minority EFL learners to have L3 instruction in L2 leave the majority of the minority students whose L2 proficiency is not well enough in a disadvantages position, and in the end leads to educational gap not only between inter groups, but also among intra groups. Therefore, the medium of L3 instruction should be taken into consideration in the case of the students whose L2 proficiency is lower than band six. In this case, the role of L1 in relation to L2 and L3 should not be neglected in the process of the minority students English acquisition. Regarding the minority students' L2 proficiency, most minority students at college have already reached the L2 proficiency level set by their schools, therefore this study was unable to explore the L3 motivation of learners whose L2 level is below band six or above band eight. These differences need to be further explored. This study employed a questionnaire based on the cognitive component of the *EVT* model. Because of the complexity of the educational system in which the majority students learn English in L1 and the minority students learn it in L2, a questionnaire related to the social components of motivation is needed to better understand the minority learners' EFL motivation. There is also a need to explore the influence of the minority students' L2 motivation on their L3 motivation.

APPENDIX

1. I am mastering what I have learnt.
2. I am more competent in English than my classmates.
3. I think I will get good grades in my next English test.
4. I think I can achieve my goal of successfully learning English.
5. I think I can master English.
6. It is important for me to have good grades in English.
7. I want to do well in my English study.
8. It is worth learning to master English.
9. It is important for me to be able to use English completely in all situations.
10. It is a pleasure to learn English.
11. I like learning English.
12. The acquisition of English is useful for my plans after leaving university.
13. What I have learnt in the English course will be useful for my future profession.
14. English is difficult for me.
15. To get good grades in English, I have to work hard.
16. To master English I give up other pleasures.
17. Learning English is a burden (painful) in several ways.
18. It is important to be someone who can see things from the prospective of English speakers.

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Rayhangül Ahat is a lecturer of English at the Colleges of Foreign Languages, Xinjiang University, China. Her research interests mainly EFL teaching and learning in the context of English as an L3, including learner motivation, learner strategy and autonomous learning. She is also a Ph.D student of Kyoto University, Japan.

The Effect of Teaching Different Genres on Listening Comprehension Performance of Iranian EFL Students

Bahador Sadeghi (Corresponding Author)
English Department, Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Takestan, Iran

Mohammad Taghi Hassani
Imam Hossein University, Tehran;
Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Iran

Hessam Noory
English Department, Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Takestan, Iran

Abstract—With ever growing need of genre based instruction, it seems listening comprehension is being marginalized in both research and material development of genre based instruction. In this research four genres of narrative, argumentative, descriptive and expository were presented to 23 (n=23) male intermediate Iranian EFL students with thorough introduction to each genre. The control group, 22 male intermediate students (n=22) also received the same materials but in random order and without any introduction to genres of the listening input. The results of the study states that genre based listening input and introduction to genres does have positive impact on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL students.

Index Terms—genre, listening, listening comprehension, genre based language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching a second language is an interesting field of study which has engaged many philosophers and researchers to study and to find the best and most effective ways of teaching second language to language learners. Reading, writing, listening and speaking are four major skills in any language and therefore many researches have been conducted to howness and whatness of teaching each of these skills to language learners. This study is an attempt to see if teaching the four genres of narrative, argumentative, Descriptive and expository have any positive effects on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL students. Feyten (1991) claims that more than 45% of communicating time is spent on listening.

Listening to foreign language authentic materials might cause lots of problems for language learners. "Everyone who has ever learned a foreign language has probably experienced the frustrating feeling of not being able to communicate with native speakers of the language despite years of training in the target language. Often one knows the words when they are presented visually but one does not recognize them in a spoken utterance. The main cause of this communication problem is the disability of listeners to recognize the words in the pace in which they are spoken. In other words, listeners may have enough vocabulary knowledge but they may be unable to use this knowledge under time pressure". (Poelmans, 2003). "In the 1980s, the genre approach became popular along with the notion that student writers could benefit from studying different types of written text". (Lingzhu, 2009).

The teaching of listening has attracted a greater level of interest in recent years than it did in the past (Richards 2008, p.12) .There are many reasons for focusing on listening when teaching English as a foreign language, not least of which is the fact that we as humans have been learning languages through our ears for thousands and thousands of years, far longer than we as humans have been able to read. Our brains are well programmed to learn languages through sound and speech. This is not to say that reading and writing are less important, but listening as a gate to speaking and acquiring a language is highlighted. (Alastair Graham-Marr 2004). The teaching of listening has attracted a greater level of interest in recent years than it did in the past. "Now, university entrance exams, exit exams, and other examinations often include a listening component, acknowledging that listening skills are a core component of second-language proficiency, and also reflecting the assumption that if listening isn't tested, teachers won't teach it." (Richards 2008, p 1).

Brown in his research in teaching listening states that "Listening in another language is a hard job, but we can make it easier by applying what we know about activating prior knowledge, helping students organize their learning by thinking about their purposes for listening, and if speaking is also a goal of the classroom, using well-structured speaking tasks informed by research."(Brown 2006, p.1)In teaching listening, many research are conducted to examine

the role of listening in first language acquisition and foreign language learning, and almost all of them concluded that listening is a vital and undeniable component of acquiring and mastering a language.

But the role of different types of listening input, different types of listening and listening genres and their profound effect on listening comprehension has been ignored throughout the years of teaching listening in listening classes. Brooks and Warren in their book "*Modern Rhetoric*,. (1979) describe genre as following: "a closed, formal system based definition on genre and its intention but described according to form: exposition, argumentation, description, narration."(p.223) Miller (1984) defines genre in summary as the followings: Genre is a conventional category of discourse based in large-scale categorization of rhetorical action; as action, it acquires meaning from situation and from the social context in which that situation happens. Students with different interests, backgrounds, talents and expectations might benefit from a specific kind of listening input, type of listening and listening genres. This research aims at finding out the effect of different listening types and different listening genres inputs on listening comprehension of EFL students. It is an attempt to find out if teaching different genres: (narrative, explanative, argumentative and expository) has any positive effect on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL students.

II. METHODOLOGY

Materials and Methods:
Introduction:
The purpose of this study was to see whether or not teaching four different genres of listening (narrative, argumentative, descriptive and expository) have any positive effect on the listening comprehension of Iranian EFL students. This section addresses the method adopted for this study. It introduces the participants, materials and instruments used in this study.

Participants
For the purpose of this study 2 homogeneous groups of intermediate EFL students were taken under study. The students signed up in language teaching institute (مدرس) and no information about the aim of the study. In order to make sure of the homogeneity of the students a pre-test of grammar and listening was given to students by the institute before the process of control and treatment began. Group A, treatment group containing 23 intermediate male students, aged between 17 and 28, received 12 sessions of genre-based listening input with an introduction to each genre features before each session of listening. Each session of listening lasted 90 minutes. Group B, control group containing 22 intermediate male students, aged between 19 and 26, received randomly selected genre based listening input which was given to treatment group but without any introductions to genres and their features, each session of listening lasted 90 minutes.

Instrument
As a pre-test, oxford placement test 1, by Dave Allan (2004) were applied for screening and placement of the students by the institute, total grade for grammar and listening test were 30 each, 60 in total. For the purpose of this study, the results of the listening part of the test were analyzed. For the post test, a combination of test from BARRON's TOEFL iBT Internet-based Test 2006-2007 12th edition listening section model tests and also Developing Skills for the TOEFL® iBT, transcripts, Listening Section were adopted.

Materials
For the purpose of this study genre based listening materials were carefully selected from three different sources. Source number 1, was Developing Skills for the TOEFL® iBT, transcripts, Listening Section, the second source was BARRON's TOEFL iBT Internet-based Test 2006-2007 12th edition listening section and the third source was Longman *complete course for the toefl test* listening section. For genre determination criteria Michigan's Genre Project Clarifying "Genre Study" and Identifying Teaching Points for ELA GLCE Genre version 12.5 and was used. Each of the genre inputs was selected from the text book according to their definitions and features.

Procedure
The procedure of conducting this study is explained in detail in this section, after forming two homogeneous intermediate classes, step by step of the teaching procedure is mentioned in this section.

Group A, the treatment group:
Group A, the treatment group, 23 male students received 12 sessions of genre based listening input. Each genre, narrative, argumentative, descriptive and expository received three sessions of genre based listening.

At the first three sessions, narrative genre was presented to the students, at the first session the features of narrative genre were introduced to the students: narrative genre forms, functions, and features were written on the board and a brief explanation was given about each form, function and feature. The functions of narrative genre in real life were introduced to students in the form of examples: story books, audio books, radio stories, etc. students could take notes and ask questions whenever they had difficulty in understanding parts of the genre introduction. then the session continued by listening to narrative listening input. The listening input was played via a central computer and students could listen to the input via their own computers. At the second session of practicing narrative form, a brief review of narrative genre features was reviewed for the students followed by listening to selected narrative listening input. At the third session of practicing narrative genre again a brief review of narrative genre features and function was covered for the students followed by answering students' questions about the genre or the listening input. In each session 20

minutes of narrative listening input was played for students. Each input was played three times for students, the first time at a normal speed, the second time with appropriate pauses for students' memorization and the third time again at normal speed: After three times listening, related question to the listening input was asked from the students according to the class list in a random order, making sure that each student has answered at least one question. If a student answered a question incorrectly, the listening input was played again for him with appropriate pauses to see whether or not the student had realized the correct answer, if not students were asked to raise their hands if they knew the correct answer, after covering the correct answer the listening input and the correct answer was reviewed for students with enough explanations for them to realize the cause of the incorrect answer.

Other three genres on argumentative, descriptive and expository were practiced in the same procedure as narrative genre; However, when practicing expository genre which shares some characteristics with descriptive genre, a thorough description of both genres were introduced to the students and their most prominent differences were highlighted and practiced.

Group B, the control group:

Group B, the control group received 12 sessions of randomly selected genre based listening input. The materials were selected from argumentative, descriptive, narrative and expository genres which were presented to the treatment group (Group A) but presented in random order and without any introduction to genres and their features. For example session one covered an audio input in the argumentative genre, the second session expository genre input was presented to students and so on. Each session difficult or new vocabulary was introduced to students. Each listening input was played 3 times, the first time in normal speed, the second time with appropriate pauses and the third time again with normal speed for the sake of students' memorization. Incorrect answers were corrected by listening to the related part of the input and asking students to correct the given question by the help of the instructor. Each student had to at least answer one question in each session of listening.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Results and discussions:

For this study independent T-test is performed on both the results of pre-test on control and treatment group and also on the results of post-test of treatment and control group. Independent t-test has four assumptions; 1) The data should be measured on an interval scale; 2) The subjects should be independent that is to say their performance on the test is not affected by the performance of other students, 3) The data should enjoy normal distribution and 4) The groups should have homogeneous variances. (Flucher and Davidson, 2007) The present data are measured on an interval scale and none of the subjects' performs independently on the tests. The assumption of normality is also met. A lot of statistical tests (e.g. t-test) require that our data are normally distributed and therefore we should always check if this assumption is violated. As displayed in Table 1 the values of Skewness and kurtosis are within the ranges of +/- 2 (7) (Bachman, 2005) hence the normality of the present data.

TABLE 1
NORMALITY TESTS

Groups		N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Experimental	Pretest	23	.092	.481	-1.107	.935
	Posttest	23	-.375	.481	-.647	.935
Control	Pretest	22	-.436	.491	.216	.953
	Posttest	22	-.111	.491	-.902	.953

The assumption of homogeneity of variances will be discussed when reporting the results of the independent t-test.

Pretest of Listening

Before starting to present the treatment to treatment group, an independent t-test is run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the pretest of listening in order to prove that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their listening ability prior to the main study.

As displayed in Table 2 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on pretest of listening are 13.48 and 13.68 respectively.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRETEST OF LISTENING BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	23	13.48	4.660	.972
Control	22	13.68	3.945	.841

The results of the independent t-test (t (43) = .158, P = .87> .05) indicate that there was not any significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the pretest of listening. Thus it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same level of listening ability prior to the main study.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT T-TEST PRETEST OF LISTENING 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	1.241	.271	.158	43	.875	.204	1.290	-2.398	2.805
Equal variances not assumed			.158	42.388	.875	.204	1.285	-2.389	2.796

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met (Levene's F = 1.24, P = .271> .05; r = .02 it represents a weak effect size). That is why the first row of Table 3, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" is reported.
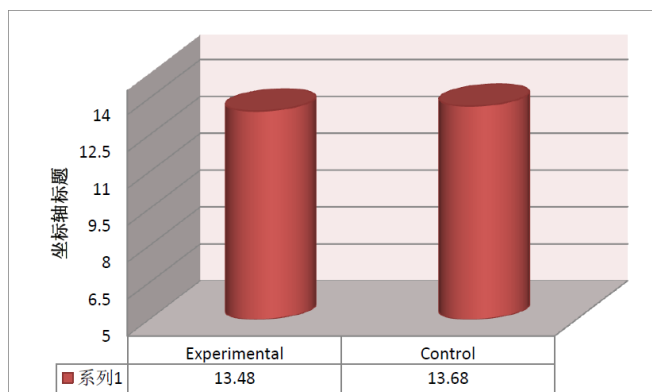
Graph 1-Pretest of Listening by Groups

Research question

The underlying question of this study is presented in the following form:

Do teaching different listening genres have any effect on listening for detailed information of EFL students?

In order to answer the above research question, an independent t-test is run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the post-test of listening in order to probe the effect of teaching different listening genres on listening for detailed information of EFL students. As displayed in Table 4 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on pretest of listening are 18.43 and 14.41 respectively.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS POST-TEST OF LISTENING BY GROUPS

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	23	18.43	4.241	.884
Control	22	14.41	3.887	.829

The results of the independent t-test (t (43) = 3.31, P = .002< .05; r = .45 it represents an almost large effect size) indicate that there is a significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores on the posttest of listening. The null-hypothesis as teaching different listening genres does not have any effect on listening for detailed information of EFL students is rejected. The treatment group after receiving listening genres outperformed the control group on the post-test of listening comprehension.

TABLE 5
INDEPENDENT T-TEST PRETEST OF LISTENING 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	.202	.656	3.315	43	.002	4.026	1.214	1.577	6.475
Equal variances not assumed			3.322	42.926	.002	4.026	1.212	1.581	6.470

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met (Levene's F = .202, P = .656> .05). That is why the first row of Table 5, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" is reported.
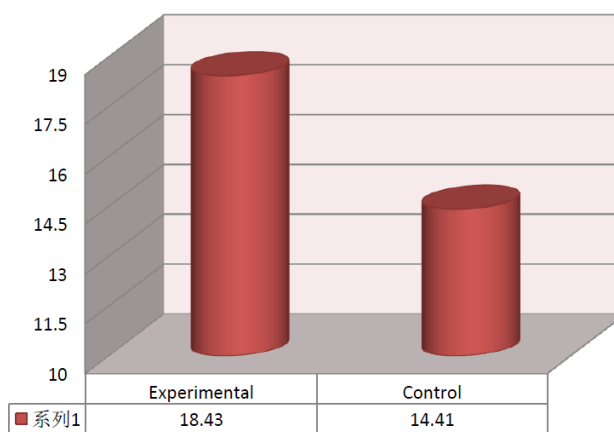
Graph 2-Post-test of Listening by Groups

	Experimental	Control
系列1	18.43	14.41

In this study, the Group A, the treatment group, received 12 sessions of genre based listening input. Group B, the control group also received 12 session of genre based input, but the genres were presented in random order and without any introduction to genres and their specification. In order to make sure of the homogeneity of the two groups a pre-test was given to both groups. A lot of statistical tests (e.g. t-test) require that our data are normally distributed and therefore we should always check if this assumption is violated. Skewness and kurtosis data are considered normal only if the value are within the range of +2 and -2 As displayed in Table 1 the values of Skewness and kurtosis are within the ranges of +/- 2 (Bachman 2005), hence the normality of the present data.

The results of the independent t-test on pre-test is thoroughly described in Table 2 which is a Descriptive Statistics Pretest of Listening by groups, (t (43) = .158, P = .87> .05) indicate that there was not any significant difference between experimental and control groups' mean scores 13.48 and 13.68 on the pretest of listening. Graph 1 also clearly shows that both treatment and control group performed identical on the pre-test. Thus it can be concluded that the two groups enjoyed the same level of listening ability prior to the main study and there were no meaningful difference between the two groups in the pre-test

Post-test results of the treatment group t-test is presented in table 3 shows that (t (43) = 3.31, P = .002< .05; r = .45 which represents an almost large effect size, indicate that there is a significant difference between treatment and control groups' mean scores (treatment group: 18.43 control group: 14.41) on the post-test of listening, also Graph 2 clearly shows that the treatment group performed significantly better than control group after receiving the treatment of genres and therefore the null-hypothesis: teaching different listening genres does not have any effect on listening comprehension of EFL students is rejected.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Discussion

The results of this proved that introducing different genres to students in listening form is beneficial for language learners. Research on the effects of genre happened to be extremely rare to find when looking for prior research on genre and listening comprehension. Reasons for this might be the fact that perhaps developing genre based listening input is very difficult and time consuming, which was also a problem in the procedure of this research. Lack of proper genre based materials will cause problems for researchers trying to conduct their own research on genre based listening comprehension classes. The findings of this study are compared with the findings of prior studies on genre on reading and writing due to lack of enough prior research on the effect of teaching genres and listening comprehension. Here a brief comparison is done to see how current research corresponded with prior research on genres and their effects.

Overall, the study indicates that the fourth grade reading comprehension problem is at least partially attributable to the emergence of complex dependencies between the nature of the text and the reader's prior knowledge. Introducing the genre of the listening and its features leads to activation of students' prior knowledge which might help them to comprehend the listening input easier. On writing (20) (Paltridge, 1996), also encourages the application of genres in reading classes and states that "Students may, equally, be given a number of examples of a particular genre and asked to identify the generic structure and associated text type/s on the basis of their examination of the texts. In this way students can explore the characteristic features of particular genres, and the sorts of variation that occur within them." In this study also students were introduced to four genres of narrative, argumentative, descriptive and expository but in listening form and also examples of particular genres were given to students, so they could be able to identify each genre and adopt the most appropriate listening comprehension strategy to understand them. Lin, (2006) conducted a study on 6 genres of writing: narratives tell a story, usually to entertain, recounts (Personal, Factual) tell what happened, information reports provide factual information, instructions tell the listener or reader what to do, explanations explain how or why something happens, expository texts The conclusion of the research was "The students, in their assignments

and examinations, produce good coherent writing in the genres taught, usually relying on the model texts provided. The writing of the best students even under examination conditions is impressive, showing ability to adapt the features learnt for their own communicative purposes. In this study, again genres were introduced to students in writing format, in current research however; genres were introduced in listening format and positive effects were also observed in this research. The findings of this study easily is in agreement with the findings of previous research on genre and its effect on language learning/acquisition with the exception that previous research were almost conducted on reading and writing process. This research on the other hand, tried to discover the effect of genre on listening comprehension of language learners. Based on the results of this study it can be stated that genres have significant effects on listening comprehension of EFL students and including the genre could be as beneficial and helpful in listening as it is in reading and writing. By defining the genre of the listening input and its features and functions, we can make the process of listening comprehension more meaningful for the language learners. Also introducing genres could be a good warm up exercise for starting the listening comprehension classroom.

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Bahador Sadeghi, an assistant professor of Applied Linguistics holds a doctorate degree in TEFL from the University of Isfahan, Iran. He also holds three MAs in TEFL, English Translation and International Relations from Tehran Islamic Azad University, Isfahan University and Allameh Tabatabai University respectively. He has been lecturing different subjects in TEFL, Translation studies, General English and ESP at several universities in Iran for the last twenty years. He has both published and presented a number of articles in some international journals and conferences. He has translated twenty books from English to Persian. He is also a certified translator to the judiciary power in Iran and he has been, as a simultaneous interpreter, actively involved in many national and international seminars, sport events and tourism projects.

Mohammad Taghi Hassani, assistant professor in TEFL at Imam Hossein University, Tehran and Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Iran. His research interests are EFL writing, psycholinguistics, phonetics, contrastive analysis, English for Specific Purposes, and language teaching methodology.

Hessam Noory received his BA in 2010 and MA in 2013 in TEFL from the Department of English Language at Islamic Azad University of Takestan. He is currently teaching English at private schools and high schools in Karaj, Iran.

Designing a Cognitive Speech Act Taxonomy for Dialogic Teaching and Learning: Explorative Action Games for Conceptual Change Learning

Sebastian Feller

A*STAR - Institute of High Performance Computing, Computational Social Cognition, 1 Fusionopolis Way, #16-16 Connexis, Singapore

Abstract—This paper explores the design of a cognitive speech act taxonomy for teaching and learning. The taxonomy and the theoretical framework that I present here are about teaching and learning in a general sense. Other than for existing speech act taxonomies in this domain, the aim of the taxonomy proposed here is to represent and structure the cognitive processes involved in learning and link these processes to the language used in the teaching and learning interaction. Learning is thereby defined in terms of conceptual change (Thagard, 1992). The cognitive processes relevant for learning are describable in terms of what I call thinking patterns. Thinking patterns combine epistemic cognitive strategies, which I call enablers, with specific types of conceptual change. These strategies are derived from Aristotelian (1992) *aitiae* forming a heuristic structure to make sense of the world. Based on Weigand's (2010) Theory of Dialogic Action Games, I discuss the explorative action game as a possibility to implement this communicative framework in the teacher-learner interaction. I hold that learners can be guided to learning via so-called explorative speech acts that instantiate specific thinking patterns. These speech acts aim at what I call discovery speech acts as a response. Discovery is thereby framed in terms of a particular type of conceptual change evoked by a particular thinking pattern.

Index Terms—cognitive speech act taxonomy, conceptual change, teaching and learning interaction, explorative action game, dialogic knowledge building

I. INTRODUCTION: GOING BEYOND EXISTING TAXONOMIES

Computational linguistics has generated a number of speech act taxonomies that, at first sight, might seem useful for a teaching and learning speech act taxonomy. However, taking a closer look at these taxonomies like, for example, DIT+++ (http://dit.uvt.nl/, last date of access 9 May, 2013) it shows that a systematic link to relevant aspects of teaching and learning is missing. The taxonomies are structured along coarse-grained communicative actions that are too general to account for what is going on in a teacher-learner interaction, especially since they lack any sort of description of the non-verbal, i.e. cognitive level of communication. Integrating the cognitive level into the description is, in the case of teaching and learning, essential in order to understand what is going on when teacher and learner interact with each other and learning takes place.

Next to these general speech act taxonomies, researchers have set out to take a closer look at classroom language *per se*. For example, Sinclair & Coulthard (1975, 1992) developed their so-called IRF model, which is short for initiation, response, and follow-up. The basic idea is that the teacher usually initiates communication about a topic by, for example, asking a question, the learner then responds to the teacher's initiation, and the teacher finally gives the learner feedback. Sinclair & Coulthard's model is located within the arena of conversation analysis in the tradition of Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson (1974). Similarly, it does not fully reach out to the cognitive level of the interaction. The main focus of the model is on discourse structure and verbal behavior.

Recently there has been published a wave of practical teacher guides providing guidelines on how to use the "right" language in the classroom. Roser & Denton (2010), for instance, focus on the use of open-ended questions in K-6 classrooms. They relate different types of questions to specific learning purposes like generating possible solutions, evaluating a plan or process, and planning the next steps (pp. 55ff.). Ferrell (2009) mentions Bloom's taxonomy of learning as a useful categorization of cognitive processes with a view to facilitating high level thinking and problem solving. Fisher (2005) identifies a number of cognitive strategies for critical thinking, which are based on Richard Paul's (1993) critical thinking framework. Similar to Roser & Denton, these strategies revolve around a set of "right" questions including asking for clarification, seeking reasons or explanation, and forcing comparison.

In summary, past research on classroom language stands in the tradition of conversation or discourse analysis. More recent accounts tackling the cognitive level of teacher-learner interactions lack details, especially in explaining how exactly language relates to cognitive processes of learning. The focus is here mostly on critical discussion, in which already formed knowledge is questioned and existing viewpoints are exchanged. The question of how this knowledge is built in the first place remains largely unanswered.

Tackling the question of teaching and learning, I propose in this paper a view of learning along a gradual communicative process which I have called elsewhere Dialogic Knowledge Building (Feller, 2013). This process of knowledge building is thereby facilitated by collaborative teaching and learning in which the learner teams up with the teacher or their peers with a view to finding a solution and tackling a topic together.

Taking this as starting point, I will give a systematic account of how to design a cognitive speech act taxonomy for teaching and learning. I will base the design of the taxonomy on what I call thinking patterns. These thinking patterns rest on a view of learning as conceptual change learning. They consist of epistemic patterns like cause and effect and specific types of conceptual change. Thinking patterns are the basic cognitive units of learning. Having identified these units, the question is how they can and should be instantiated in the teaching and learning interaction. Taking into account the basic assumptions of Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and a recent trend in educational science in favor of 21st century skills (Bellanca & Brandt, 2010), as well as Weigand's Theory of Dialogic Action Games (2010), I argue that the explorative learning game is a suitable communicative framework revolving around explorative and discovery speech acts. These speech acts instantiate the above-mentioned thinking patterns, providing a communicative structure for conceptual change learning in collaboration between the dialog partners.

II. WHY COGNITIVE STATES?

Creating a cognitive speech act taxonomy leads sooner or later to the question of why we should be concerned with the interlocutors' cognitive states at all. Is it not language that we want to structure, and not cognition? In the end, cognition and knowledge building seem to belong to research fields like cognitive science or psychology, not linguistics *per se*.

However, we can only structure language if we first of all understand the cognitive states underlying it (Schalley & Khlentzos, 2007). In a teaching and learning dialog, just like in any other type of dialog, the interlocutors use language for certain purposes. In other words, they use language to carry out actions. These actions, on the other hand, entail or presuppose cognitive processes. To give an example, let us take a look at conceptual metonymy. Here an instance from (Niemeier, 2004, p.111):

The Rolls-Royce left the gas station without paying.

It is immediately understood that it is the driver of the Rolls-Royce who has left without paying. The Rolls-Royce stands here merely as a place holder. This intended interpretation is not expressed on the verbal level but must first of all be inferred.

Levinson's (2000, p. 16) particularized conversational implicature (PCI) works similarly:

A: What time is it?

B: Some of the guests are already leaving.

PCI: It must be late.

In this short sequence, A infers the PCI against background information (including social conventions about how long guests usually attend a social event) which is not explicitly mentioned on the verbal level. Cognitive processes like these naturally occur in language use. Especially in the teaching and learning context, where learning ultimately takes place in the learner's head, essential parts of the interaction happen on the non-verbal level. We have to incorporate these things in the description of the interaction if we want to understand what is actually going on.

III. CONCEPTUAL CHANGE

The cognitive states of the dialog partners are an essential part of the picture of what is going on in the teaching and learning interaction. These states are based on a network of processes of reasoning, understanding, and ultimately knowledge building or learning, in other words.

Conceptual Change Theory (CCT) (Thagard, 1992) provides the conceptual framework to grasp and track knowledge building. The basic assumption of CCT is that new knowledge is always built on top of existing knowledge. We are not blank slates but comprehend and cognize the world on the basis of what we already know (Pinker, 2002). What happens when we learn something is that we change or revise our existing knowledge. In CCT this change takes place in three basic ways (cf. also Hewson, 1992, pp. 3f.): i) A concept is extended. ii) A concept is truncated. iii) A concept is partially revised, i.e. parts of it are replaced with new parts.

Let us take a closer look at each of these three ways. To give an example, we imagine the following situation: a student in primary school learns about red blood cells. Let us suppose that the existing knowledge of the student does not go any further than a rough idea of something that is red. The teacher now shows the student a cartoon depicting red blood cells in an anthropomorphic way. The cells in the cartoon have human like features. For example, they stand on two feet, have two arms and two legs, a head and face. She tells the student that red blood cells go to the lungs where they pick up some stuff called oxygen. The blood cells then carry the oxygen to other body parts where it is needed to create energy. All this information including the outer appearance and anatomy of the cartoon figures, the transportation of oxygen and the creation of energy in other body parts, is added to the student's existing conceptualization of the red blood cell. Hence we are dealing here with i) concept extension.

Some years pass by and our student finds herself in the high school biology course. Here the teacher shows her a scan of red blood cells taken with an electron microscope.

The student infers that the anthropomorphic features presented in the cartoon are not real but merely metaphorical and discards them from his existing red blood cell concept. She also deletes all the features that are indirectly associated with the metaphor like a red blood cell can think, talk, and walk like a normal human being. In addition, the teacher tells the student that red blood cells are biconcave cells that contain a substance called hemoglobin, which is a protein that can bind oxygen and gives the cells their typical red color. The student thus replaces the metaphoric representation with this new conceptualization. The basic function of transporting oxygen to body tissue remains intact, however. This is a clear case of iii) concept revision.

Moving on to university, our student learns that red blood cells come into existence in the bone marrow and last for about 100-200 days before they cease. This is new information that she adds to her existing concept, in other words, i) concept extension. The professor furthermore tells her that, compared to other kinds of cells, red blood cells do not have a cell nucleus and miss also most organelles to load up as much hemoglobin as possible. These are idiosyncrasies that the student had not known of before. The existing concept is thus ii) truncated accordingly.

It is these three types of conceptual change that are at the core of learning. In the next section, we will look into some of the enabling cognitive factors of conceptual change, i.e. those cognitive processes that scaffold and facilitate conceptual change along these lines.

IV. AITIAE: A BASIC EPISTEMOLOGICAL STRUCTURE

In addition to the processes described in CCT there are cognitive processes that help us represent and make sense of the world. These processes are epistemic, i.e. they enable us to form a mental picture or conceptualization of the world and the objects therein.

These epistemic processes are the enabling factors of conceptual change. They form the "critical mass" of concepts by creating a conceptual tension between existing knowledge and knowledge to be that eventually discharges as conceptual change. I will henceforth refer to these cognitive processes as enablers. My view of enablers is thereby inspired by Dahlgren's (1988) Naïve Semantics in general and what she calls kind types and feature types in particular. As Dahlgren (1988, pp. 66f.) points out, kind types are the basic categories for so-called kind terms, i.e. terms that refer to "real classes of real objects". Kind types predict feature types of kind terms; in other words, they constrain what sorts of features a kind has. For example, "[t]he kind type ANIMAL predicts that *elephant* will have certain types of properties, such as habitat, which *secretary* lacks […]" (p. 71). I conceptualize enablers along similar lines: they predict how knowledge building takes place, i.e. the type of conceptual change the learner engages in when she learns.

However, Dahlgren's categorization is static and is therefore not suitable for coming to grips with conceptual change. Instead, we are in need of a more dynamic framework. Aristotle's (1992) *aitiae* provide an epistemic structure for distinguishing between different types of enablers. *Aitiae* have played a central role in epistemology, i.e. the science of knowledge, ever since. Aristotle introduced four different types of *aitiae*:

a) constitutive: relating to objects and its parts
1) A car has four wheels.
b) formal: defining what distinguishes an object within a larger domain
2) An elephant is grey just like a mouse but much bigger in body size.
c) telic: referring to an object's purpose or function, i.e. what it is used for
3) A car is for driving.
d) efficient: indicating forces outside of an object, causing change or movement or bringing it into existence
4) A car is assembled in a car factory.

According to Aristotle, these four *aitiae* or causes, in other words, lie at the heart of our understanding of the things in the world. They give an answer to the question *Why?* and are thus the basic building blocks of our understanding or definition of things. This is why the four *aitiae* provide a plausible categorization for enablers. As the basic building blocks of explanation, they, in a way of speaking, determine the cognitive "path" our conceptualization takes.

In the next section, we will look into the question of which enablers can be derived from which *aitiae*. We will then analyze how the different groups of enablers activate conceptual change and thus trigger learning.

A. *Deriving Enablers from Aitiae*

Having arrived at a basic epistemological structure in terms of *aitiae*, we are now in a position to derive correlating types of enablers as illustrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
DERIVING ENABLERS FROM AITIAE. "X" INDICATES THAT ENABLER AND AITIÊN CORRELATE WITH EACH OTHER.

enabler/aitia	constitutive	formal	telic	efficient
part-of	x			
has-a	x			
general-specific		x		
specific-general			x	
similar-different		x		
is-for			x	
cause-effect				x
effect-cause				x
antecedent-consequent				x
is-at				x

Let us begin with a) constitutive. Considering the parts or components of an object, conceptualizations run along the following lines:

A) part-of relation: this relation defines an object as being part of a larger object. Together with the other parts, it constitutes the larger object. Rephrasing 1) gives the following example:

5) The wheel is part of the car.

B) has-a relation: this relation is corresponding to A), defining the relation from the opposite end. It is now the larger object which is at the center of the conceptualization. Consider the example from earlier:

1) A car has four wheels.

We continue with enablers under b) formal. Here we can distinguish between the following relations:

C) general-specific relation: here we are dealing with the relation between an umbrella concept, i.e. the hyperonym, and its subordinate or hyponym. The relation between hyperonym and hyponym is conceptual inheritance: the hyponym inherits all the features from the hyperonym. In addition, it possesses some additional features which are only presupposed as potentials in the hyperonym but not *per se* part of it. The following example illustrates this:

6) A car is a vehicle with four wheels.

D) similar-different relation: this relation is similar to C). It is based on an intersecting set of features of two or more objects contrasted against a subset of object-specific features. As opposed to C), where the intersecting set of features is derived from the hyperonym, here the intersecting set is derived from a concept on the same conceptual level as the base concept. Here an example:

7) A Porsche is like a Ferrari made in Germany.

Let us move on to c) telic.

We can construct the relation in 6) from the other end, resulting in the new relation E) specific-general.

8) A car is a vehicle.

In contrast to 6), in 8) the hyponym is defined in terms of the more abstract hyperonym. Specific features are not mentioned. It is here only basic functions common to all vehicles like the transportation function which are entailed by this conceptualization.

F) is-for relation: this relation refers explicitly to the purpose or function of an object. To give an example, consider 3) discussed earlier:

3) A car is for driving.

Last, we take a look at d) efficient. These are the correlating relations:

G) cause-effect relation: this relation points to a force outside the object, i.e. the cause, which brings something about, namely the effect. The following sentence illustrates this relation:

9) The street is wet because it was raining.

This relation can be turned around, resulting in H) effect-cause:

10) It was raining, so the street is wet.

In a wider sense, we can also derive temporal relations from d) efficient. For example, I) antecedent-consequent relation:

11) First I went to the bank, then I visited Laurie.

The event structure is, similar to the causal structure in 9) and 10), an external "force". I hold the same for location or J) is-at relation:

12) The car is parked on the other side of the building.

In the end, correlating time and location with this and not another *aiti ân* or even a totally new epistemic category is a heuristic decision. I do not claim that any of the above-mentioned correlations reflects cognition as it really is. Rather, the proposed structure is a working hypothesis for coming to grips with the cognitive processes in learning from a theoretical point of view.

B. Thinking patterns: Correlating enablers with conceptual change

Having derived the enablers A) to J) from the *aitiae*, we can now tackle the question of how enablers are connected to conceptual change. The basic assumption thereby is that we can use specific enablers in communication to potentially trigger particular types of conceptual change. The word 'potentially' is here of paramount importance. There are a

number of other correlating factors beyond the scope of *aitiae* and enablers. For example, one such factor is the learner's existing knowledge, among others. An enabler will not result in conceptual change, if the learner already possesses the knowledge entailed by the enabler. A precondition for conceptual change thus is that the learner has an actual need to change his existing knowledge. Depending on the exact type of conceptual change, this need differs in nature. As for i) concept extension, the need comes in the form of a knowledge gap. In the case of ii) concept truncation, the learner must be aware that an existing concept in her knowledge base contains superfluous information, which should be crossed out. In addition, iii) concept revision presumes that the learner is aware that parts of an existing concept are inaccurate and should be replaced with new information.

Table 2 gives an overview of the specific correlations between enablers and conceptual change:

TABLE 2.
THE RELATION BETWEEN ENABLERS AND SPECIFIC TYPES OF CONCEPTUAL CHANGE. "X" INDICATES THAT THE ENABLER DIRECTLY TRIGGERS THE CORRESPONDING TYPE OF CONCEPTUAL CHANGE. "(X)" INDICATES THAT THE ENABLER MUST BE SPECIFIED FURTHER IN ORDER TO TRIGGER THE CORRESPONDING TYPE OF CONCEPTUAL CHANGE.

enabler/conceptual change type	extension	truncation	revision
part-of	x	(x)	(x)
has-a	x	(x)	(x)
general-specific	x	(x)	(x)
specific-general	x	(x)	(x)
similar-different	x	(x)	(x)
is-for	x	(x)	(x)
cause-effect	x	(x)	(x)
effect-cause	x	(x)	(x)
antecedent-consequent	x	(x)	(x)
is-at	x	(x)	(x)

C. Concept Extension

Let us begin with A), the part-of relation. Returning to 5) *The wheel is part of the car.*, we can split up the complex proposition expressed in 5) into smaller parts: on the one hand, the base concept "the wheel" and, on the other, "the car" which extends the base concept. "the wheel" is here put into its broader "ecological" context. This enabler thus correlates with i) conceptual extension.

B) has-a relation works similarly. Compared to A), base concept and extension are switched: in the corresponding example 1) it is "a car", which is now the base concept, and "four wheels" extends this concept.

C) general-specific also adds information to the base concept. As illustrated in 6), new information is added in terms of the hyperonym "vehicle" and the specific feature "four wheels" of the hyponym. E) specific-general works along similar lines, except that specific features are not provided. However, information is provided in the form of the set of general features inherited from the hyperonym.

D) similar-different differs only slightly from C). While in C) information is added by the hyperonym, in D) two or more objects of the same hierarchical level are compared with each other. Idiosyncratic features that distinguish the base concept in the contrast relation are added to the base concept. We can see in 7) how the base concept "Porsche" is specified by the intersecting set of features it shares with "Ferrari" and the additional distinct feature "made in Germany".

Moving on to F) is-for relation, the base concept is extended by the object's specific function (as in 3 earlier).

As for G) cause-effect, the base concept, i.e. the effect, is specified by the cause and vice versa for H) effect-cause.

The temporal order expressed in 11) by I) antecedent-consequent relation specifies the events expressed in the proposition. The events are presented in a sequence which is not inherent in the single events *per se*. This is why the chronological order can be changed without causing any sort of contradiction. For example, *First I visited Laurie, then I went to the bank* works just as fine.

Location is another case of concept extension. As illustrated in 12), the base concept "the car" is extended through J) be-at relation by the locative information "on the other side of the building".

D. Concept Truncation

Concept truncation happens when the propositional content of enablers is fully or partially negated. To give an example, let us take a look at our earlier case under E) specific-general and contrast it with a slightly extended version:

6a) A car is a vehicle.

6b) A car is a vehicle, but this car does not run anymore.

What happens in 6b) is that the inheritance of hyperonymical features is restricted by the subordinate clause. In this case, it is the generic transportation function which is negated for the particular car referred to in the example.

To give another example, we go back to H) effect-cause:

10a) It was raining, so the street is wet.

10b) It was raining, but the street is dry (i.e. not wet).

In this case, while 10a) expresses the "natural" or expected entailment relation of the presented state of affairs, 10b) negates the expected consequence. The conjunction "but" thereby implies the contradictory relation between the fact

that it was raining and the unexpected outcome of the street still being dry. The original entailment relation in 10a) is thus truncated to a sequence of events that contradicts the entailment expressed in 10b).

In summary, the examples illustrate how negation of parts or whole of an enabler's proposition correlates with concept truncation. Enablers trigger concept extension but the extension is constrained through negating selected features of the extended concept. Truncation is thus a specification of extension which can be applied to all extension enablers.

E. Concept Revision

All enablers can be used for concept revision by replacing parts of the propositional content of an enabler with new information. This works for all enablers alike. As space is limited, we select the following example for illustration.

10a) It was raining, so the street is wet.

10c) A fire truck was leaking water, so the street is wet.

Changing 10a) to 10c) revises the original proposition by replacing the cause [it was raining] with the new cause [a fire truck was leaking water]. The second part of the proposition [the street is wet] remains intact.

The type of conceptual change between 10a) to 10c) is thereby totally different compared to the one between 10a) and 10b). While changing 10a) to 10b) causes a complete shift in the quality of the relation expressed in the proposition, in the case of 10a) and 10c) the epistemic relation remains the same. The cause changes; however, we are still dealing here with an effect-cause relation as a whole.

In the next section we will have a look at how language is connected to the enabler-conceptual change patterns, henceforth thinking patterns. The main question is how and what language correlates with what kinds of thinking pattern? An answer to this question will help us understand how thinking patterns can be instantiated in communication and what linguistic means are available to the dialog partners to instantiate conceptual change learning.

V. EXCURSUS: PEDAGOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In order to get a better understanding of how language relates to conceptual change learning and what kind of language should be used in teaching and learning interactions, we need to take a closer look at teaching and learning as such.

From a pedagogical point of view, teaching and learning have undergone some severe changes during the recent decades. There has been a drastic shift from content- and teacher-based to skill- and learner-based learning. One of the recent most impactful changes runs under the label 21st century skills. These skills include critical thinking, creativity, communication, and collaboration, amongst others. From this point of view, learners should be able to construct knowledge actively through critical assessment, evaluation, and an exchange of ideas and viewpoints.

Especially collaborative learning and dialogic teacher-learner interactions have been investigated with regards to their effects on knowledge building and learner performance. Many findings point out that collaborative and dialogic learning settings support successful long term learning and help facilitate deep understanding, as well as high-level thinking, and creativity (e.g., Benware & Deci, 1984; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987; Kage & Namiki, 1990; Koestner, Ryan, Bernieri & Holt, 1984; Vansteenkiste, Ryan & Deci, 2008).

The main assumptions behind 21st century skills tie in with Deci & Ryan's (1985) Self-Determination Theory (SDT). The basic idea of SDT is that every human being has three fundamental psychological needs: autonomy, competence, and relatedness, henceforth ACR. This means that, in general, everyone wants to make their own choices, be able to find a solution to a problem, and be respected and liked by the people she is surrounded by. Fulfillment of all three needs is necessary for what Deci & Ryan call "internalization" of an activity, i.e. that the person engages in the activity for its own sake. The person regards an internalized activity as intrinsically valuable and feels joyful and happy while engaging in it.

Let us sum up what we have discussed so far: we have said earlier that learning happens when the learner changes her existing knowledge. Thereby, knowledge is defined in terms of concepts that are stored in the learner's knowledge base. Drawing on Conceptual Change Theory, we have furthermore laid out three specific ways in which the learner might change her existing concepts: concept extension, concept truncation, and concept revision. On top of this, I defined so-called enablers which I derived from Aristotle's *aitiae*, providing a heuristic epistemological foundation for our conceptualizations of the world and the things therein. Enablers are, in a way of speaking, thinking pointers which indicate how existing concepts are changed. Last, we looked into pedagogical considerations on learning and argued that collaborative and dialogic learning settings help boost higher level thinking and deep reasoning.

Having arrived at these insights, the question remains how all this can be implemented in the teacher-learner interaction. What kind of language scaffolds conceptual change learning and collaborative learning? I will deal with these questions in the remainder of this paper.

VI. TEACHER-LEARNER INTERACTION AS ACTION GAME

The cognitive speech act taxonomy that I propose grounds in a view of teacher-learner interactions in terms of dialogic action games. Based on Weigand's Mixed Game Model (MGM) (2010) the action game is the smallest

functional unit of communication. It consists of an initial communicative action by one speaker and the subsequent reaction by the dialog partner (see Fig. 1).
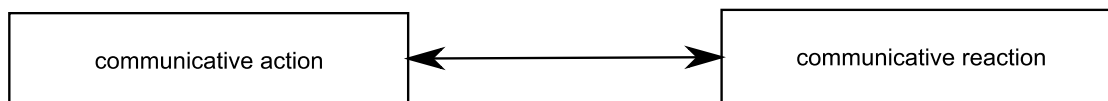

Fig. 1. The dialogic action game. This figure illustrates the minimal unit of communication consisting of communication action and reaction. As indicated by the double arrow, action and reaction are mutually related to each other.

This pair of communicative action and reaction is embedded within the speakers' "worlds" incorporating cognitive, perceptive as well as emotive states of the interlocutors, as well as their culture, societal norms, personal habits, preferences, and background knowledge, to name a few. As we will see in the next section, this holistic view of language and language use provides an appropriate foundation to conceptualize teaching and learning interactions in accordance with 21st century skills in general and SDT's ACR in particular.

Adopting the concept of the action game to teacher-learner interactions, we arrive at learning-specific pairs of communicative actions and reactions that are used by the speakers for specific ends. We will see later on what these ends look like in more detail and which particular communicative actions and reactions correlate with them.

Dividing teaching and learning into different styles along a spectrum with the two end points lecturing (teacher-centered, content based learning) vs. collaborative learning (learner-centered, skill based learning), we can assume distinct types of action games along this scale. Closer to the lecturing end point we can think of an action game in terms of an ostensive learning game. In this game, the teacher conveys information to the student simply through definitions. The student is in a passive role. She is confined to reacting, whereby reaction is limited to what I call acknowledging. By acknowledging I mean that the student uptakes information without questioning, challenging, or reflecting critically; in other words, classic rote learning.

A related type of game which is located slightly closer towards the discovery end point of the spectrum is the argumentative game. In this game the student questions the information provided by the teacher. Her role is here more active. The student might, for example, contrast what the teacher says with other viewpoints including her own.

Moving towards the discovery end of the spectrum, we find the explorative game. In this type of game, information is not simply conveyed or compared. Here teacher and learner explore a topic collaboratively. The teacher introduces the topic, for example, through what I have called elsewhere "deep explanation questions" (Feller, 2013). Deep explanation questions are questions that facilitate high level thinking and deep reasoning in the student. They entice the student in finding complex answers with a high level of detail and innovative solutions.

Explorative games make the type of action game that suits best the assumptions of SDT as well as 21st century skills discussed earlier. In the remainder ('remainder'?) of this paper I will therefore shift the main focus on this type of action game.

A. Explorative Action Games and Conceptual Change

Explorative action games facilitate conceptual change by means of activating thinking patterns. Thinking patterns are what I call the enabler-conceptual change pairs listed in Table 2. The thinking patterns are correlated with "the language of the game", i.e. the interlocutors use language in order to "carry out" the thinking patterns collaboratively in the action game.

The main question now is what kinds of communicative actions we find in an explorative teaching and learning action game and how these actions are organized. Following Searle's (1969, pp. 31ff.) speech act formula F(p), where F represents the illocutionary function of the speech act and p the propositional act, the function F is what we need to define now. F is the purpose or action correlating with the speech act, i.e. what the speaker is doing with it. In this sense the question here is: what kinds of actions are the speakers carrying out in an explorative action game.

There are some candidates from existing speech act taxonomies. For example, in Weigand's (2010, pp. 147ff.) dialogic speech act taxonomy we find the speech act type EXPLORATIVE. She further divides this type into three subtypes: EXPLORATIVE[knowledge], EXPLORATIVE[action], and EXPLORATIVE[certainty]. All three types are a good starting point for laying out a more complete taxonomy.

Let us take a closer look at each single type of EXPLORATIVE. The speaker uses EXPLORATIVE[knowledge] to request information about the world. This information is needed for conceptualizing things. A question like, for example, *What is an electron?* falls under this category.

EXPLORATIVE[action], on the other hand, is about requesting information needed for action. *What do I need to do in order to take a voltage reading?* is a good example for this type of explorative. The speaker requests information that helps her to achieve a particular goal.

The third type, EXPLORATIVE[certainty], is about finding out whether one's belief about the world matches the state-of-affairs. To give an example, the speaker might ask *Are you sure?* or *You really do not know the answer?*. The provided information in the response helps assess how certain it is that something has happened in the past or is about to happen in the future.

Basing the explorative action game on these three illocutionary functions, the question arises now if and, if so, how each of them is connected to the thinking patterns in Table 2.

B. The Connection between Exploratives and Thinking Patterns

As discussed earlier, the explorative action game consists of action and reaction, i.e. an initial and a reactive speech act. In the following sections we will take a closer look at these two speech acts and how they are connected to the thinking patterns discussed earlier.

With reference to Weigand (2010), I have identified three types of exploratives that are at the heart of explorative teaching and learning action games: EXPLORATIVE [knowledge], EXPLORATIVE [action], and EXPLORATIVE[certainty]. As already suggested by the name, all exploratives are used to explore. The difference between the distinct speech act types is, however, what exactly the speakers set out to explore. The answer is to be found in the thinking patterns we defined earlier. Each explorative is connected in their own distinct ways to the thinking patterns. The question now is what this connection looks like exactly.

I will give an example of how this connection unfolds against the backdrop of one selected thinking pattern. This suffices to outline the basic rationale behind the design of the cognitive speech act taxonomy. A discussion of all thinking patterns clearly exceeds the limits of this paper.

C. The Initial Speech Act: Explorative [Knowledge]

In this section we will address the question of how exploratives are "connected" to the thinking patterns. What I have in mind here can be best illustrated against Searle's formula F(p). F stands for the illocutionary function of the speech act, i.e. the purpose of the speech act or what the speech act is used for. p is the propositional act, which consists of both reference and predication. For example, a noun phrase like "my car" refers to a particular object in the world, which is represented as the concept [my car] in the speaker's knowledge base. For example, "is red" might then be used to predicate the color red to the concept [my car].

For illustration purposes, let us consider the thinking pattern C) general-specific – conceptual extension. How can this pattern be instantiated in an explorative action game? In other words: how does the EXPLORATIVE that the speaker uses to bring this pattern into play look like? Based on Searle's formula, we can demarcate the speech act as follows:

EXPLORATIVE[knowledge] (general-specific) → communicative means (open-ended)

Fig. 2 shows how the different parts are connected to each other:

Fig. 2. The correlation between the function and the expression side. The explorative speech act on the left is instantiated in language use by a potentially open-ended set of communicative means as represented on the right.

As discussed earlier, EXPLORE in Fig. 2 denotes the illocutionary function of the speech act, which is in this case exploring a topic. More precisely, exploring is directed towards knowledge for knowing as indicated by [knowledge].The enabler is in the place of the propositional act p. We can thus say that the explorative speech act is *about* the enabler: the speech act is used to introduce the enabler as the subject of exploration. The dashed arrow thereby indicates the indirect connection between the communicative function and knowledge. The solid arrows indicate a direct link between the propositional act and the communicative function, as well as a quasi-direct link between the propositional act and knowledge. What I mean by quasi-direct will be explained in section 6.5.

The right side of Fig. 2 refers to how this speech act is instantiated in the communication. As indicated by the intersecting set, the functional side EXPLORATIVE (general-specific) correlates to set of communicative means which is a potentially open-ended. These means include not only lexical expressions but also cognitive and perceptive means. For example, the speaker might use gestures or refer to things in her environment and draw on inferences with reference to given background knowledge not expressed verbally.

As the expression side is potentially open-ended, any taxonomy can provide only an exemplary snapshot of communicative means available in real life communication. It is thus the functional side which provides the main structure for communicative means in explorative action games.

D. The Reactive Speech Act: Discovery

We have seen how one part of the thinking pattern, namely the enabler, is instantiated in the propositional act p of the explorative speech act. Conceptual change is part of the reactive speech act in the action game: the discovery speech act. Following Searle's formula again, we represent this speech act as follows:

DISCOVERY [knowledge] (general-specific) → communicative means (open-ended)
Fig. 3 gives a more detailed account of the relations that hold between the different parts:

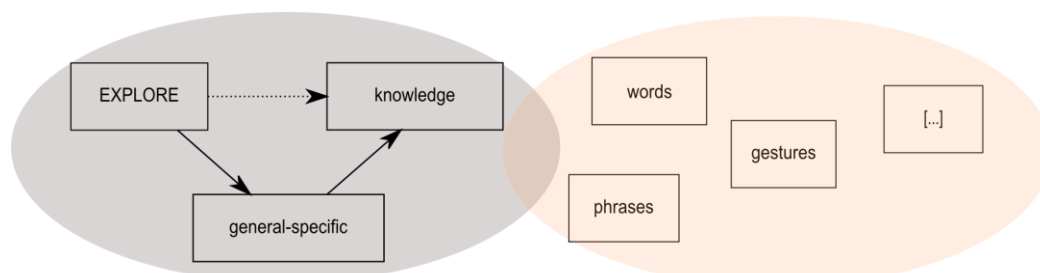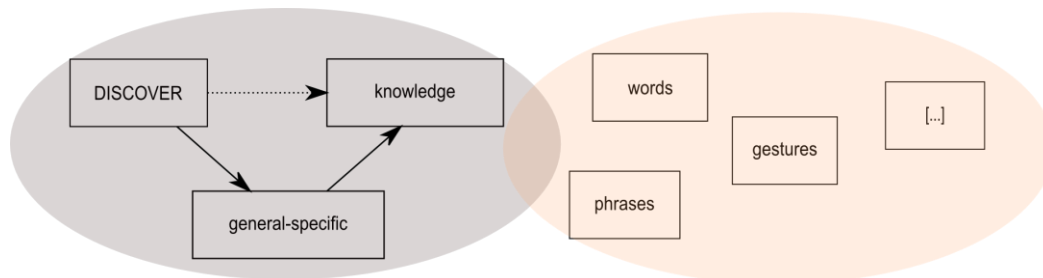
Fig. 3. The correlation between the function and the expression side. The explorative speech act is instantiated in language use by a potentially open-ended set of communicative means.

The illocutionary function of this speech act is DISCOVER, meaning that the speaker discovers new information. As a reaction towards EXPLORATIVE [knowledge], this speech act is about knowledge for knowing. The manner of discovery is thereby described by the propositional act (general-specific). The speaker presents what she discovers along the lines of this type of enabler.

E. Conceptual Change as Perlocutionary Effect

So far we have seen how the enablers are instantiated in the speech acts of the action game. But what about the exact nature of the connection between the speech acts, i.e. both the explorative and the discovery speech act, and knowledge as presented in Fig. 2 and 3? I have argued earlier that knowledge is built through conceptual change. In the action game conceptual change is part of the so-called perlocutionary effect of the explorative speech act.

With a view to getting a better understanding of what that means, let us take a closer look at perlocution. In Speech Act Theory, perlocution is defined as the psychological effect a speech act causes in the addressee (Peccei, 1999). As for the explorative speech act, it is the particular type of conceptual change correlating with the enabler in the propositional act p that is in the role of the perlocution. The traditional definition of perlocution furthermore holds that the psychological effect is beyond the immediate control of the speaker.

This is true in the case of the explorative speech act. The speaker expects the type of conceptual change correlating with the enabler in p to unfold in the hearer. If this actually happens is, however, outside the direct influence of the speaker. Other factors partly determine the hearer's reaction including her perspectivization of a given problem, her existing knowledge, her comprehension of the problem, the history of the interaction, her learning style, which includes her personal learning preferences, etc.

We can illustrate this view of conceptual change as perlocutionary effect as follows:
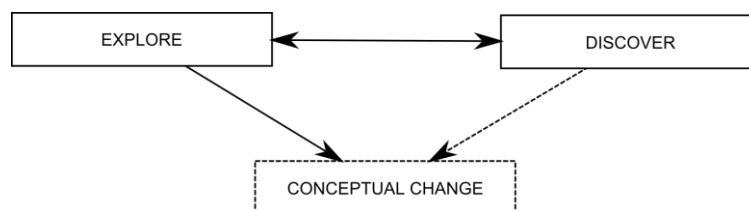
Fig. 4. Conceptual change as perlocutionary effect. This figure illustrates the connection between the minimal action game, i.e. the mutually related explorative and discovery speech acts, and conceptual change. As indicated by the continuous arrow, the explorative speech act expects that the discover speech act yields conceptual change. On the other hand, if the discovery speech act really results in conceptual change is contingent on "external" factors, which is indicated by the dashed arrow.

Action and reaction are mutually related to each other and indirectly inked via conceptual change. The dashed arrow thereby indicates that the link between DISCOVER and conceptual change is what I called earlier quasi-direct. The link between EXPLORE and conceptual change is more immediate in the sense that the speaker expects conceptual change to take place.

F. An Example: The Electron Action Game

Having arrived at a conceptualization of the general explorative action game for teaching and learning interactions, we will now take a look at a concrete example.

First of all, an action game is always about a specific topic:
TOPIC [EXPLORATIVE(enabler)] ←——→ TOPIC[DISCOVERY(conceptual change)][1]
We can thus place the action game in the context of a common topic:

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[1] In the remainder of this paper the speech acts are about knowledge for knowing, which was indicated earlier by [knowledge] in the illocutionary function F. For reasons of readability, I will henceforth not indicate this explicitly in the figures.
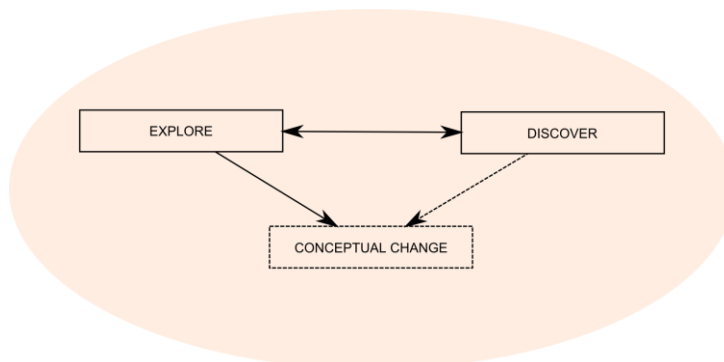
Fig. 5. The directed action game. As indicated by the shaded background, an explorative action always grounds in a specific topic, i.e. the subject domain that is being explored in the action game.

For illustration purposes, let us hypothesize a teacher-learner interaction about electrons, more precisely the function of electrons. This directed action game looks like this:

ELECTRON [EXPLORATIVE(is-for)] ⟷ ELECTRON[DISCOVERY(is-for)]

Initiating the explorative action game, the speaker must instantiate this speech act in the communication. As discussed earlier, the set of communicative means is potentially open-ended. To give an example, let us assume that the speaker asks questions that request information about the functions of electrons. These questions might be of the form: *What are electrons for?, What do electrons do/cause/result in?,* or *Why are electrons needed/used/applied here?*

The right side of the action game, i.e. the reaction follows a similar structure. TOPIC indicates what the reaction is about. TOPIC for DISCOVERY should thereby match TOPIC for EXPLORATIVE, i.e. both speakers share and act on common ground. In the given case, DISCOVERY as the reactive speech act provides here a propositional act containing information about the function of an electron. This information thus bears the potential for extending the existing concept [electron] in the speaker's knowledge base. By speaker I mean here the learner, i.e. the dialog partner who carries out the speech act ELECTRON [DISCOVERY(is-for)]. As discussed earlier, if the speaker extends the concept in fact, is contingent on multiple other factors that lie beyond the immediate scope of the action game like the learner's existing knowledge, as well as her emotive and motivational states during the interaction, among others.

To give some examples, possible answers could be: *Electrons make atoms bond, The function of electrons is to make atoms bond,* or *Electrons cause atomic bonding.* It is important to note that, similar to the explorative speech act, the discovery speech act correlates with a potentially open-ended set of communicative means. We should keep in mind, that it is the functional design of the cognitive speech act taxonomy which lays the basis for structuring language, i.e. communicative means. What kinds of communicative means speakers use or should use to instantiate a particular speech act is left to be investigated by empirical analysis of authentic language data.

VII. DESIGNING THE COGNITIVE SPEECH ACT TAXONOMY

Bringing together what we have learnt in the previous sections of this paper, the following basic structure emerges for designing the cognitive speech act taxonomy for teaching and learning:
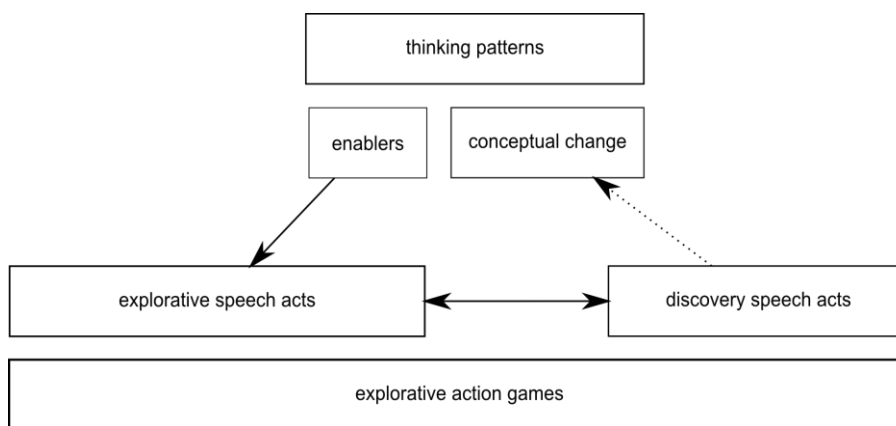
Fig. 6. The basic building blocks of the cognitive speech act taxonomy. This figure shows how the different units of the function side are connected to each other. Continuous arrows stand here for direct relations, while dashed arrows indicate expected but not necessary relations.

As Fig. 7 shows, the taxonomy consists of two interrelated tiers: thinking patterns and explorative action games, or, in other words, the level of cognition and its connections to the level of communication. As indicated by the arrows, the levels are directly connected via enablers and explorative speech acts: as discussed earlier the speaker uses explorative speech acts to instantiate exploration of a topic along specific enablers. The discovery speech act and the explorative

speech act are mutually related to each other, which is indicated by the double arrow. In addition, the discovery speech act is indirectly linked to conceptual change. As mentioned earlier, conceptual change is a kind of perlocutionary effect, which is not under the immediate control of the dialog partners. It is contingent on factors like the hearer's existing knowledge, her learning style and comprehension of a given problem or state of affairs, as well as her motivation to learn, among others.

This two-tiered structure is the foundation for the basic design of the cognitive speech act taxonomy. The taxonomy is a network of explorative action games that revolve around different enablers potentially entailing specific types of conceptual change. Adding to the taxonomy might thereby come in two different forms: top-down and bottom-up. Top-down works along the following lines:

- Enabler and topic as starting points determine explorative speech act, for example, is-for relation and electrons as topic entail explorative speech act like ELECTRON[EXPLORATIVE(is-for)].

- Explorative speech act determines discovery speech act. For example, ELECTRON [EXPLORATIVE(is-for)] asks for ELECTRON[DISCOVER(is-for)] as response.

- Discovery speech act determines conceptual change. For example, ELECTRON [DISCOVER(is-for)] (potentially) implies concept extension.

In summary, these steps originate from the question: how do I teach the function of electrons?

This question can also be turned upside down: how do I learn the function of electrons? In order to come to an answer we turn the order of steps around:

- Selected topic and the desired kind of conceptual change determine discovery speech act. To give an example, concept extension and ELECTRON combine to ELECTRON [DISCOVER (enabler)].

- Discovery speech act determines explorative speech act. For example, ELECTRON [DISCOVER (enabler)] expects ELECTRON [EXPLORATIVE (enabler)] as initiation.

- Last, we select the "direction" of exploration by means of installing a particular enabler. For example, if it is the function of electrons which is to be explored, we select the is-for relation as enabler, yielding ELECTRON [EXPLORATIVE (is-for)].

The bottom-up approach starts off from authentic language data. Here we add action games to the taxonomy by looking at teacher-learner interactions from real-life. Taking the basic building blocks of the taxonomy as a blueprint for analysis, we search interactions for pairs of explorative and discover speech acts. In the second step, the identified speech acts are broken down into their components: TOPIC, as well as the enabler expressed in the propositional acts of the speech acts. In addition, we infer the expected type of conceptual change from the exact make up of the propositional act.

In summary, both approaches, i.e. top-down as well as bottom-up, add new entries to the taxonomy in the form presented in Fig. 6. The overall scale and granularity of the taxonomy is thereby a heuristic matter. Factors like the taxonomy's purpose, usability, and the user's expert level determine how detailed and extensive the level of description should be.

The proposed design can be put to use in a number of different application areas. It might lay the foundation for the modeling of an intelligent automatic tutoring system as much as it could be of help in teacher education. For example, the taxonomy design could facilitate developing teaching strategies that scaffold 21st century skills like critical and creative thinking, critical discussion, and collaborative learning.

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

We have conceptualized teacher-learner interactions in terms of explorative action games. This conceptualization lays the basis for a cognitive speech act taxonomy, which maps conceptual change learning to special types of speech acts. The novel contribution of this approach is that language is connected to processes of collaborative knowledge building.

Our view of learning in these action games rests on three types of conceptual change: concept extension, truncation, as well as revision. We have shown how each type is connected to specific epistemic enablers, i.e. cognitive patterns used to interpret and make sense of the world. In a teacher-learner interaction, the teacher brings these enablers into play via explorative speech acts. The learner responds with a discovery speech act, potentially leading to conceptual change.

We have pointed out that conceptual change is part of the perlocution of the explorative speech act and therewith not under the full control of the speaker. The individual make-up of the learner's existing knowledge base, her learning preferences and abilities, as well as her motivational and emotive states, among others, also determine if, and if so, how learning takes place.

For future research, it will be essential to pinpoint these other factors and understand how they exactly affect learning. Only then can learning as discovery be described comprehensively and teaching and learning interactions be tailored to the needs and learning preferences of the individual learner.

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Sebastian Feller obtained his PhD in linguistics from the University of Muenster, Germany. He was Lecturer in English at Majan University College in Muscat, Oman, and has joined the Intuitive Interaction Technologies group of the Institute of High Performance Computing under A*STAR, Singapore, in 2011. His research interests include Dialog Analysis, Interaction Pragmatics, social robotics, social media analytics, as well as Lexical Semantics and cognitive theories of meaning. Sebastian is Secretary of the International Association of Dialogue Analysis (IADA) and Assistant Editor for the Benjamins journal *Language and Dialogue* as well as the book series *Dialogue Studies*.

An Experimental Study Testifying Syntactic Move[*]

Zhiyi Zhang

School of Foreign Languages and Cultures, Nanjing University, Nanjing, Jiangsu Province, China

Abstract—Some experimental studies have been done to testify the existence of syntactic move. The present paper first illuminates two such experiments and analyzes their problems. By avoiding the same problems, the present paper designates its own experiment by means of E-prime, aiming at testifying the possible existence of syntactic move.

Index Terms—syntactic move, experimental studies, behavioral studies, E-prime

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditional T-G grammar represented by Chomsky constantly focuses its attention on move phenomenon. But now, many scholars challenge that there exists such a syntactic operation as move and they suggest the move operation be cancelled (Brody, 1995; Zhao, 2001, 2002). Some theoretical studies and neurolinguistic experiments have been conducted, aiming at canceling move (Yang, 2002). As matter of fact, among not very much experimental work done concerning the syntactic operation of move, there are still two classical ones which tried to testify the possible existence of move. These two experiments provide two classical paradigms for the experiments of the same kind and can give the present study some insights into the design of the experiment. However, the experiments are not perfectly designed and after a careful examination, some problems can be found. Thus, when a new experiment is designed, the same problems will be effectively avoided after scrutinizing these problems. Basing on this examination work, the present paper designates its own experiment by means of E-prime, aiming at testifying the possible existence of syntactic move.

II. TWO CLASSICAL EXPERIMENTS AND THE PROBLEMS

A behavioral study conducted by Lee Osterhout and David A Swinney (1993) mainly focuses on the temporal course of the comprehension of English passive sentences and the ultimate purpose of this study is to see whether so called syntactic operation move is involved in this course of comprehending English passive sentences. The study chooses sixty undergraduates as the subjects and both English active and passive sentences as the language material. And the experiment is cross-model since the subjects are required to read sentences and meanwhile listen to words. The premise for the experiment is: According to T-G grammar, for English passive sentences, the syntactic operation move is involved. If this is true, in these sentences, when the syntactic element is moved from its original position, a trace will remain at that position. The study presumes that at this trace position if a word semantically related to the moved element is inserted, the trace will cause a priming effect which assists subjects to more quickly respond to this newly inserted word, compared with that of active sentences. If this is not true, the priming effect can not be detected. For the convenience of illustration, a particular pair of sentences is listed here.

1. The dentist from the new medical center in town invited the actress to go to the party.
2. The dentist from the new medical center in town was invited i by the actress to go to the party.

The first sentence is in active voice and the second is in passive voice and theoretically speaking, there exists a trace after the matrix verb invited in the second sentence, and thus an italicized i is used to indicate this trace. The study presents the two sentences to the subjects through headphones and for both of the two sentences, after the matrix verb invited is presented, a visual target of a word (For example, in this sample sentence group, tooth may be used as a visual target.) semantically related to the subject NP (a moved out element supposed by T-G) is presented to the subjects to ask them to decide whether there is some connection between the word they have seen and the subject NP they have heard. The aim of doing this is to see whether there is priming effect at the trace position and in turn to testify whether there exists move operation.

The result of the experiment is for the associate group (That is, the target word is semantically related to the subject or the moved out element.), the average response time for active sentences is 631 msec and for passive sentences is 614 msec. According to the analyses of the research team, less time cost to respond to the passive sentence indicates that there is a trace leading to the prime effect which assists the connection judge. On the contrary, for the control group (That is, the target word has no semantic connection with the subject of sentence or the moved out element), the average

response time for active sentence is 635 msec and for passive sentence is 643 msec. According to the research team, this indicates: for the semantically unrelated targets, there exists no such priming effect even though there is a trace here. When the same procedures are repeated but the target words are not given immediately after the matrix verb but with 500 msec and 1000 msec delay, the same result is achieved. The research team assumes that this further proves that there is a trace at the position after the matrix verb and this in turn testifies the involvement of move operation since trace is closely related to move.

It is thought that the behavioral study conducted by Lee Osterhout and David A Swinney may have the following two problems:

1) The theoretical premise for the study is that there exists a trace after the matrix verb in a passive sentence since the object of the sentence is moved from that original position. The trace may lead to priming effect which in turn assists the subjects to judge the semantic relation. This premise is problematic since in T-G grammar, trace is only theoretical supposition for the convenience of discussing some possible syntactic relation. As Chomsky defines in his Derivation by Phase, all traces are inaccessible to real syntactic operations like move and merge. This in turn indicates that all traces are inaccessible to language computation and have nothing to do with the real mental activities of language. As a matter of fact, a trace has neither phonetic content nor syntactic features of itself. The reason why trace still remains in T-G theoretical framework is it may indicate the position the moved out element has occupied and indicate syntactic relation. In a word, in T-G grammar, trace is mainly for theoretical construction. For some experts like Brody, trace as a syntactic concept is totally abandoned since in his radically minimalism, a syntactic element with phonetic content and syntactic feature instead of a trace remains at the original position and once that element merges at a new position , the element located at the original position will be discarded. As a result, neurologically speaking, to discuss trace is meaningless since once a syntactic element is moved out from its original position it has to be stored and processed at its new position. In this sense, trace itself has no psychological reality and thus will not participate in syntactic operation in real sense. The researchers can not expect a concept only for the purpose of theoretical construction to cause priming effect. The quicker response to do the connection judge in passive sentences may attribute to better memorization or storage of the conveyed information because the complexity of the passive structure increases the burden of mental activity which in turn makes the language computational system more actively involved in processing the information.

2) As has been observed in the study, the control experiment uses the target words which have no semantic relation with the subject of the sentence. According to the common sense, since in passive sentences traces always exist and traces can help the subjects to decide whether they are semantically related, in control group, the response time ought to be shorter for passive sentences. The experiment yet gives opposite results. And for the 500msec and 1000 msec delay, once again, the common sense seems to indicate that since a period of time has elapsed and the priming effect ought to be mitigated, there will be no evident difference as far as the response time is concerned for both the active and passive sentences. The result of the experiment however supports the opposite. All this evidence suggests that the presumption that traces elicit priming effect is not convincing.

Another experiment concerning the syntactic operation of move is done by Samuel Featherston (2000) by using the ERP method. In this experiment, two types of German sentences are chosen as the material. Syntactically speaking, one type is syntactically called control structure sentence and the other is called raising structure sentence. The English equivalents for the two structures can be found as well. The two sample sentences in German are listed here (The second sentence of each group is English word-by-word translation and the third is an English version).

Subject Control sentence

[Der Sheriff]i hoffte [als die Witwe plötzlich in das Zimmerkam] [IP PROi[NP den Täter] endlich verurteilen zu können]

[the sheriff]i hoped [as the widow suddenly into the room came] [IP PROi [NP the offender] at last sentence to can] (= The sheriff hoped, as the widow suddenly came into the room, to be able to sentence the offender at last.)

Subject Raising sentence

[Der Sheriff]i schien [als die Witwe plötzlich in das Zimmer kam] [IP ti [NP den Täter] endlich verurteilen zu können]

[the sheriff]i seemed [as the widow suddenly came into the room] [IP ti [NP the offender] at last sentence to be able to] (= The sheriff seemed, as the widow suddenly came into the room, to be able to sentence the offender at last.)

In T-G grammar, the sentence like The sheriff hoped to be able to sentence the offender at last. is one with subject control structure because it is supposed that after the matrix verb hope there is a empty category PRO and this PRO is controlled by the subject of the sentence. And the sentence like The sheriff seemed to be able to sentence the offender at last. is one with subject raising structure because the subject of the sentence is originally located at the position after the matrix verb and then is moved from its original position to its present position. The experiment is designed to see the difference of the brain potential immediately after the matrix verb during the process of representing the sentence word after word on the screen. And if there is a difference, the possible explanation is the difference might be caused by the involvement of more complicated syntactic operation (in this case move) when no difference of surface structure can be found. The reason German control and raising structures are chosen is as what can be observed from the German, for the infinitive structure after the matrix verb, the German is in inverted order, quite different from that of English

(Bourdages, 1992). This makes the object of the infinitive structure at a position closer to the matrix verb and only in this order can the difference of the brain potential be more easily detected.

The result of the experiment is just as expected; the raising structure elicits stronger P600 than that of control structure. The analyses given by the research team are as follows: P600 is a brain potential element indicating the complexity of the syntactic processing. The fact that raising structure elicits a stronger P600 suggests the processing of the raising structure is more complex than that of control structure. Under the circumstance that the surface structures of the two are quite similar to each other (almost the same except the matrix verb), the most probable explanation for the difference of the brain potential is the syntactic operation of move is involved.

Then a problem naturally occurs. A stronger P600 may not necessarily indicate the complexity of syntactic processing. It is also an indicator of the integration difficulty of the syntactic elements. And in Samuel Feather's study, integration difficulty can be adopted to better illustrate why the raising structure elicits a stronger P600. Before this, the structural difference between English control and raising structures and German equivalents will be discussed. In English, for verbs like want which can be used in control structure, an accusative NP is usually expected to follow as can be seen in the sentence like He wants me to do the job. For the verbs like seem which can be used in raising structure, a nominative NP is usually expected to follow, as can be seen in the sentence like It seems he wants to do the job..In the German equivalents of the control and raising structure, the infinitive is in inverted order which means the object of the infinitive structure is put at the very beginning. Thus it seems as if the object of the infinitive was immediately after the matrix verb. This will cause an integration difficulty for the successful understanding of raising structure. As mentioned above, after the matrix verb like seem people usually expect a nominative NP while the object of infinitive is in accusative case and by chance it is seemingly located right after the matrix verb. The integration difficulty arises. This may better explain a stronger P600 for raising structure.

Since there exists this or that kind of problem for the two classical paradigms in testifying the existence of move, the present research intends to design a new behavioral experiment to avoid the problems of the two experiments mentioned above. In order to achieve this goal, several preliminary considerations are highly necessary.

III. PRE-CONSIDERATION OF METHOD AND MATERIAL FOR PRESENT EXPERIMENT

Up till now, the methods for the study of mental process of language activity can be classified into two broad categories: One is the behavioral study, which mainly adopts the E-prime program to measure the response time and accuracy rate. The advantage of this method is it is easy and simple to operate. The disadvantage of the method is it is behavioral; consequently it can only indirectly reveal the mental activity involved in language processing. The other is the neurological study and under this category two specific methods can be used to examine the mental activity. The ERP method has its advantage in examining the real time process of the mental activity for its high sensitivity to the brain potential change within a very short period of time calculated by msec. The fMRI method has its advantage in depicting the special brain areas involved in mental activities.

As far as the present research task is concerned, it is going to be testified whether the syntactic operation of move exists and essentially, this is to examine the real time process of language computation. Since fMRI is mainly for the purpose of studying the brain areas concerning the mental activities, the E-prime or ERP method might be better choices for the present study. However, there exists difficulty in using ERP method and the difficulty largely lies in the following two aspects: 1) Up till now the brain potential elements neurological experiments have got like N400, P600 are the results of semantic or syntactic mismatch or anomalies. It is hard to represent every detail of the real time process of language computation by using the ERP method. It is true for merge case and the same for move case. 2) Though P600 is an index which can indicate the complexity of the language processing and in turn indicate the possible existence of move, this index can also be used to indicate the syntactic integration difficulty.

For the above consideration, E-prime method is adopted to measure the response time and accuracy rate. Though for this method, the long response time and low accuracy rate in understanding sentences possibly involving move may also be interpreted from the perspective of integration difficulty, this factor can be mitigated to the least when the subjects are presented the structure with clearly indicated special syntactic features.

Materials are key factor to the success of the study. For the present study, Chinese material will be better since Chinese students as subjects are more easily chosen. This plan is finally abandoned for1) One of the important interfering factors for the response time and accuracy rate is the subjects' familiarity with the language material. For the native speakers of Chinese, the Chinese language is the language of their daily use. So for most of the language materials possibly used by the present study, they are quite familiar because of high frequency of use. Then the most probable consequence by adopting Chinese is: even though there exists such operation of move in the process, the difference can not be easily detected. 2) Disagreement exists concerning Chinese structures where move is possibly involved, for example, the Chinese passive structures (Huang, 2003). Other examples including sentence like *Wangmian Si le (PERF) Fuqin* (The English equivalent will be *Wangmian died his father*).For T-G scholars like Jie Xu (2001), this is a typical structure of move. The possessive NP *Wangmian* is moved from its original position to the very beginning of the sentence. But for some Chinese scholars (Xu, 1956), *Wangmian* here serves as the topic of the sentence.

IV. Experiment

A. Subjects

Thirty English-major students participate in the experiments. All subjects are native speakers of Chinese. All of them have passed the English major test band four exams. They are non-native speakers of English, which can ensure that their English is not so good as to process the sample sentences without any difficulty but at the same time they may not have so much difficulty in understanding these sentences and thus respond to the sentences too slowly or make too many mistakes in judging the statements. And all of them are from the foreign languages and cultures institute of Nanjing Normal University. All of them have corrected-to-normal visions and are right-handed. Before the experiment, they will be cautiously instructed to ensure that all of them know the procedures of the experiment. And after the experiment, all of them will be paid.

B. Language Materials and Design

Fifty sentence pairs are constructed, with each pair composed of two sentences with the same length (See Appendix). And both of the two sentences follow the pattern that NP followed by a simple relative subordinate clause and then followed by the verb and the complement. In each sentence, both the NP in the main clause and in the relative clause represented distinct occupation (e.g., doctor) or title (e.g., king) for the consideration of convenience and unity.

In each pair of the sentences, the only difference between the two is for one of them, the relative pronoun which refers to the NP in the main clause is the subject of the relative clause and is in the nominative case while for the other, the relative pronoun referring to the NP in the main clause is the object of the relative clause and is in the accusative case. (For convenience, subject relative clause will be abbreviated as SR and object relative clause abbreviated as OR) For example

1. The doctor who loved the nurse has a heart attack.
2. The doctor whom the nurse loved has a heart attack.

So the two relative clauses have different logical structures.

The reason why these materials are chosen is it is hypothesized that in the second sentence there might exist the syntactic operation of move, that is, the move of the object of that relative clause from its original position to its now position. And this hypothesized structure with move is different from other possible moves like English passivization.

It is well known that in English passivization, though the object of the sentence can be hypothesized as moving from its original position to subject position, there is still a be verb involved in. In a passivized structure, be verb and the subject have established a seemingly predicative structure. Thus if the English sentence is shown to the subjects, it might well be processed as predicative structure of active sentence. This will greatly reduce the possible effect primed by move. On the contrary, in this sample sentence there is no such be verb.

The reason for the use of accusative whom instead of nominative who is, supposing slower response and lower accuracy are detected for the object relative clause, one might challenge that the object relative clause violates the syntactic expectation and that might be a better excuse for slower response and lower accuracy. The accusative whom clearly indicates that it is used as the object and it will be followed by special syntactic structure. By this means, the integration difficulty effect might be greatly reduced.

C. Procedures

The subjects are required to sit in a quiet room and watch the computer screen. At the beginning of the experiment, the screen will exhibit a brief introduction to the experiment through which subjects may have a general knowledge of sentences they are going to read and what tasks they are required to do. The introduction will be exhibited for 20 seconds, long enough for the subjects to have a good understanding.

After this introduction, the sample sentence will be shown on the screen segment by segment. The exhibiting pattern is at first the subject of the main clause will be exhibited. If the subject understands the meaning, he may press the button of "enter" on the keyboard of the computer. If the subject responds to that too slowly, beyond 2 seconds, the data will be discarded. Then the next segment of the sentence, the relative clause will be exhibited. The subject may press that button again if he understands the meaning of that relative clause. However, if the subject responds to that relative clause too slowly, beyond 5 seconds, the data will be discarded. Finally the remaining segment of the main clause will be exhibited. The subject may press button to continue. The time allowed is 3 seconds. Then a statement concerning the logical relation between subject and object of the relative clause will be exhibited. For example, for the sentence The doctor who loves the nurse has a heart attack.., we have a statement The doctor loves the nurse. If this statement matches the logical relation of the relative clause, the subject may press the A button. If it does not match that relationship of the relative clause, he may press the L button. And if the statement is responded too slowly, beyond 3 seconds, that data will be discarded. The subject relative clause and the object relative clause in each pair will be exhibited randomly. The true statement and the false statement will be arranged in a random way as well. All the subjects are told before the experiment that they should read the sentences segment by segment. When they understand that segment, they may press the button to continue. They must not read the whole sentence before they respond to the statement.

The useful data for the experiment mainly include: the response time to each segment of the subject relative clause (abbreviated as SRT1 for the subject segment; SRT2 for the relative clause segment; SRT3 for the remaining segment of the main clause); the response time to the statement concerning the subject-relative clause (SRT4); the accuracy rate concerning the subject-relative clause (SAR); the response time to each segment of the object relative clause(ORT1 ORT2 ORT3); the response time to the statement concerning the object-relative clause(ORT4); the accuracy rate concerning the object relative clause(OAR).

After all the subjects have finished all the fifty pairs of sentences, comparison will be done between SRT1 and ORT1, SRT2 and ORT2, SRT3 and ORT3, SRT4and ORT4, SAR and OAR separately.

D.   Results

Prior to data analysis, missing data points, erroneous responses, and response times greater than 3 standard deviations from a subject's mean response time are treated as errors and thus discarded. These procedures eliminate less than 10% of the data. Planned comparison tests are performed to compare response times and accuracy rates.

As shown in Table1, the average response time for the first part of the subject relative clause is 877.96 (calculated by msec and the followings are the same) while for the object relative clause is 908.53. It means subjects responds to the first part of the subject relative clause as fast as the first part of the object relative clause.

TABLE 1
MEANS AND STD. DEVIATIONS FOR SRT1 ORT1

Sentence Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
SRT 1	1359	877.96	646.607
ORT 1	1354	908.53	681.51

Note: SRT 1 stands for response time to the first part of the subject relative sentence; ORT 1 stands for response time to the first part of the object relative clause.

An independent samples t-test was run to find out whether the difference was statistically significant. As demonstrated in Table 2, at the significant difference level of 0.05, the sig. value is 0.49 (p=0.49>0.05), which suggests these two are not statistically different. Therefore, the results indicate there exists no difference between response times to the first part.

TABLE2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR SRT1 ORT1

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
	Equal variances assumed	2.365	.124	-.683	1258	.495	20.039
	Equal variances not assumed			-.683	1212.612	.495	20.039

As shown in Table 3, the average response time for the second part of the subject relative clause is 877.96 while for the object relative clause is 908.53. It means subjects responded to the first part of the subject relative clause as fast as the first part of the object relative clause.

TABLE3
MEANS AND STD. DEVIATIONS FOR SRT2 ORT2

Sentence Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
SRT 2	1359	2748.68	2262.56
ORT 2	1354	3517.33	2722.74

Note: SRT 2 stands for response time to the second part of the subject relative sentence; ORT 2 stands for response time to the second part of the object relative clause.

An independent samples t-test was run to find out whether the difference was statistically significant. As demonstrated in Table 4, at the significant difference level of 0.05, the sig. value is 0.03 (p=0.03<0.05), which suggests these two are statistically different. Therefore, the results indicate there exists evident difference between response times to the second part.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR SRT2 ORT2

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Equal variances assumed	.026	.021	.621	1258	.035	87.58413
Equal variances not assumed			.621	1193.711	.035	87.58413

As shown in Table 5, the average response time for the third part of the subject relative clause is 1955.73 while for the object relative clause is 1942.24. It means subjects responded to the third part of the subject relative clause as fast as the third part of the object relative clause.

TABLE 5
MEANS AND STD. DEVIATIONS FOR SRT3 ORT3

Sentence Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
SRT 3	1359	1955.73	2086.86
ORT 3	1354	1942.24	2304.18

Note: SRT 3 stands for response time to the third part of the subject relative sentence; ORT 1 stands for response time to the third part of the object relative clause.

An independent samples t-test was run to find out whether the difference was statistically significant. As demonstrated in Table 6, at the significant difference level of 0.05, the sig. value is 0.265 (p=0.265>0.05), which suggests these two are not statistically different. Therefore, the results indicate there exists no difference between response time to the third part.

TABLE6
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR SRT3 ORT3

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
	Equal variances assumed	3.921	.871	1.114	1258	.265	141.70794
	Equal variances not assumed			1.114	1198.861	.265	141.70794

As shown in Table 7, the average response time for the statement concerning the subject relative clause is 1765.76 while for that concerning the object relative clause is 1785.82. It means subjects responded to the statement concerning the subject relative clause as fast as the statement concerning the object relative clause.

TABLE 7
MEANS AND STD. DEVIATIONS FOR SRT4 ORT4

Sentence Type	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
SRT 4	1359	1765.76	767.43
ORT4	1354	1785.82	800.84

Note: SRT 4 stands for response time to the statement concerning the subject relative sentence; ORT 4 stands for response time to the statement concerning the object relative clause.

An independent samples t-test was run to find out whether the difference was statistically significant. As demonstrated in Table 8, at the significant difference level of 0.05, the sig. value is 0.416 (p=0.416>0.05), which suggests these two are not statistically different. Therefore, the results indicate there exists no difference between response times to the statements.

TABLE8
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR SRT4 ORT

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
	Equal variances assumed	.661	.416	-.135	1258	.892	-6.7778
	Equal variances not assumed			-.135	1257.076	.892	-6.7778

As shown in Table 9, the accuracy rate for the statement concerning the subject relative clause is 0.83 while for that concerning the object relative clause is 0.79. It indicates no significant difference.

TABLE 9
SAR AND OAR

Sentence Type	N
SAR	0.83246
OAR	0.79324

Note: SAR stands for accuracy rate of the statement concerning the subject relative sentence; OAR stands for accuracy rate of the statement concerning the object relative clause.

E. Discussion and Conclusion

The average values of SRT1 and ORT1, SRT3and ORT3 show no significant difference since the first segments and the third segments of the subject and object relative clauses are the same. Consequently, in the real-time comprehension process, they cost almost equal amount of time.

The average values of SRT2 and ORT2 show significant difference. This indicates that the understanding of the object relative clause costs more time than that of the subject relative clause. And this in turn shows that in real-time comprehension process, to understand the object relative clause is more difficult than to understand the subject relative clause.

The possible and usual interpretations to this understanding difficulty are the following two:

The first is the integration difficulty caused by syntactic mismatch. For example:

1. The doctor who loved the nurse has a heart attack.

2. The doctor whom the nurse loved has a heart attack.

For the first subject relative clause, the relative pronoun who is immediately followed by a matrix verb and this is in accordance with the normal predicate structure. Consequently, this will not cause the syntactic mismatch. While for the second object relative clause, the relative pronoun whom is immediately followed by an NP and this shows no similarity to the normal syntactic anticipation. And this will cause syntactic mismatch and increase the integration difficulty.

But the present study does not think the integration difficulty will be the major cause for the understanding difficulty of the object relative clause for the following consideration: First, the accusative whom is used, which is an evident indicator that the sentence pattern will not be the normal predicative structure. Second, since whom and NP are next to each other, though at the very beginning of the experiment, the NP following whom might cause integration difficulty, this effect will greatly mitigate once the subjects are familiar with the sentence pattern.

The second interpretation will be move. Since in the object relative clause, the object whom is moved from the original position to the present position, when the subjects are required to capture the logical structure of that relative clause, they have to spend more time in properly understanding those object relative clauses involving move since move is a more complicated syntactic operation. And the understanding difficulty caused by move might not be mitigated by repetition of the same experimental procedure since it is deeply rooted in one's minds.

There is no evident difference between SRT4 and ORT4 but some difference between SAR and OAR. This indicates that when the subjects overcome the comprehension difficulty in understanding the object relative clause, this will not cause further difficulty in making judgment concerning the statement. However, the understanding difficulty will cause somewhat more understanding mistakes in judging the logical structure of the object relative clause and this will in turn influence the accuracy rate of that type of clause.

As a conclusion, the evident difference and mild difference between SRT4 and ORT4, SAR and OAR has something to do with move, which in turn indicates that move possibly exists.

The behavioral experiment done by the present study proves that move might exist in language computation.

APPENDIX.   SAMPLE SENTENCES USED IN THE EXPERIMENT AND RELATED STATEMENTS

In order to save place, 10 of the 50 groups of sample sentences used in the experiment and related statements are listed here.

1.The doctor who loved the nurse has a heart attack.

Q: The nurse was loved by the doctor. √

　　The doctor whom the nurse loved has a heart attack...

Q: The doctor was loved by the nurse. √

2.The president who visited the queen gives a new order.

Q: The queen was visited by the president. √

　　The president whom the queen visited gives a new order.

Q: The president was visited by the queen. √

3.The professor who disliked the dean majored in chemistry.

Q: The dean was disliked by the professor. √

　　The professor whom the dean disliked majored in chemistry.

Q: The professor was disliked by the dean. √

4.The Chairman who threatened the public is from China.

Q: The Chairman was threatened by the public. ✕

　　The Chairman whom the public threatened is from China.

Q: The public was threatened by the Chairman. ✕

5.The policeman who watched the thief is severely hurt.

Q: The policeman was watched by the thief. ✕

　　The policeman whom the thief watched is severely hurt.

Q: The thief was watched by the policeman. ✕

6.The poet who murdered the painter is arrested.

Q: The poet was murdered by the painter. ✕

The poet whom the painter murdered is arrested.

Q: The poet was murdered by the painter. √

7. The author who helped the readers becomes more popular.

Q: The author was helped by the readers. ✕

The author whom the readers helped becomes more popular.

Q: The readers were helped by the author. ✕

8. The football player who scolded the coach made a serious mistake.

Q: The coach was scolded by the football player. √

The football player whom the coach scolded made a serious mistake.

Q: The coach was scolded by the football player. √

9. The accountant who knew the actor works in a big company.

Q: The actor was known by the accountant. √

The accountant whom the actor knew works in a big company.

Q: The accountant was known by the actor. √

10. The artist who saw the anchor returns from Chicago.

Q: The artist was seen by the anchor. ✕

The artist whom the anchor saw returns from Chicago.

Q: The artist was seen by the anchor. √

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Zhiyi Zhang, Ph.D. in linguistics, earned in Nanjing Normal University, Nanjing, Jiangsu Province, China, in 2012. The major field is English and Chinese formal syntax.

He is now the associate professor in NJNU and is doing his post-doctoral research in Nanjing University. His main published articles include *The semantic and syntactic study on light verbs, A New Interpretation to Definiteness Effect and Derivation of Existential Sentences, the Cog-Semantic Study on the Difference between Datives and Distransitives.*

Dr. Zhang is now the secretary to the Jiangsu Foreign Languages Association.

The Effect of Using Language Games on Vocabulary Retention of Iranian Elementary EFL Learners

Marzieh Taheri

English Language Department, Islamic Azad University, Savadkouh Branch, Iran

Abstract—The present study aimed at investigating the effect of using language games on elementary students' vocabulary retention. Thirty two numbers of students were chosen. They were at the same level of proficiency and were assigned into two groups of 16. The control group received traditional method of teaching vocabulary such as: drills, definitions, etc. and the experimental group was exposed to language games as a treatment. The treatment of the study took four weeks, one session every week. After the treatment, posttest 1 was administered to both groups in order to investigate the students' immediate vocabulary learning in two different conditions, with and without language games. After two weeks posttest 2 was administered to both groups to determine the delayed effect of learning again with and without the treatment. Four weeks after the second posttest –six weeks after the completion of the course- the third posttest was administered to determine the participants' ability of retention in both groups. Analyzing the data revealed that the effect of the game-like activities was more significant in the delayed time than the immediate one.

Index Terms—language games, cooperative learning, retention

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the most important issues in second language teaching and learning is vocabulary learning and perhaps one of the most difficult aspects of learning a second language is the retention of learned vocabularies (Holden, 1999).

What is the best way to teach vocabulary has always been one of the controversial issues in language teaching (Coady& Huckin, 1997). Teachers always disagreed about how to include vocabulary teaching in their instructional programs. According to Hatch and Brown (1995), there are numerous types of approaches, techniques, exercises and practice that can be used to teach vocabulary, but teachers should decide what types would be best for their students and their circumstances. In this regard, Rivers (1981) mentioned:

"as language teachers, we must arouse interest in words a certain excitement in personal development in this area… we can help our students by giving them ideas on how to learn vocabulary and some guide on what to learn" (p. 463).

Rivers (1981) further added that in order to decide which technique to use, the teacher should see whether the chosen technique a) achieves the objectives, b) maintain the interest and enthusiasm of the learner and c) suits to all types of students.

Some researchers such as Nguyen and Khuat (2003) and Uberman (1998) have shown that students are tired of learning vocabulary in traditional methods such as rehearsing, writing words on papers or learning passively through teacher's explanations, and this has created severe problems with learning skills. Nguyen and Khuat (2003) believe Students prefer to learn language in a relaxed environment such as vocabulary games. They believe that in an interesting and communicative class learners can learn 80 percent of what they exposed to.

According to Freeman (1986), learners enjoy language games they enjoy communicative involvement in the classroom. He believes that games can provide a healthy and constructive competition. Games can encourage learners discovering and voluntary involvement to the learning process, it can also establish a better bonding between teacher and learners. Finally a good designed language games can create a real communication context in the classroom which can help learners to improve their speaking ability.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Although vocabulary teaching and learning were ignored, to a great extent, in certain methods of language teaching for some decades, there is now a widespread agreement upon the need for language learners to improve their knowledge of vocabulary (Coady and Huckin, 1997). Channell (1998) stated that vocabulary teaching should be viewed as a separate area in teaching a foreign language because vocabulary is vital for improving language proficiency. Also Carter (1992, pp. 152-153) found "the need for much more vocabulary to be taught and learned as a separate activity rather than, say, part of a grammar or reading lesson".

Laufer (1997) also argues that if fluency is understood as the "ability to convey a message with ease and comprehensibility", then vocabulary adequacy and accuracy matter more than grammatical correctness. According to

Freeman (1986) language games have real life communication features because the players are required to exchange ideas with each other and also they will have the opportunity to receive immediate feedback from their playmates and also their teacher. "Games can lower anxiety, this making the acquisition of input more likely" (Richard, Amato, 1988, p. 147). According to Hansen (1994) one of the advantage of the language game is that it can provide opportunity for shy students to involve voluntarily in classroom activities.

Lee (1996) lists some advantages of language games such as "a welcome break from the usual routine of the language class", "motivating and challenging", "effort of learning" and "language practice in the various skills" (p. 35).

Abdikhah (1998) states from the psychological point of view, games have many benefits. They can reduce inhibition of the learners especially if they are cooperating in the games not competing. The shy and timid students who do not show any tendency to participate in class works will feel more at ease and will participate more freely. According to Nguyen and Khuat (2003), using games provides a relax and fun environment for learners, therefore, help them to learn better. They believe learners interested in friendly competition which motivate them to voluntarily involvement in the classroom tasks.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Purpose and Significance of the Study

Learning vocabulary is a part of learning any language, one should think of the way to achieve that goal. The traditional methods for learning unknown vocabularies have not been so successful and students as well as teachers are tired of the routine ways of teaching words. Learners also tend to be autonomous in their learning and they want to have control in their leaning.

Thus this study tries to help access better ways of learning and retaining words. One way is reinforcing vocabulary through games which helps learners develop and use words in different contexts. By using language games students can get rid of boring classrooms.

It should be noted that long-term retrieval of learned vocabularies is very important, so the delayed as well as the immediate effects are factors which will be tested in this study to know if game-like activities are superior to traditional non-communicative activities in the long-term retrieval of vocabulary items. This gains significance because all attempts should consider recalling vocabulary in the long run otherwise it is useless to try to figure out the best ways to teach vocabulary since long-term recall acts as an indispensible part of learning vocabulary.

Also applying language games in class has pedagogical applications for students, teachers and text book developers. Teachers can use game as "teaching device". They find game as an interesting activity to attract students to learning process also rejecting some teachers' opinions regarding "game" as time-killing activity. As well as teachers, students benefits from language games. Students feel comfortable communicating their peers therefore there would be a sound competition among them. Finally, text book developers can select and integrate various types of the games in the syllabus of the course books.

Therefore, the present study aims to answer the following research question:

Does using language games have any significant effect on vocabulary retention of Iranian elementary EFL learners?

B. Participants

The total number of participants was 32 female students, selected from among language learners at a private Language Institutes in Iran, Sari ranged from 11 to16 years old. Based on the institutes' placement test, students who were enrolled at elementary level class were selected for the study.

C. Instrumentations

In this study four instruments were used: a homogenizing test and three vocabulary tests. A nelson English language test was administered to both group to make us sure that all of the participant are at the same level of proficiency. The reliability of the homogenizing test was .82 according to Kuder-Richardson 21 formula. Three vocabulary tests, each of them included 20 multiple-choice items. The first vocabulary test was considered as the immediate posttest to check the participants' short term learning. The reliability of the first posttest was .71 according to Kuder-Richardson 21 formula. The second and the third vocabulary tests were administered in order to measure the groups' vocabulary long term recall. The reliability of the tests according to Kuder- Richardson 21 was .76 and .73 for posttest 2 and 3 respectively. The total score of each of the vocabulary tests was 20, since each test had 20 items; one point was given to each item. So the scores of the test were between 0 and 20. These tests were piloted on the elementary level in another institute and the IF & ID of this test were already done by the institute administrators, they had optimal IF & ID.

D. Procedure

At first, Nelson English language test consist of 50 multiple choice item was administered to three different elementary level classes in order to homogenizing the participants. This was done by calculating the descriptive statistics of the data. Thirty two participants whose score was two standard deviation above and below the mean were selected for the study. The selected students were randomly divided into control and experimental group. As the whole number of students chosen were thirty two, so two groups of sixteen participants were assigned.

In order to select unfamiliar vocabularies, sixty five elementary level words were given to both groups. The participants were asked to underline the familiar words and write down their Persian equivalent. There were fifty two words which learners could not recognize their meaning. So these words were selected for the study. Since the participants didn't familiar with the selected words, the scores of participants were zero before the treatment in the both groups.

Both groups learned 52 new vocabularies in 4 sessions each session 13 new words. Students in experimental groups were exposed a game every session. Four games were used: the definition game, half a crossword, cross them out, making sentences. Every session, according to the need of the game the researcher divided the students (experimental group) into the groups of 2, 3, etc. then she explained clearly the rules and the time of the game to the groups to that all the participants know well what they are going to do.

Each game had its own special characteristics so that the students had to act differently in each game. For example: The Half a Crossword game. The teacher divided the participants into two groups of eight. Every group had a crossword which half of it was filled with the information which was unknown to the other group. Then the students in a group helped the other groups to find the intended word and fill the puzzle, through definitions, making examples, etc. while the other group discussed and cooperated with each other to find the intended word. It was interesting that everyone in the group had some information about the intended word so all of them attended in the game to help the other group recognize the word. Finally if the group could not find the word in the determined time (e.g. five minutes), it lost a point and the other group announced the intended word. The group with the most points was winner. In fact the students attended in a friendly competition and the researcher wrote their results on the board and announced the winners and the losers.

The control group learned the new words through traditional method of vocabulary teaching such as definition, synonyms, antonyms, drills, doing fill-in-the- blanks etc.

At the end of the treatment the first post test was held to find out whether teaching English vocabulary through game-like activities are superior to more traditional from focused method of teaching, in an immediate time. The result was obtained. Two weeks after the second posttest was held to find out whether teaching English vocabulary through game-like activities are superior to more traditional from focused method of teaching, in a delayed time. And four weeks after the second posttest, the third posttest was given to investigate the long term vocabulary recall in both groups. The data were collected in the three posttests to compare the groups' scores.

IV. RESULTS

A. Results of the Homogenizing Test

At the beginning of the study, the researchers administered a Nelson test to 45 participants. This test was administered to homogenize the participants; its results are indicated in the following tables:

Statistics

		group 1 in nelson test	group 2 in nelson test	group 3 in nelson test
N	Valid	14	19	12
	Missing	5	0	7
Mean		34.2857	34.2105	33.9167
Std. Error of Mean		2.63832	2.41895	2.98343
Median		33.5000	37.0000	37.0000
Mode		21.00	45.00	19.00
Std. Deviation		9.87170	10.54398	10.33492
Variance		97.451	111.175	106.811

One-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
group 1 in nelson test	14	34.2857	9.87170	2.63832
group 2 in nelson test	19	34.2105	10.54398	2.41895
group 3 in nelson test	12	33.9167	10.33492	2.98343

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0					
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
group 1 in nelson test	12.995	13	.000	34.28571	28.5860	39.9855
group 2 in nelson test	14.143	18	.000	34.21053	29.1285	39.2926
group 3 in nelson test	11.368	11	.000	33.91667	27.3502	40.4832

As we can see in the tables, 32 participans were selected for the study, five participants in class 1 and seven participants in class 3 whose scores were two stsndard deviation above and below the mean were ommited from the study.

B. Results of the Posttests

Statistics

		exp group in post test 1	control group in post test 1	exp group in post test 2	control group in post test 2	exp group in post test 3	control group in post test 3
N	Valid	16	16	16	16	16	16
	Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean		16.0000	14.2500	15.6875	12.1875	15.0625	10.7500
Std. Error of Mean		.75829	.70415	.81506	.43987	.72151	.47871
Median		16.0000	14.0000	15.0000	12.5000	15.0000	11.0000
Mode		15.00a	14.00a	15.00	10.00a	14.00a	10.00a
Std. Deviation		3.03315	2.81662	3.26024	1.75950	2.88603	1.91485
Variance		9.200	7.933	10.629	3.096	8.329	3.667

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

According to the above tables, the mean of the control group is 14.25 and the mean of the experimental group is 16 in posttest 1. It shows that the experimental group was superior to the control group in posttest 1.

In order to check the participants' ability of the retention of vocabulary after a period of time another posttest was administered after two weeks The mean scores for the posttest 2 of the groups were 15.69 and 12.19 for experimental and control group respectively, which shows a decrease from posttest 1 to posttest 2 for both groups but the decrease was higher for control group.

The mean scores of the groups in the posttest 3 were 15.6 for experimental and 10.75 for the control groups. The results of the third posttest shoes the decrease in the means of both groups and again the decrease was less for experimental group. It shows that the control group lost most of their vocabulary knowledge over time but the experimental group did not.

INDEPENDENT SAMPLE *T*-TEST FOR POSTTEST 1

	t-test for Equality of Means							
	t	df	Sig.	Mean Differences	Std. Error Differences	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences		
							lower	upper
Equal variances Assumed	1.69	30	.102	1.75	.06	loilioio	-.36	3. 86
Equal variances not assumed	1.69	30	.102	1.75	.21		-.37	3.87

The above table shows the independent sample *t*-test of the posttest 1.The *t*-observed value was 1.69. This amount of *t*-value was lower than critical *t*-value, (2.02), therefore the difference between two means of groups obtained from the first posttest in not statistically significant, indicating the fact that two groups were not very much different at posttest 1. The sample *t*-test for equality of means shows that significant value was .102 which is greater than p= .05, so there was no significant difference between the two groups in posttest 1.

INDEPENDENT SAMPLE *T*-TEST FOR POSTTEST 2

	t-test for Equality of Means							
	t	df	Sig.	Mean Differences	Std. Error Differences	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences		
							lower	upper
Equal variances Assumed	4.98	30	.001	4.31	.24	loilioio	2.54	6.08
Equal variances not assumed	4.98	30	.000	4.31	.24		2.53	6.09

INDEPENDENT SAMPLE *T*-TEST FOR POSTTEST 3

	t-test for Equality of Means							
	t	df	Sig.	Mean Differences	Std. Error Differences	95% Confidence Interval of the Differences		
							lower	upper
Equal variances Assumed	3.78	30	.001	3.5	.38	Loilioio	1.60	5.39
Equal variances not assumed	3.78	30	001	3.5	.38		1.58	5.41

The *t*- observed values were 3.87 and 4.98 in the posttest 2 and posttest 3 respectively. This amount of *t*-value was higher than the critical *t*-value, (2.02), The sample *t*-test for equality of means shows that significant value was .001 in both posttest 2 and 3, which is less than p= .05, (P=.008< .05. 79) , so there was a significant difference between the two groups in post-test 2 and 3. Therefore, participants in experimental group outperformed those in control group.

V. DISCUSSION

This study tries to find out whether language games are useful techniques in English vocabulary teaching in Iranian learners. Social interaction in game-like activities provides the students opportunities to get help and support, let them participate in authentic communication, cooperate with each other, increase their self-esteem, show a greater willingness to interact with their peers.

Regarding this study, while student are interacting with each other in a vocabulary game they have mutual orientations to achieve a goal which is finding the new word and defeating the other group. In fact they are unconsciously motivated towards cooperating and consulting (speaking each other and using vocabulary and phrases) to win against the other group. Even weak students are engaged in the activity because there is no need to be afraid of grades and teacher just monitors students and announces the winners and losers. Students' attempts in finding the correct answer in a vocabulary game engage them in a social interaction. Interacting in vocabulary game-like activities, students are removed from nervous pressures of being observed so their ability to learn and recall vocabulary items will be increased. Students of the groups try to discover the unknown vocabulary items by negotiating each other which automatically increases students' cooperation. These outcomes are highly valued by constructivist theorists, who believe that social interaction is critical to learning.

Game is one of those activities which include all the mentioned conditions. Many students learn best when they are not encountering a direct or explicit teaching. They are most interested in being involved in accomplishing something via the language and therefore have a personal interest in the outcome of what they are using the language to do.

In learning vocabulary through language games, peers have opportunities to pursue common goal which is finding the exact vocabulary item that is merely known by one student whom helps his/her peers when they are at the zone of proximal development (students in a group have information about the intended meaning but they don't know the exact word). People in a group have different ideas about the entity of the intended word but they help (scaffold) each other and reach consensus through discussion.

All the mentioned points imply that games are beneficial in language learning, while traditional from-focused are not that most effective because they lack some features of the game. Some of them are mentioned below.

Traditional classroom activities mostly emphasize grammar rules (forms). Teacher in these classes imagine that learning the grammar is equated with learning the language while students are not pleased with grammar. But in communicative approaches such as games, the emphasis is on the meaning and students feel free to interact.

Most of the traditional classroom activities consist of many drills which emphasize accuracy and consume a lot of time but communicative activities develop communication skills which stress fluency.

The teacher governing the traditional classroom activities corrects students' mistakes when they've made it but in communicative approach it is believed that students should comminute each other. They claim when students are able to communicate, their mistakes will be corrected automatically.

Finally in classes conducting mainly through traditional beliefs in learning, teachers are the sole knowledgeable person who decide what and how activities should be done in class, ignoring students' capabilities, interests, needs, etc. but in communicative- based classes, teachers just monitor the class while caring students not spoil the class. Teacher involves students in class, caring they needs, interests, etc. and students are comfortable drawn to the learning.

All this points imply that language games are superior to the traditional methods of teaching. But it should be clarified whether there is different between language games and traditional methods of teaching vocabulary, in retention. According to Nation (2001):

A word may be noticed and its meaning comprehended in the textual input to the task, through teacher explanation or dictionary use. If that word is subsequently retrieved during the task then the memory of that word will be strengthened (p.69).

According to this theory, students should practice the learned materials; otherwise, they will easily fade away. Haycraft (1978) claims that "a large variety of word games that are 'useful for practicing and revising vocabulary after it has been introduced" (citied in Uberman, 1998).

The result of this study which confirm Nation's theory have shown that language games are suitable means for teaching vocabulary and they are effective techniques helping students' retention and cause them recall vocabulary items for a longer time.

VI. CONCLUSION

What has been concerned in this research was whether or not using language games can make any effect on the improvement of elementary EFL Iranian learners' vocabulary retention.

To assure and determine any significant change on the improvement of our groups of subjects after receiving treatment, the results of performance of each group were analyzed at the three posttests.

It revealed that the vocabulary knowledge of the both groups improved after four sessions of instruction and although the improvement in the experimental group was higher than the control group but the difference between groups was not very significant. Analyzing the results of the delayed posttests showed that the vocabulary knowledge of both groups decreased from posttest 1 to posttest 2 and 3 but the decrease was greater in the control group. It means that the

participants in the experimental group were able to recall the vocabularies more than control group over time. In other words, it can be concluded that using language games has very significant effect in vocabulary retention and recall of the participants. In addition, the results of posttests enabled the researcher to reject the null hypothesis and therefore the research question was answered appropriately.

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Marzieh Taheri is an MA graduate student in TEFL at University of Garmsar, Iran. She was born in Mazandaran, Iran. She received her BA in English translation in 2007 from Qaemshahr University, Mazandaran, Iran. She is currently teaching English in schools, Azad and Payam-e- nur universities in Mazandaran. Her area of interest includes language teaching and learning techniques and strategies.

A Critical Discourse Analysis of Self-presentation through the Use of Cognitive Processes Associated with We

Inès Ghachem

Department of English, Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Sfax, Tunisia

Abstract—This article explores the relationship between discourse structures and self-presentations in mediatised political discourse. By drawing on critical discourse analysis and transitivity from Halliday's systemic functional linguistics, the article analyses transitivity patterns and more specifically the cognitive process types. This paper illustrates how the use of cognitive process and the four moves in the ideology square are affected by the fact that the articles were written by politicians to be published in the media. The two articles analysed are newspaper articles jointly written by Heads of State. The analysis of the use of cognitive process types reveals positive self-presentation through fostering a representation of controversy-free experience and vision of the issues raised.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, cognitive process types, mediatised political discourse, negative other-presentation, positive self-presentation

I. INTRODUCTION

This study draws on critical discourse analysis (hereafter CDA) and on tools from Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth SFL) to analyse self-representation in mediatised political discourse. The data analysed consists of two articles. The first article (A1) dating April 15th, 2011 was written by President Barack Obama, PM David Cameron and the French president Nicolas Sarkozy. The second article (A2) was written by the USA president Barack Obama and the British Prime Minister David Cameron for the British newspaper The Times dating May 24th, 2011. Both the context and the genre of the data analysed were taken into account in this CDA analysis of self-presentation. The analysis starts from the fact that We/Us are not one person to analyse the use of cognitive process in self-presentation. Hence, this piece of research analyses not only how the writers of the two articles present Us, but also the backgrounding of differences through answering the following questions:
   - What does the cognitive process used reveal about the writers' experience of what they write about?
   - In the 'absence' of Them, how are We presented?
   - What does the absence of "we think" tell about the kind of world the writers write about?
These questions are answered building on the analysis of the transitivity patterns in the data and more specifically the cognitive processes used. The Heads of State's use of cognitive process associated with *we* unveils their expressions of their experience of the worlds around them and how they present themselves and the others.

In addition to the introduction and the conclusion, this article is made up of three sections. The first section provides a short survey of the theoretical background on which this study draws. From SFL, transitivity is reviewed as the analytical tool used in the analysis of self-presentation. The next section presents the data analysed with reference to the context in which the articles were written. The fourth section is the discussion of the findings within the theoretical framework reviewed in the following section.

II. THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

This piece of research does not aim at theorising about the concepts it cites. Accordingly, this section provides a short review of the concepts drawn upon to answer this study's research questions and interpret its findings.

A. Critical Discourse Analysis

Though in different terms, and from different points of view, most of us deal with power, dominance, hegemony, inequality, and the discursive processes of their enactment, concealment, legitimation and reproduction. And many of us are interested in the subtle means by which text and talk manage the mind and manufacture consent, on the one hand, and articulate and sustain resistance and challenge, on the other. (Van Dijk, 1993, p. 132 quoted in Titscher et al., 2007, p. 147)

Critical discourse analysis, also called critical discourse studies, is a field of multidisciplinary research. T. A. Van Dijk's quote points to one of the distinctive features of CDA. CDA includes approaches that share common concerns which they tackle from different perspectives. Van Dijk's quote also highlights the importance of CDA in the analysis

of discourse understanding and production and how it relates discourse and society. Literature on CDA, its origins, principles and ongoing development include Chouliaraki and Fairclough (2005), Fairclough (1992, 1997, 2003), Fairclough and Wodak (1997), Van Dijk (1993, 1995, 2001) and Titscher et al. (2007), Wodak and Chilton (2005) and Wodak and Meyer (2004) among others.

In their *Discourse and Late Modernity*, Chouliaraki and Fairclough (2005) locate CDA in critical social science and critical research on social change in contemporary society. Their view is that both fields affected and at the same time are affected by CDA. In fact, this dialectical relationship is characteristic of CDA as it draws on other fields of research and schools of thought and at the same time it contributes to them. Critical linguistics and SFL are two other fields that CDA is influenced by and to which CDA studies bring more insight (Fowler, 1998; Fairclough & Wodak, 1997; Wodak & Meyer, 2004; Matthiessen, 2009).

B. The Contextual Strategy of Positive Self-presentation and Negative Other-presentation

Positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation are two complementary strategies (Van Dijk, 1993). These two strategies focus on participants as social groups rather than individuals (Van Dijk, 2009). According to Oktar (2001, p. 344) ideology is an important "determining factor in the organization of discourse in terms of social representation of us versus them; that is, what we are, what we typically do, what our aims and values are in relation to them, and what they are, what they typically do, what their aims and values are in relation to us."

The analysis of ideological square which is made of these four moves (Oktar, 2001, p. 319)

1. Express/emphasize information that is 'positive' about us.
2. Express/emphasize information that is 'negative' about them.
3. Suppress/de-emphasize information that is 'positive' about them.
4. Suppress/de-emphasize information that is 'negative' about us.

is part of what Van Dijk sees as the need "to relate properties of discourse with these underlying, socially shared, representations, which group members use as a resource to talk about (members) of other groups"(Van Dijk, 2009, p. 78).

In this study, the analysis of the use of cognitive processes associated with 'we' reveals not only how the writers categorise Us and Them, but also their judgement of Us as good and Them as bad.

C. Political Discourse/Media Discourse: Mediatised Political Discourse

The emergence of medialized politics is sometimes seen as the colonization of politics by the media, and sometimes seen as the colonization of the media by politics.

Fairclough (1995, p. 200)

In addition to the impact of context on discourse production and understanding there is genre. Fairclough's (1995) quote points to mediatised political discourse as the outcome of belonging to the two genres of media discourse and political discourse. This is the case of the article analysed in this piece of research. Since it was written by two Heads of State it is political discourse and since it was published in a newspaper it is media discourse.

For Fairclough, what is crucial is that the "genres of mass media do not at all neatly correspond to the genres of politics, and this lack of fit is a source of constant tension and difficulty for politicians" (1995, p. 184). Fairclough refers to the tension the genres of media and politics and their manifestation in politicians' work on self-presentation (image) in the media. From another perspective, writing about language in the news, Fowler sheds light on the status of the news as "an industry with its own commercial self-interest" (1998, p. 2) which from a media perspective rules its relation to politics and society.

The argument that "because the institutions of news reporting and representation are socially, economically and politically situated, all news is always reported from some particular angle" (Fowler, 1998, p. 10) is refers to what media and discourse share something in common: representation. In other words, there is no neutral writing and media discourse is an interpretation of reality rather than a mere representation (Macdonald, 2003). Fowler's view is that events and ideas cannot ne communicated neutrally "because they have to be transmitted through some medium with its own structural features, and these structural features are already impregnated with social values which make up a potential perspective on events" (1998, p. 27).

D. Transitivity Analysis

CDA is not only about connecting between discourse and society, but also is concerned with the actual analysis of the discourse itself: "[c]ritical discourse analysis is very much about making connections between social and cultural structures and processes on the one hand, and properties of text on the other" (Fairclough and Wodak, 1997, p. 277). This second task is carried out through using tools from, for example, SFL. Given that this article examines self representation, it looks at transitivity. Literature about SFL and its development out of Firthian linguistics include Halliday (1994), Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) and Halliday and Webster (2009). According to Halliday's SFL, language simultaneously and continuously performs three functions. Transitivity analysis falls within the ideational metafunction; how meaning is embodied in the clause through language users' expressions of their experience of the worlds around them. Transitivity is a semantic concept that refers to the way meaning is represented in a clause. Transitivity analysis reflects not only the ideas expressed in the clause, but also the participants world views: "one and

the same text may offer alternative models of what would appear to be the same domain of experience" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 173).

The following is a short summary of the three main types of process in the transitivity system in addition to three others standing on the interface:

1. Material clauses are concerned with participants' experience of the material world and have the structure of Actor + Material process + Goal. The Actor is the participant that brings about through time change leading to an outcome which is different from the initial stage of the action. The second participant, the Goal, is an inherent participant in transitive clauses. Other participants associated with material processes are Scope, Recipient, Client and Attribute. Examples of material clauses in the article are:

A2: So as [Actor:] we [Process: material:] meet [Goal:] today, facing immense economic, social and strategic challenges, it is natural that once again [Actor:] our two nations [Process: material:] join [Goal:] together in common cause.

A1: [Actor:] Britain, France and the United States [Process: material:] will not rest [Goal:] until the United Nations Security Council resolutions have been implemented and the Libyan people can choose their own future.

2. Mental clauses are concerned with participants' experience of the world. In mental clauses the Senser is the participant "endowed with consciousness" (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 201) and the Phenomenon is the thing, the fact or the act that is sensed. As for the types of sensing there are four sub-types: perceptive, cognitive, desiderative and emotive. Examples of verbs serving as Process in mental clauses in the article are:

A2: [Senser:] We want [Process: mental:emotive:] to encourage [Phenomenon:] more of this exchange of capital, goods and ideas.

A1: [Senser:] We [Process:mental: cognitive:] know [Phenomenon:] from bitter experience what that would mean.

3. Relational clauses serve through processes of being and processes of having. Of the type '*x* is *a*', '*x* has *a*' or '*x* is at *a*' (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 216), relational clauses can be attributive where '*a* is an attribute of *x*' or identifying where '*a* is the identity of *x*'. Examples of relational clauses from the article are:

A2: Now [Token:] we [Process:relational: identifying:] are [Value:] two different countries || but [Token:] our destination [Process: relational:identifying:] must be [Value:] the same: strong and stable growth, reduced deficits and reform of our financial systems - so that they will never again be open to the abuses of the past.

A2: Yes, [Carrier:] we [Process: relational: attributive:] are [Attribute:] mindful of the risks || and [Attribute:] aware of the uncertainties.

4. Besides there are three processes located at the boundaries between the three above process types. Behavioural clauses are placed between mental and material clauses. Behavioural processes are processes of typical human behaviour (physiological and psychological). The participant associated with behavioural processes is the Behaver. Verbal clauses are clauses of saying and are located between relational and mental process. The participants associated with verbal processes are the Sayer and the addressee of the Verbiage is the Receiver. Existential clauses from their part, "construe a participant [the Existent] involved in a process of being" (Martin et al., 1997, p. 109) and are located between material and relational process. Examples of these three process types are:

A2: [Behaver:] We [Process: behavioural:] look at [Behaviour:] the world in a similar way

A2: So this week [Sayer:] we [Process: verbal:] will reaffirm [Verbiage:] our commitment to strong collaboration between our universities and research facilities.

A2: But [Existent:] we [Process: existential:] stand together, optimistic and confident

III. CORPUS DESCRIPTION

The corpus analysed consists of two articles written by more than one Head of State:

- A1 is the only article jointly written by President Barack Obama, PM David Cameron and the French president Nicolas Sarkozy. The full article posted on number10.gov counts 791 words. A1 appeared April 15th, 2011 on the International Herald Tribune and other media as an editorial jointly written by Barack Obama, David Cameron and Nicolas Sarkozy dealing with the events in Libya. Table 2 displays details about A1.

- A2 is to date the only article jointly written by just Barack Obama and David Cameron. The article can be accessed online on three websites two of which offer free access. The full article posted on number10.gov counts 1168 words. Table 3 displays details about A2 in each of the three sites. A2 is an article that President Barack Obama and PM David Cameron have written for the Times newspaper. The newspaper article was written on the occasion of President Obama's second official state visit to the UK which was 24-26 May 2011. The first visit Obama did to the UK was in 31 March - 2 April 2009 when Gordon Brown was the PM which means that the May 2011 visit is the first visit since David Cameron became PM.

Below is a short presentation of the three Heads of State: (until 2013)

TABLE 1
A SHORT PRESENTATION OF THE THREE HEADS OF STATE

	Barack Obama	David Cameron	Nicolas Sarkozy
Political position	The 44th USA president	The UK's Prime Minister	The 23rd president of France
Political party	The Democratic Party (DP)	The Conservative Party (CP)	The Union for a Popular Movement
Terms in office	First term: 2008-2012 Second term: 2012-	First term: 2010-	One term: 2007-2012
Distinctive information	The first African American president in the history of the USA.	• The youngest British PM since 1812. • Leads a Conservative / Liberal Democrat coalition government	The first president to serve only one term in more than thirty years.

TABLE 2
DETAILS ABOUT A1

Title	Place of publication	Date of publication
Pathway to peace	The official site of the British PM's office at: http://www.number10.gov.uk/news/joint-article-on-libya-the-pathway-to-peace/	Friday 15 April 2011
Pathway to peace	The New York Times site at: http://www.nytimes.com/2011/04/15/opinion/15iht-edlibya15.html?_r=0	April 15th, 2011

TABLE 3
DETAILS ABOUT A2

Title	Place of publication	Date of publication
Not just special, but an essential relationship	The Times website at: http://www.thetimes.co.uk/tto/opinion/columnists/article3033133.ece	Tuesday May 24th, 2011
An essential relationship	The official site of the British PM's office at: http://www.number10.gov.uk/news/prime-minister-and-president-obama-article-an-essential-relationship/	Monday May 23rd, 2011
An essential relationship	The BCP 's official website at: http://www.conservatives.com/News/Articles/2011/05/David_Cameron_and_President_Obama_an_essential_relationship.aspx	Tuesday May 24th, 2011

IV. FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

This present piece of research aims to carry a critical discourse analysis of a mediatised political discourse through the analysis of the transitivity patterns used and more specifically focus on cognitive processes. The first step in the analysis of self-presentation in the corpus is the definition of what 'we' refers to. When the absence of 'I' is expected in articles written by more than one person, 'we' has more than one reference. The terms 'inclusive we' and 'exclusive we' are used following Levinson's (1989) definition. With reference to studies about the uses of 'we' (Levinson, 1989; Zupnik, 1994), in A1 there are:
- The inclusive we:
○ The writers writing on behalf of:
▪ Their respective countries (*our countries*, *Britain*, *France and the United States*).
▪ Others (*NATO allies and coalition partners*, *Europe*, *the region*, *the world*)
- The exclusive we:
○ The writers only write about themselves: we.
○ The United States, France and Britain.
In A2, however, there are:
- The inclusive we:
○ The writers and the newspaper readers.
○ The writers writing on behalf of:
▪ Their respective governments (*our actions*, *our efforts*).
▪ Their respective countries (*our two nations*, *the United Sates and Britain*).
▪ Others (*people around the world*).
- The exclusive we:
○ The writers only write about themselves: Barack Obama and David Cameron (*both of us*).
○ British and Americans (*our two leaders at the time*, *our interests and values*).
Among the uses of the inclusive *we*, it is not probable that it refers to the newspaper. The political position of the two writers does not categorise them in the same group as newspaper journalists since in newspapers journalists use *we* with reference to their status as members of the newspaper. Such use of *we* is also understood with reference to with whom *we* are related. Extract from A1 and A2, Figures 1 and 2 schematise to whom We are and the other partners with whom *we* relates. Fig. 2 schematises most of the links established in A2 among *we* and with whom it is related. The three circles in the Fig. 2 shows three spheres. Two of them, group "both of us", "we", "our people" and "us". The wider sphere includes those presented as related to "we". The net of ties end up liking "both of us" and "we" to the "world". In sum, those included in A2 presents *we* as relating to friends and foes. A similar conclusion is drawn from Fig. 1

where although the writers do not refer to themselves in person, *we* on the one hand related to e.g. "the UN" and "the international community" and on the other hand to "Colonel Qadhafi".
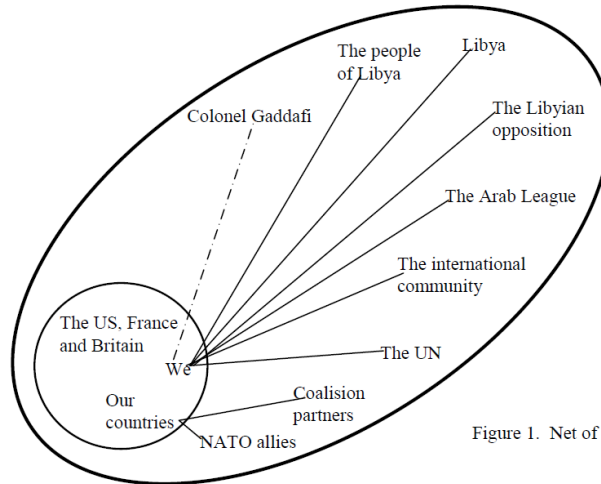
Figure 1. Net of ties related to *we* in A1
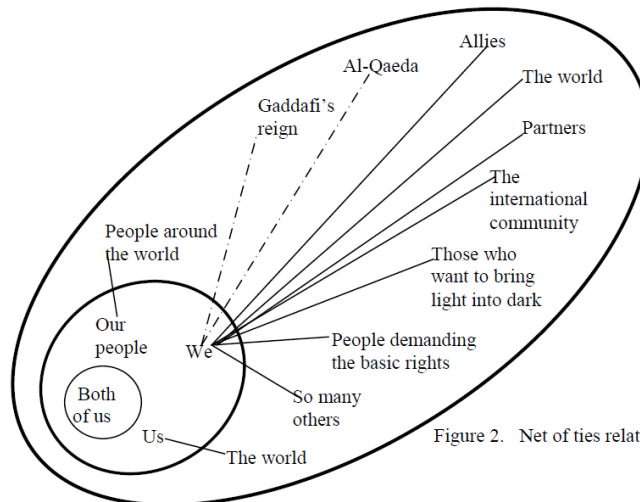
Figure 2. Net of ties related to *we* in A2

Building on how the writers categorise those they invoke in their article, the analysis of the process types associated with *we* serves to examine how Us are presented. Table 5 displays the uses of the six process types in A2 and shows that half of the 62 processes are material processes. Second in use are mental process types with 13 occurrences. In third place come relational process types with 12 occurrences. The three other process types have six occurrences. Among the mental process types used, cognitive process types are the most used. In A1, as Table 4 displays, out of the eleven process types used, nine are material and two are cognitive process types.

TABLE 4
TRANSITIVITY AND PRESENTATION IN A1

Process types	Relational		Material	Mental				Beh.	Ver.	Ext.	Total
Number of occurrences	Id.	Att.	9	Per.	Cog.	Des.	Emo.	0	0	0	11
	0	0		0	2	0	0				
	0			2							

TABLE 5
TRANSITIVITY AND PRESENTATION IN A2

Process types	Relational		Material	Mental				Beh.	Ver.	Ext.	Total
Number of occurrences	Id.	Att.	31	Per.	Cog.	Des.	Emo.	1	2	3	62
	8	4		5	7	0	1				
	12			13							

Note (in Table 4 and Table 5):
Id. = Identifying   Cog. = Cognitive   Beh. = Behavioural
Att. = Attributive   Des. = Desiderative   Ver. = Verbal
Per. = Perceptive   Emo. = Emotive   Ext. = Existential

In both A1 and A2 the writers use *we* with cognitive process types when presenting themselves with reference to past experience. In A2 (1) below, Barack Obama and David Cameron "recall" past memories "like so many others" which mean that they present them as a shared past experience by an inclusive *we*. The inclusive use of *we* fixes the writers, the readers and others within the same background knowledge about one specific historical era of which they share memories:

A1 (1) And because he has lost the consent of his people any deal that leaves him in power would lead to further chaos and lawlessness. We know from bitter experience what that would mean. Neither Europe, the region, or the world can afford a new safe haven for extremists.

A2 (1) Both of us came of age during the 1980s. Like so many others, we recall a turbulent decade that began with armies confronting each other across a divided Europe and ended with the Berlin Wall coming down, millions freed from the shackles of communism and human dignity extended across the continent.

In A1 (1) the knowledge on which Barack Obama, David Cameron and Nicolas Sarkozy build their understanding of the events is a knowledge *we* do not only share, but also agree on. In other words, past memories and experience are presented and used to understand present events and are also what highlights the positive image of *we* as sharing memories and experience as members of the inclusive *we*.

In **A2 (2)**, what "what we both need and what we both believe" is an argument which is presented as a fact stirring no disagreement or difference in interpretation:

A2 (2) It is a perfect alignment of what we both need and what we both believe. And the reason it remains strong is because it delivers time and again. Ours is not just a special relationship, it is an essential relationship - for us and for the world.

Barack Obama and David Cameron root the US-British relationship in what both sides 'need' and 'believe'. The association of need and believe shows the two writers as having a 'good' sense of judgement of what is needed and associate it is 'strong' belief in that it is what is needed. The use of belief and the commitment it expresses (Fetzer, 2008) presents the two Heads of State as two leaders having a strong commitment to the US-British relations. Moreover, the fact that the article appeared in a newspaper with 'Not just special, but an essential relationship' as headline refers to the concern with presenting and justifying (the use of because) their (Obama and Cameron's) vision of the kind of relationship the two countries enjoy.

The next use of cognitive process types like relates to current events and issues. With reference to the global economy and the economic situation since 2008, Obama and Cameron's attitude is that "our destination must be the same":

A2 (3) Governments do not create jobs: bold people and innovative businesses do. We know that our nations are self-reliant and infused with the entrepreneurial spirit.

The first clause in A2 (3) tells about the economic policy which the two Heads of State endorse. For Obama and Cameron the policy to face unemployment is one built on liberal economic management where job creation is the task of people and business and collaborations between the two countries. Such view is judged positive and fit for the two countries as the writers bring out the knowledge *we* have that "our nations are self-reliant and infused with the entrepreneurial spirit". Their knowledge is backed by an enumeration of the distinctive features of the economic foundations of the two economies which is part of presenting knowledge as facts and facts as knowledge the readers are introduced to or remembered of. Drawing on what *we* value reinforces not only the two Heads of State's own positive image but also that of the countries they lead.

Positive self-presentation through using cognitive processes relates to widening the scope the inclusiveness of *we*. In example A2 (4) the topic dealt with is security. Like the other topics dealt with in A1 and A2, current events are related to *us* though foregrounding what *our* positive values. In the time A2 was written (May 24th, 2011), the "death of Osama bin Laden" (May 2nd, 2011), the "events in the Arab world and Middle East" (starting in 2010) and "our actions in Libya" (starting March 19th, 2011) were the recent events and the events underway:

A2 (4) What we are seeing there is a groundswell of people demanding the basic rights, freedoms and dignities that we take for granted.

After enumerating what *we* did dealing with Al-Qaeda and its affiliates and "our mission in Afghanistan", Obama and Cameron turn to express what "we need to understand". What is noticed is that there are no cognitive processes used to express the writers' understanding of "those who wish to do us harm". With reference to Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, two of the sides to whom the writers 'relate' *we* are Al-Qaeda and Colonel Gaddafi's regime. These two sides make up

Them and since they are absent in the articles (in the sense that they are passive participants and not the writers) it is the three Heads of State who present them. What the others' presentation highlights is the threat Them present. Details foregrounded in A1 and A2 can be said to favour a particular understanding of Them. Them are framed as a threat which death, in the case of Bin Laden, is an occasion to reaffirm Our achievements.

Also categorised among Them is Colonel Gaddafi and his regime. The focus on the events in Libya and reference to Gaddafi as a Colonel whose regime is a threat to the Libyan people raises the following question: what do We have to do with the Libyan people and how is Colonel Gaddafi's regime a threat to Us (the USA, Britain and France)? The answer present in A1 and A2 is: ideology. Once grouped in the same category, both Al-Qaeda and Colonel Gaddafi's regime are presented as sharing one common feature: what they stand for is different from Ours. Them are presented as roadblocks to freedom. In terms of ideology, Al-Qaeda and its affiliates' "poisonous ideology and the violence that flows from it", the "narrative of separateness and victimhood that al-Qaeda's ideology feeds off" and Colonel Gaddafi's regime crashing people's aspirations leaves no room for a positive other-presentation. While the scope of endorsing Al-Qaeda's ideology is restricted to Them, the judgement and subsequent refusal of Their ideology is that of a wider group.

A1 (2) We must never forget the reasons why the international community was obliged to act in the first place. As Libya descended into chaos with Colonel Qadhafi attacking his own people, the Arab League called for action. The Libyan opposition called for help. And the people of Libya looked to the world in their hour of need.

The wide inclusiveness of *we* results in a wide Senser of the cognitive processes. In A1 (2) like with 'recall', the writers draw on the readers' knowledge to, first, relate with the audience on the same common ground knowledge, and , second, link the writers' positive imager to that of the readers'. Hence, what "We must never forget" is another example of Us growing to include the world and exclude Them. Facing Them, Our actions and use of force is presented as dictated by Our values and interests:

A2 (5) We are reluctant to use force but when our interests and values come together we know that we have a responsibility to act.

The justification the writers advance for using force first distinguishes them from the violence of Them and second favours an understanding that they act out of responsibility. In A2 and especially in A1, the focus on the recent event with the absence of what *we* think of *our* actions is compared to that focus on the positive results of *our* actions. We are the ones who judge what is 'good' and what is 'bad' which end up presenting Our actions as being 'good' and Theirs as 'bad'.

In A1 and A2, positive self-presentation leaves no room for disagreement. While negative other-presentation builds on their ideology and their actions, the use of force by *we* turns to be a source of negating negative self-presentation and turn it to a good thing *we* do. The analysis of cognitive process types unveils the writers' strategy in keeping the ideological polarisation between Us 'good' and Them as 'bad' as a kind of mental presentation *we* share and is undisputable.

'We think'

Another point that this study tackles is the absence of 'we think'. In both A1 and A2 the writers do not use the cognitive process type 'think' which raises the question: why is 'we think' absent?

In the interpretation of the absence of 'we think', I refer to two studies: Fetzer (2008) and Ghachem (2011). The following is a short summary of the findings of the two studies:

• With reference to the quantitative analysis of cognitive verbs (cf. Table 3, Fetzer, 2008, p. 392), the speaker's use of "I think" and its negative form is by far the most prominent use followed by "I believe" and its negative form. Second in number of occurrences is the use of think and believer to speak about what the others think and believe.

• The analysis of David Cameron's 2010 pre-election speeches (Ghachem, 2011) reveals that the most used process types are mental, then material then relational with the cognitive processes counting more than two third of the mental processes. In the use of mental processes when I (David Cameron) is the Senser it is linked with mental processes mainly of "believe", "think" and "want".

It is important to mention that the two studies referred to both analyse political discourse, yet they differ from this study in the sub-genre (spoken or written) and whose discourse is analysed. Nevertheless, the findings can be referred to in the sense that, like here, they analyse language use. Second, and to our knowledge; the absence of analysis of the discourse of the three Heads of State or two of them emphasis the analysis of their discourse with reference to how they use the language and more specifically cognitive process types.

In A1 and A2, the absence of 'we think' is seen keeping the ideological polarisation between Us and Them. The fact that the US president, the British PM and the French president belong to three political parties implies that they have different ideologies. The use of 'we think' may become ambiguous: of the three leaders' ideologies which one is presented? Second, as jointly writing, A1 and A2, how comes that they share everything including the same ideology? Within the scope of this present paper, the answer to these two questions relates to the use of cognitive process types associated with *we* and the absence of 'we think'. The absence of 'we think' can be interpreted in alignment with the conclusion drawn from such use of transitivity patterns i.e. the writers gives no signs of disagreement among themselves and leaves no room for the readers to disagree with their discourse and to judge what they think of as right or wrong. The three ideologies held by each of the three Heads of State are presented on the image of Us, one coherent and disagreement-free ideological group. The distinction draws is between Our ideology and Their ideology and not

between the ideologies within Us. The absence of 'we think' reflects an understanding that A1 and A2 are not about what in *inside* Us but rather the distinction and opposition of Us from/to Them. The absence of what We think of Them leads to no agreement or disagreement of what We think of Them so to judge Our actions as 'good' or 'bad'.

The second interpretation of the absence of 'we think' relate to *we*. In A1 and A2, if the three sides of *we* dismantle, then one would be Us and the others would be Them. Accordingly, to whom *we* relate in Fig.1 and Fig.2 would be different. The fact that A1 and A2 are jointly written avoids each of the three Heads of State involved facing each other. The result is their joint definition, categorisation and so presentation of Us and Them. Instead of facing each other, the writers clearly define Them as not We. The distinction of what *we* do and how they experience the world from the others' actions and ideology keeps with the separation of Us from Them. Besides, it is up to Us to present the others and what they are thought of. The writers do not shock the readers through negative self-presentation and positive other-presentation. Rather, they keep positive self-presentation through negative other-presentation and the absence of 'we think' avoids negative self-presentation.

Thus, the absence of what We think of and the few cognitive process types used are in tandem with pieces of writings written by more than one Head of State and are genre and context related. The reference to the context as well as the fact that both article were to appear in newspapers are important factors that affect the understanding and the subsequent interpretation of the two articles.

V. CONCLUSION

This article has attempted to analyse self-presentation in a political discourse written for the media. Working within CDA as the general theoretical framework, transitivity analysis of an article for the International Herald Tribune written by Barack Obama, David Cameron and Nicolas Sarkozy dating April 15th, 2011 and a second article for the Times written by Barack Obama and David Cameron dating May 24th, 2011 revealed a predominant use of material process compared to the other process types. The delineation of Us and Them categorises the writers as well as the readers (the immediate recipients of the discourse) in the same group. Each Head of State's distinctive understanding of the world are absent on the image of the few cognitive processes used. Presenting We as one coherent and dissidence-free group is built on sharing the same background and understanding of the world around them. Thus, while it is not clearly stated that We share the same ideology, the writers do not include what may be shocking to the readers. Besides, the inclusion of the world (except Them) in *we*, leaves no one to question Us or to disagree with what *we* think. The conclusion that can be drawn is that the absence of 'we think' means keeping the unity of Us in both their defence of universal democracy and facing Them. Accordingly, in A2 "we stand for something different" could not be understood to be the ideological differences between Barack Obama and David Cameron. In the absence of what we think of what we stand for, the US, the UK and France are positively presented taking for granted that there are no signs of struggle over power and dominance *within we*.

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Inès Ghachem was born in Mahdia, Tunisia. She holds an MA in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics from the Faculty of Letters and Humanities of Sfax (FLSHS), Tunisia. She is currently working on her PhD thesis for a PhD degree in Theoretical and Applied Linguistics from the FLSHS, Tunisia. Her research interests include Critical Discourse Studies, Mediatised Political Discourse Analysis and the relation between Discourse and Genre.

Language Theories and Language Teaching—from Traditional Grammar to Functionalism

Yanhua Xia

School of Foreign Languages, China West Normal University, Nanchong, China

Abstract—linguistic theories have greatly influenced language teaching theories in whatever stage they have been. By reviewing the three main stages of linguistic theories that have existed until now in the history of linguistics, this article has generalized the language teaching theories and the classroom characters resulted from them.

Index Terms—language theory, grammar translation method, audio-lingual method, communicative approach

It's universally acknowledged that any new language teaching theory cannot come into being without the break in linguistic theory first. And any generation of linguistic theory has brought about new language teaching theory as well. Until now, the theories of linguistics have mainly experienced three stages: traditional grammar, structuralism and functionalism. They are closely related to each other and generated the change of language teaching theories.

I. TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

A. Definition of Traditional Grammar

What is traditional grammar? This can be a hard question to answer. One opinion about traditional grammar is that it includes two concepts. One is narrow; another is broad. "Narrowly speaking, traditional grammar refers to the grammar theories originated from ancient Greece and Rome, which became popular in the end of the 18th century before the birth of historical comparative grammar and dominated the research of grammar and language teaching for a long time in Europe. It values the old language model, emphasizes written language, neglect oral language. It tries to purify language and settle language. So it's called prescriptive grammar, which was adopted by most school in their language class. In this case, it's called school grammar as well. Broadly speaking, traditional grammar includes the scholarly traditional grammar that originated from the end the 19th century as well. Some of this kind of grammar emphasizes the principal of historical comparative study of language; some emphasizes contemporary language phenomena. Generally speaking, both of them take the attitude of descriptivism, trying to describe the change of language and the use of language objectively." (Yin, 1990, p. 1)

Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics has given a similar definition: Traditional grammar is "a grammar which is usually based on earlier grammars of Latin or Greek and applied to some other language, often inappropriately". And it has given an example to illustrate this: "Some grammarians stated that English had six CASES because Latin had six cases. These grammarians were often notional and prescriptive in their approach. Although there has been a trend towards using grammars which incorporate more modern approached to language description and language teaching, some schools still use traditional grammars".

B. Grammar Translation Method

The direct influence language teaching received from traditional grammar theory is grammar translation method of language teaching. A typical lesson conducted under the guidance of this method bears the following characters:

(1) The ultimate purpose of foreign language teaching is to read materials written by foreign language, such as reading foreign classics, so written language is emphasized rather than oral language. The goal of foreign language learning is to translate that foreign language into one's mother tongue. If a student can do this, he or she has become successful in foreign language study.

(2) Because oral language ability is not the goal of this kind of teaching, it results in many learners who have learnt even more than ten years buy still couldn't use it to communicate with native speakers of the language he or she had learnt.

(3) Teachers are the absolute authorities in the class. Students are just absorbers, busy with writing down every detail of the knowledge teachers give them. The class is always teacher-centered.

(4) Langue form, i.e. grammar, is emphasized. Students are always encouraged to grasp this part. In order to make students understand this part clearly, teachers always use their native languages to conduct the lessons. They usually use example sentences to illustrate the grammar rules they have just taught, students are required to follow the example to make sentences by using the grammar.

(5) The contents of texts are usually neglected. Instead the texts are often used as the material for teachers to explain those long and detailed grammatical problems.

(6) Students are required to start to read classics at an early stage.

(7) Students usually only do one kind of exercise. That is translation.

C.   Evaluation of Grammar Translation Method

Today, when we look back to reevaluate grammar translation method again, it gets the following judgments:

(1) It exaggerated the function in the learning of a foreign language.

(2) It emphasized too much on the knowledge of language, ignored the training the language skills.

(3) The whole process of foreign language teaching is mechanical, out of the touch of real language environment, no practical meaning.

(4) It pays attention only to written language instead of spoken language.

Anyhow, people shall never forget that grammar translation method have already done so much for foreign language teaching. Its contribution is still great.

II.   STRUCTURALISM

A.   Why Did Structuralism Come into Being?

Some scholars gradually became not satisfied with structuralism when they got to see clearly about the flaws of traditional grammar. They thought it blocked the way of further research of language. It eventually would cause negative effect on language development and the development of linguistics. They looked for new approaches to language study, and this brought about structuralism (structural linguistics).

B.   What Is Structuralism?

According to *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, Structuralism is "an approach to linguistics which stresses the importance of language as a system and which investigates the place that linguistic unit such as sounds, words, sentenced have within this system".

Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure, called as the father of modern traditional linguist, is widely respected as the founder of structuralism. He is a major modern linguist who made preparations for structuralism. Saussure affirmed the validity and necessity of diachronic approaches used by former linguists and then introduced the new synchronic approach, drawing linguists' attention to the nature and composition of language and its constituent parts. That is to say, Saussure holds that language is a highly organic unity with internal and systematic rules.

III.   DIFFERENCED BETWEEN TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR AND STRUCTURALISM

If we study the two approaches carefully, we find they have the following differences:

(1) Traditional grammar consider written language to be the first place, spoken language the second. But for structuralism, it's just the opposite.

(2) Traditional grammar is prescriptive. It holds that pure language must be in accordance with grammar, otherwise it corrupts language. Structuralism is descriptive. They think if we want to study language, we must describe language first. Whether a language is pure or not is just a matter of how we set the criteria.

(3) Traditional grammar classifies languages into different levels according to their closeness to Latin. Latin and the language of classics are considered to be the perfect languages, the rest are languages of less perfection. Structuralism denies this. It considers any language of any nation of minority is kind of well-developed communication system.

(4) The description of languages by traditional grammar was a total mess. It often describes languages of different time together. Structuralism holds that only languages of the same time can be studied, it prefers diachronic study of languages.

(5) Traditional grammar does study about the inner part of languages independently, it does not view the different parts of a language are closely related with each other. Structuralism gives systematic study to all the layers of a language as a general principle.

(6) The description of language by traditional grammar is always subjective because its research is often based on the meaning rather than language form. However, structuralism gives objective description of language materials. Any subjective involvement in the description of language is not allowed.

From the above comparison, we can see that their differences are rather huge. Their difference has made us realized that it was basing on the total destroy of traditional grammar that structuralism came into being. It's more scientific than traditional grammar. It more objectively describes languages on a whole. Because of all these, it was welcomed by scholar since the end of the 19th century, and soon became popular in the whole world.

IV.   TWO SCHOOLS OF STRUCTURALISM

Structuralism has two schools, European school and American school. They are not quite the same. Let's have a look at them respectively.

A. European School

Saussure is considered to be the representative of the European school. His contribution mainly includes two aspects. On the one hand, he settled down the general direction of modern linguistics, made clear the essence of language and designed the tasks of linguistic research. Saussure's view that the meanings of words are to be understood through their relations to each other was quite opposed to the positivist method among dominant academicians in his day, he sought to understand language through analysis of sounds and their impact on the nervous system. On the other hand, several distinctions Saussure made laid down great foundation for later research. They are langue and parole, synchronically and diachronically (i.e. historically). Without making their relationships clear, the research of modern linguistics is likely to get back on the way of traditional grammar.

B. American School

Leonard Bloomfield is widely respected as one of the best linguists of the last century and one of the best of all time as well. He spent most of his time dealing with comparing and contrasting Germanic languages. His best know publication *Language* dealing with a standard text gave a tremendous influence on his contemporaries and followers. Until very recently most American linguists considered themselves Bloomfield's disciples in some sense. Whether they studied or learned from him or not, many of their linguistic works have taken the form of working out questions raised by Bloomfield. And methods they adopted are just those suggested by him too.

Bloomfield invented immediate constitute analysis (IC analysis) to dissect a sentence into small parts. e. g. for this sentence, handsome Jackie Chang is a famous actor. We can treat it in the following way by using IC analysis:

The first analysis: Handsome Jackie Chang/is a famous boxer.

The second analysis: Handsome // Jackie Chang/is a // famous boxer.

The third analysis: Handsome // Jackie Chang/is// a // famous// boxer.

If a sentence is longer, this process can continually go on. No matter how long a sentence is, by adopting IC analysis, it can be divided into the different smallest constitutes which make the sentence. In this way, the different constitutes of a sentence can be examined. And it proves that a language is a system of symbolic structures.

We have to consider a little bit about the research of the psychological fields at the beginning of the 20th century too. At that time, mentalism lead by W. Wundt was in a dilemma. Psychologists were thinking about a new theory to help psychology get out of the mud. Then, a psychological revolution launched by J. B. Watson established behaviorism to replace Wundt's mentalism. They argued that the acquirement of any knowledge involves direct experience: knowledge acquired only through objective and observable experiment can be reliable, otherwise not. Any feeling, impression is not to be dependent upon.

Bloomfield used behaviorism to guide his structuralist approach to language study, and audio-lingual language teaching method was brought forward.

V. AUDIO-LINGUAL LANGUAGE TEACHING METHOD

Different from grammar translation method discussed above, audio-lingual language teaching method treats language as a kind of human habit, it is the speech that is supposed to be spoken by language speakers rather than written out by them. So we need to teach language itself, not knowledge.

Usually, a language class conducted by way of Audio-lingual language teaching method has the following characters:

Drilling is a central technique. The study process of a foreign language is the process of habit forming. The first step is mimicking, and this process repeats constantly until a learner feels natural to speak out the sentence he or she is required to learn. That means the formation of a habit of saying such a sentence naturally. Teachers are required to guide students to practice the same sentence again and again until they finally get familiar with it. As for the dialogues and texts in the textbooks, students are required to read them again and again, until they could recite them. Communicative activities are achieved through a long, boring and repetitive process of rigorous drills and exercises.

One main teaching responsibility of the teacher is that he or she should try his or her best to prohibit students making mistakes. The existence of mistakes may stay in the habit, which is called mistake acquisition. So whenever a mistake is found out, the teacher should correct it at once.

Teachers play the role of a model for the target language; students should try their best to mimic the pronunciation and intonation of the teacher. Teachers are supposed to provide very standard, native-sound pronunciation and intonation of the target language. The primary goal of teaching is to secure formal correctness. Their native language habits are not supposed to be taken into the classroom, translation is forbidden at early stages.

Language materials are not shown to the students with nothing else. They are always shown in certain contexts. The teaching of grammar is conducted within dialogues. Grammatical explanation is often avoided. Varieties of language usage are recognized, but teachers don't emphasize this.

This method considers that every language has a certain amount of sentence patterns that help students form the habit of using it. The purpose of language teaching is to let students acquire these sentence patterns. They learn sentence structures before vocabulary. The introduction of new vocabulary is conducted through dialogues.

Teachers usually ask another question just after students have answered the former question. This is to help them form the mechanism of answering questions automatically.

Oral language is considered to be more important than written language, so oral practice is more emphasized in the whole course of teaching and learning. The natural order of foreign language study is listening goes before speaking. Speaking goes before reading, reading goes before writing.

The teaching of culture is separated from the teaching of language. Audio-lingual language teaching method prefers to regard language as a kind of habit. It also values the importance of culture and regards it as an inseparable part in the life of the native speakers of the target language. However, it does not involve cultural teaching into the teaching of the target language; teachers only introduce the cultural knowledge to the whole class.

To sum up, the final purpose of audio-lingual language teaching method is to train the students in the target language and let them have the ability to use it to communicate with the native speakers. A teacher acts as the conductor of an orchestra. Students follow the tapes or the model of the teacher to practice. The native language of the learners and the target language are of compared by the teacher, and this kind of comparison is to find the differences between the two languages. This is to reduce the disturbance that might come from their native language.

VI. Development of Linguistic Theories in the Later Half of the 20th Century

A.   Chomsky and Transformational-generative Grammar

Noam Chomsky has made distinguished achievements in many fields including linguistics, philosophy, intellectual history and international politics, etc. He is a fellow in several societies including linguistics, politics, psychology, arts and sciences in the United States and abroad. He has awarded honorary degrees from tens of universities from Cambridge University to Harvard University. However, he is best known for his contribution in linguistics.

"During the years 1951 to 1955, Chomsky was a Junior Fellow of the Harvard University Society of Fellows. While a Junior Fellow he completed his doctoral dissertation entitled, Transformational Analysis. The major theoretical viewpoints of the dissertation appeared in the monograph Syntactic Structure, which was published in 1957. This formed part of a more extensive work, The Logical Structure of Linguistic Theory, circulated in mimeograph in 1955 and published in 1975". The reason why Chomsky invented new theory for structuralism is that he found there are many limitations in the classification of language structure according to distribution and arrangement. So he started to punch the prevailing structuralist descriptive linguistics. Due to this academic practice, Chomsky established the world-famous Transformational-generative (TG) grammar step by step. In 1957, he published his syntactic structures, which marked the beginning of the Chomskyan Revolution.

By observing that some important facts had never been analyzed adequately, Chomsky gave an innateness hypothesis. First, children acquire language competence very fast and with almost no effort. It has been universally acknowledged that children become fluent speakers of their native language by the age of five. If we consider the fact that children shall never be intellectually prepared for any other subjects of science, this is quite a shocking fact. A child never seems to make conscious, intentional, painstaking efforts in acquiring his native language as in learning any other subject, such as mathematics or physics. What's more, one amazing phenomenon is that the first language acquisition unconditionally takes place without any intentional or explicit teaching of it. And the language a child hears is often not necessarily the most standard of the language he or she is acquiring. What is that which enables a child retain those correct expressions and avoid what is not proper in the language? In terms of the stages of language acquisition, all children usually follow the same stages: the babbling stage, nonsense word stage, holophrastic stage, two-word utterance, developing grammar, near-adult grammar, and full competence. In terms of the correctness of grammar, a child can not only produce and understand sentences he has heard, but also sentences he has never come across before. The questions are the ones that the former linguists never thought about seriously. Through discussing these questions, Chomsky insists that if children are not born with a predisposition to acquire a language in almost the same way as they are born with the innate ability to walk, these phenomena shall never be possible.

Basing on the hypothesis, Chomsky believes that language competence is somewhat innate, and that our children are born with a language acquisition device (LAD), or language competence, which fit children for language learning. LAD is supposed to consist of three elements: a hypothesis-maker, linguistic universal, and an evaluation procedure. Chomsky further put out a new theory, "generative grammar". By this, he simply means "a system of rules that in some explicit and well-defined way assigns structural descriptions to sentences"(Hu, 2002, p. 724). That is Chomsky believes that every child of a language is proficient in and internalized a kind of generative grammar that proves his knowledge of his first language. And the theory of generative grammar experience altogether five periods from the beginning until the later theories, which has really brought life to structuralism in the later half of last century, helped it to go on. But the theory itself has been very much controversial. Some scholars completely accept it. Some agree that it is a kind of breakthrough of structuralism but do not agree with all of it. Some totally reject it. Among them, there are even his students.

B.   Hymes's Communicative Competence – Shift from Structuralism to Functionalism

Dell Hymes, Commonwealth Professor of Anthropology, Emeritus professor of University of Virginia, teaching classes in linguistic anthropology, Native American mythology, ethno poetics, and Native American poetry. He is one of the persons who do not completely agree with Chomsky. Hymes uses his knowledge of anthropology, linguistics, and ethnography in working with verbal traditions and languages of Oregon and Washington. In 1972, Hymes pointed out

that Chomsky's theory about language competence is not convincing enough to interpret language phenomenon. He put forward the theory of communicative competence. In it, he argues that "language competence is part of communicative competence which includes four parts:

(1) Probability, i.e., whether or not communicative competence can be in accordance with grammar rules, whether or not communicative competence can be realized in the level of language form.

(2) Practicability, i.e., whether or not a language can be used for communication and to what degree it can be involved in communication.

(3) Accuracy, i.e., whether or not a speech is appropriate in a certain context and to what degree it is appropriate.

(4) Effectiveness, i.e., whether or not a speech has been made and to what degree it has been made" (Wen, 1999, p. 4).

C. Canale & Swain's Enrichment to Communicative Competence

During the 1980s, Canale & Swain contributed more to enrich Hymes communicative competence. They thought that communicative competence at least includes four aspects of knowledge and skills:

(1) Linguistic competence, i.e., the innate grammar of a speaker which helps to generate correct sentence, as same as what Chomsky refers to.

(2) Sociolinguistic competence, i.e., the ability of a speaker to understand the speech of others and make a speech appropriately due to a certain kind of time, place and partner he or she is talking with.

(3) Discourse competence, i.e., the ability of a speaker to generate meaning out of disordered language data. It includes two aspects named cohesion and coherence.

(4) Strategic competence, i.e., the ability of a speaker to use different kinds of communication strategies according to different discourse, such as avoidance, interpretation, transcription, asking for help, pretending to be having not heard, euphemism, correction, repetition, hesitation, guess, etc., for the purpose of achieving successful communication.

D. Latest Contribution by Bachman and WEN Qiu-fang

This is not the end of the disputes about what are included in communicative competence, While Canale and Swain's strategic competence puts its emphasis on "compensatory" strategies – that is, strategies used to compensate a shortage in some language area, the term has taken on a broader meaning in recent years. In 1990, Lyre F. Bachman, once being the president of the International Language Testing Association and the American Association for Applied Linguistics, provided a wider theoretical context of strategic competence through dividing it into three components. Later, in 1996, Bachman and Palmer improved the Bachman categories for strategic competence of 1990 to cover four components:

(1) Assessment, i.e., a speaker assesses which communicative goals are possibly to be achieved and what linguistic sources are needed.

(2) Goal-setting, i.e., a speaker identifies the specific tasks to be performed.

(3) Planning, i.e., a speaker retrieves the relevant items from his realm of language knowledge and plans their use.

(4) Execution, i.e., a speaker implements the plan.

We might think this is already broad and scientific enough. However, Chinese scholar WEN Qiu-fang added cross-cultural competence into it as well. Hence, this latest framework for strategic competence is much broader and more scientific than before.

VII. FUNCTIONAL-NOTIONAL APPROACH

These new theories finally brought the ideal of functional-notional grammar and functional-notional approach in language teaching. This new approach holds that the functions of language used in the real daily life are most important and it is essential for a language learner to take part in the everyday language activities such as giving directions, buying a ticket, bargaining or consoling and so on. That is to say, to know the forms of a language are important, but it is more important to know the functions and decide which situations to use each kind of function, the learner should practice real and practical communication in a language learning class. The teaching syllabus should describe the situations that a language learner might find himself or herself in, the language activities he is most likely to be involved into, the functions of language that are most frequently used, and the topics that are and common in life.

VIII. BIRTH OF FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS

M. A. K. Halliday, Emeritus Professor at the University of Sydney, is "world-renowned as the leading representative of systemic-functional linguistics and as an authority in many other areas of linguistics, including language in education, text linguistics, developmental linguistics, grammar, and social linguistics". In his theory, Halliday has intended to create a new approach in linguistics that regards language as foundational for the building of human experience. His insights and contributions form a new linguistic approach known as systemic-functional linguistics. Halliday stresses that language cannot be disassociated and disconnected from meaning. Systemic-functional linguistics considers communicative function and semantics as the basis of human language and communicative activity. Unlike structural approaches that favor syntax first, SFL-oriented linguists privilege an analysis within social context to find out how language reflects, and is controlled and influenced by, this social context. A key concept in Halliday's linguistics is the

"context of situation" which obtains "through a systematic relationship between the social environment on the one hand, and the functional organization of language on the other" (Halliday, 1985, p. 11).

IX.   COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

With such great enrichment of language theories during this period of time, people couldn't help seeing the coming of new language teaching theory. And surely it did. These new theories have made it clear that communication is the most basic function and characteristic of language. Meanwhile, they have brought the birth of communicative approach of language teaching. This approach was first mentioned by Wilkins and Widdowson.

A.   Definition of Communicative Approach of Language Teaching

The communicative approach is characterized by a set of ideas that include not only a reconsideration of which aspects of language to teach, but also an emphasis on how to teach. The ancient Chinese proverb "giving a man a fish and you feed him for a day, teaching him how to fish and you feed him for a lifetime" can best illustrate this approach.

B.   Principles of Communicative Approach of Language Teaching

In communicative approach of language teaching, what matters most is that students should be aroused the desire to communicate something, supply them a purpose of communicating, for example, to write a letter to a friend, to make an appointment with a teacher, to book an airline ticket. Students should concentrate on the content of what they are saying or writing rather than on a particular grammatical point. They should use a variety of language structures rather than just a single language structure. During the course of a students' activity, the teacher shall not interrupt before it is finished; and the materials the teacher use will not dictate what specific language forms the students should use. That is to say, such activities should attempt to take the place of real communication in life. The multiple roles a teacher plays include planner, participant, diagnostician, provider, manager, and organizer etc.

The teaching syllabus of communicative language teaching will generally include:

(1) The social situations typically for students to use a foreign language.

(2) The topics they are likely to address.

(3) The language functions they need to use.

(4) The vocabulary and grammar structures needed for these functions.

(5) The communicative skills required in typical social situations.

C.   Problems Existing in Communicative Approach of Language Teaching

Communicative approach of language teaching has become the most scientific of all the language teaching theories we have so far, though, it still isn't a perfect approach. The problems lying in this approach are:

(1) Until now there is no agreed classification about the functions of language. This makes it not clear that how a teaching syllabus chooses what language functions to teach and arrange them as well.

(2) In what way a textbook arrange these functions and grammar is hard to be decided.

(3) In the actual practice of communicative approach language teaching, we find it's challenging to emphasize both language ability and communication competence.

(4) Our teachers are expected to improve their language ability and communicative competence too.

X.   CONCLUSION

All these issues can be real challenges to language teaching. To solve these problems, new language theories are expected to emerge in the new age. History has proved that new language-teaching theories are the off springs of new language theories. How much we understand our languages, how far we can go in teaching them. Only depending on new language theory, language teaching theory can move forward step by step. Luckily, the buds of spring are indeed round the corner. With several new branches of linguistics, such as computational linguistics, corpus linguistics, psycholinguistics, etc., are marching forward in a fast speed in our time with the assistance of information technology, brain science, psychological science, and so on, we hopefully will witness the day that new language teaching theories will emerge in the near future.

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Yanhua Xia was born in Luzhou, China in 1978. He received his M.A. degree in foreign linguistics and applied linguistics from University of Electronic Science and Technology, China in 2009.

He is currently an associate professor of English at School of Foreign Languages, China West Normal University, Nanchong, China and a PhD candidate of English literature at School of Foreign Studies, University of Science and Technology Beijing, Beijing. Main areas of expertise include English teaching methodology, applied linguistics and British literature. Representative publication is "Reading Michael Longley for the Dialectic between Intertextuality and Literary Innovation" in *Contemporary Foreign Literature* (ISSN: 1001-1757), Vol. 19, No. 1, 2009.

Syntactic and Lexical Simplification: The Impact on EFL Listening Comprehension at Low and High Language Proficiency Levels

Solmaz Shirzadi
Islamic Azad University, Shahreza Branch, Iran

Abstract—This study aimed at examining whether syntactic and lexical simplification affect listening comprehension at different levels. The participants were 180 female Iranian EFL students. They were learning English at an English language institute. A standardized test, namely, TOEFL was administered to choose the participants. Then the participants were divided into two groups (90 of low and 90 of high-proficiency level). The participants at high language proficiency level were randomly divided into three groups (one control group, two experimental groups). The participants at the low language proficiency level were randomly divided into three groups, too (one control group, two experimental groups). Two versions of a passage were prepared at a high language proficiency level. Two versions of a passage were prepared at a low language proficiency level, too. The obtained passages which were read by a native English teacher and recorded on a CD were played back at a normal speed rate. The participants were asked to answer the multiple-choice questions after listening to the passages. Then the answer sheets were scored. The means and the standard deviations of groups' performances were calculated. To determine whether or not there were overall significant differences between groups' performances, a t-test was separately applied within levels. The results of the t-test revealed that the groups exposed to syntactically and lexically simplified versions outperformed the other groups.

Index Terms—EFL, listening comprehension, syntactic simplification, lexical simplification, language proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Different kinds of listening can be discerned, which are classified on the basis of a number of variables, involving purpose for listening, and type of text being listened to. These variables are mixed in different shapes, and each of them needs a special strategy (Vanpatten & Williams, 2007).Listening is a dynamic interaction of guessing approximation, expectation and idealization that naturally uses all the redundancies found in a representative discourse situation (Wang, 2010). The specific aims of the research are as follows:

1. To find out whether syntactic and lexical simplification affects listening comprehension.

2. To examine and measure the EFL students' perceived comprehension of listening texts by lexical and syntactic simplification.

The learners' success or failure in listening comprehension can be affected by many interfering factors. Among these factors, grammatical complexity of sentences and unfamiliarity of words should be taken into consideration. This research focuses on teaching listening at high school level.

Simplification as a Learning Strategy

While listening is an undeniably complex process, it requires lexicon and syntax recognition and comprehension at its most fundamental level (Koda, 2005). Lexicon forms the foundation from which a learner builds meaning at a (a) sentence, (b) paragraph, and (c) discourse level. If the listener cannot access the meaning of a critical amount of vocabulary in a text, the listening process will break down. Grabe (2002) points out that both "a large recognition vocabulary and automaticity of word recognition for most of the words in the text" are central to an EFL learner's ability to comprehend a text under normal conditions.

While the importance of vocabulary in EFL listening is well established, the methods for accommodating EFL listeners with insufficient vocabularies vary widely and many are still in formative stages. Many approaches exist that claim to facilitate the EFL listening process. Some view authentic, or unmodified texts as the best medium for EFL learners; other use discourse levels. Still others create entirely new texts that are carefully composed using a limited lexical, syntactic, or discourse levels.

Overall vocabulary knowledge is not only important in listening , but research also indicates that if a listener cannot readily access meaning for 95- 98% of the specific vocabulary contained in a particular text, comprehension will be frustrated (Nation, 2001).

Lexical Simplification

Young (1999) maintains that simplification will not necessarily aid comprehension of a text, rather the number of individual words that a learner will understand would increase. This raises again the question of measuring the relationship between number of understood words and overall comprehension of a text (Hsuch-Chao, & Nation, 2000). Young (1999) concludes as well that simplification may overemphasize the importance of every individual word in a text, which could frustrate EFL learners, a concern that is echoed in other studies of simplification (Block, 1992).

Syntactic Simplification

Blau (1990) studied the effect of sentence structure on the EFL listening comprehension of university students. It is suggested that sentence structure which made difference in the reading comprehension study (Blau, 1982) seems to be a less dominant modification when the input is aural rather than written. Cervantes and Gainer (1992) also conducted a study to explore the effect of syntactic simplification on EFL listening comprehension. The subjects were English major freshmen and seniors in a Japanese university. They proposed that syntactic simplification is an aid to EFL listening comprehension.

Besides, two studies investigate another kind of paraphrase. No absolute effectiveness of paraphrase was found in the studies. One study of Kelch (1985) tested the effects of syntactic modification which consists of (a) paraphrase, (b) synonym, and (c) parallel syntactic structures. It was found that there was an effect only for those passages with both modifications and a slower speech rate. The other study by Pica, Young, and Doughty (1987) investigated the listening comprehension of low intermediate adult EFL learners on directions to a task presented by a native speaker. Results show that subjects' listening comprehension was facilitated when the content of the directions was repeated and rephrased in interaction. However, reduction in linguistic complexity in the premodified input was not a significant factor.

Simplified Listening Texts

One explanation for the conflicting findings in research involving modified and unmodified texts could be an interaction with the nature of the texts and the listener's proficiency levels. Following the results of other researchers, Oh (2001) questions the effect of proficiency might have on the effects of different modification. Boyle (1984) also conclude that lower proficiency levels appear to benefit more from certain type of modification has less positive effect on comprehension.

Petersen (2007) addresses the task of text simplification in the context of second language learning. A data-driven approach to simplification is proposed using a corpus of paired articles in which each original sentence does not necessarily have a corresponding simplified sentence, making it possible to learn where writers have dropped or simplified sentences. A classifier is used to select the sentences to simplify, and Siddharthan's syntactic simplification system (Siddharthan, 2006) is used to split the selected sentences.

Siddharthan proposes a syntactic simplification architecture that relies on shallow text analysis and favors time performance. The general goal of the architecture is to make text more accessible to a broader audience; it has not targeted any particular application. The system treats (a) apposition, (b) relative clauses, (c) coordination, and (d) subordination.

Max (2005) applies text simplification in the writing process by embedding an interactive text simplification system into a word processor. At the user's request, an automatic parser analyzes an individual sentence and the system applies handcrafted rewriting rules. The resulting suggested simplifications are ranked by a score of syntactic complexity and potential change of meaning. The writer then chooses his or her preferred simplification. This system ensures accurate output, but requires human intervention at every step.

II. METHOD

Participants

The participants of the study were 180 female Iranian EFL students. The age range was from 14 to 18. They were learning English at an English language institute in Abadeh. After administering TOEFL as a placement test, the participants in the listening comprehension test were placed into two groups (90 of low and 90 of high-proficiency level).

Materials

Two versions of a listening passage were prepared for low language proficiency groups. One version was simplified lexically. The other version was simplified syntactically. Two versions of a listening passage were prepared for high language proficiency groups, too. One version was simplified lexically. The other version was simplified syntactically. The passages given to the low and high participants were chosen according to the difficulty level. The treatments are shown in the table below:

TABLE 1.
TREATMENTS

Language proficiency level	Control group	Experimental group	Experimental group
High	Original version	Syntactically simplified version	Lexically simplified version
Low	Original version	Syntactically simplified version	Lexically simplified version

Syntactic and Lexical Simplification

Two versions of a listening passage were prepared, one version remained untouched i.e., the original one, the other was lexically simplified. This was done by identifying difficult words in the text through a simple lexicon look-up. The lexicon was "*The New Oxford American Dictionary*" that contains entries for difficult words. Each entry in the lexicon includes the difficult word itself, its part-of-speech, synonym, and dictionary definition. A difficult word was replaced by its synonym. If the difficult word had no synonym, then it was replaced by its corresponding dictionary definition. This simplification was done on the basis of difficulty.

To simplify a passage lexically effectively, researchers have tried to set up parameters defining the difficult words (Young, 1999). At the vocabulary level, deciding how or what to simplify depends on the definition of lexical complexity. An ordinary standard of a word's complexity has a close connection with frequency. The prevailing supposition is that more common words are naturally more familiar to listeners, and accordingly more comprehensible (Laufer, 1992).

To simplify the passage syntactically three stages were taken into consideration: (a) analysis, (b) transformation, and (c) regeneration. The passage was analyzed in the analysis stage and then passed on to the transformation stage. The transformation stage applies rules for syntactic simplification and calls the regeneration stage as a subordinate to address issues of conjunctive cohesion. When no further simplification is possible, the transformation stage carries the simplified passage to the regeneration stage, which addresses issues of anaphoric cohesion as a post-process (Siddharthan, 2006).

In order to verify the simplication technique of the study, a pilot group of participants were asked to listen to the passages and underline the sentences whose syntactic structures and vocabulary were difficult to them, and then they were asked to make a separate list of the unfamiliar words for the passages. The pilot group included a typical sample of participants resembling the study's participants. A data analysis validated the test's appropriateness. The synonyms and definitions were taken from the 2005 edition of *The New Oxford American Dictionary*.

Procedure

The obtained passages were read out by a native English teacher then recorded on a CD and played back at a normal speech rate. After listening to the CD, the participants were asked to answer multiple-choice questions based on the passages. The answer sheets were then scored. An original version was given to all groups at their appropriate levels. After two weeks, an original version was given to the control groups at their appropriate levels. At the same time, two simplified versions (syntactically and lexically) were given to the experimental groups (low proficiency level) and two other simplified versions (syntactically and lexically) were given to the other experimental groups (high proficiency level) too.

III. RESULTS

The results of this study fell into two categories. The first dealt with the relationship between syntactic simplification and listening comprehension. The second category dealt with the relationship between lexical simplification and listening comprehension. To determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in the posttest mean scores of the experimental and control groups, a t-test was applied.

Result of Lexically Simplified Listening Comprehension Test

A t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups in lexically simplified listening comprehension tests on the pretest and posttest. Table 2 shows that the mean difference was significant at the .05 level (both for low and high language proficiency levels). It could be concluded that there was a significant difference between the four groups' mean scores in lexically simplified listening comprehension pretests and posttests.

TABLE 2.
THE SUMMARY OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR LEXICALLY SIMPLIFIED SCORES

Language proficiency Level	Group	Paired differences					t	df= 29 Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence interval of the difference			
					Lower	Upper		
Low	Experimental	-3.10	3.12	0.57	-4.26	-1.93	-5.43	0.00*
	Control	-0.16	0.59	0.10	-0.38	0.05	-1.54	0.13
High	Experimental	-1.83	3.21	0.58	-3.03	-0.63	-3.12	0.00*
	Control	-0.10	0.48	0.08	-2.27	0.07	-1.14	0.26

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level (Sig. p< .05).

Result of Syntactically Simplified Listening Comprehension Test

Again, a t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups in syntactically simplified listening comprehension test. The mean difference was significant at the .05 level (for both low and high language proficiency levels). As a result, it could be concluded that syntactically simplified passages had a significant impact on the performance of the participants in the listening comprehension tests for both low and high language proficiency levels.

TABLE 3.
THE SUMMARY OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR SYNTACTICALLY SIMPLIFIED SCORES

Language proficiency Level	Group	Paired differences					t	df= 29 Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence interval of the difference			
					Lower	Upper		
Low	Experimental	-3.43	2.51	0.45	-4.37	-2.49	-7.47	0.00*
	Control	-0.16	0.59	0.10	-0.38	0.05	-1.54	0.13
High	Experimental	-1.50	1.99	0.36	-2.24	-0.75	-4.11	0.00*
	Control	-0.10	0.48	0.08	-0.27	0.07	-1.14	0.26

* The mean difference is significant at the .05 level (Sig. $p < .05$).

IV. DISCUSSION

This study sought to answer the following questions:

1- Does syntactic simplification have any impact on learners' listening comprehension at low and high language proficiency levels?

2- Does lexical simplification have any impact on learners' listening comprehension at low and high language proficiency levels?

The goal of this study is to see whether syntactic and lexical simplification affects listening comprehension. This may help uncover gaps and provide us with ways to encourage developing good habits of listening comprehension. This is an important question, since comprehensibility is the fundamental and necessary requirement of foreign language acquisition.

This chapter encompasses discussion and conclusions in which the investigated questions are answered and the obtained results are compared with the other researchers' investigations. Implications, limitations and suggestions for further research are also included in this chapter.

The results of the study indicate that it makes a difference to expose EFL learners to syntactically and lexically simplified listening passages. In other words, it was found that the lexical and syntactic simplification could affect the learner's performance.

Low and high proficiency language learners had a better performance when the listening passages were simplified syntactically and lexically. The results of the study showed that presenting the listening passages in simplified versions made the multiple choice tests easier for low proficiency level learners.

As for the questions posed in Chapter One, the following can be put forward.

As for question 1, it can be concluded that syntactically simplified listening passages had a significant impact on the performance of the participants in the listening comprehension tests for both low and high language proficiency levels.

As for question 2, it can be claimed that a significant impact on the participants' scores in the lexically simplified listening comprehension tests is noticed for both low and high language proficiency levels.

Results of the current study seem to support the findings of some previous researchers such as Siddharthan (2006), Petersen and Ostendorf (2007), Koda (2005), Gardener and Hansen (2007), and Crammar (2005). They proposed that syntactic and lexical simplification is an aid to EFL listening comprehension.

Still, some research has pointed out the non-significant effect of simplification on EFL listening comprehension (Blau, 1990). There seems to be inconsistency of research findings on whether simplification has an impact on EFL listening comprehension.

It seems that the difference between non-simplified version of the listening passage and the version with any kind of simplification is much more obvious than the difference between versions with various types of simplification.

V. CONCLUSION

The use of listening comprehension passage which is beyond the learners' comprehensibility has drawbacks. The speech used in such passages and the language is often very difficult. Anyone who has listened to passages of natural conversation knows how difficult they are to understand.

Passages labeled as authentic have not been altered to match proficiency level of language learners, and are considered by some to be an unmixed source of linguistic input for learners. One option for matching passages to the ability and range of a learner is to find so-called authentic passages appropriate for different proficiency levels. However, most unmodified passages are not labeled in terms of difficulty for EFL learners. For a listener or teacher, finding, analyzing, and cataloging so-called authentic passages would be time, and finding the right content with the right level of vocabulary may be even more problematic. On the other hand, arbitrarily choosing an authentic passage and hoping that it falls within the ability range of an EFL learner may be especially difficult (Tweissi, 1998).

Linguistic modification is a common occurrence in foreign language communication, as demonstrated in almost any case of a native English speaker interacting with a beginning English learner. Slow rate of speaking, emphasis of key words, use of common vocabulary and repetition are all modifications to aid comprehension. These adaptations are all ways that English learners' negotiations of language can be facilitated, and they are performed almost instinctively by

native speakers. Spoken language can be negotiated between the speaker and receiver as the language is generated, and the speaker can adapt the message according to the perception of the receiver's understanding and proficiency (Hatch, 1983; Krashen, 1983).

The findings of this study indicate that difficult vocabulary and complex language are variables affecting listening comprehension. Teachers and lecturers should therefore attempt to simplify their language to enhance comprehension. It should not be inferred from this investigation that over simplification can be recommended but rather that they would become more aware of the problems encountered by their students in academic listening comprehension and would be able to assist them to overcome their difficulties.

A. Implications

This study has implications for selection of suitable listening materials in language classrooms. Teachers should pay attention when selecting listening passages to ensure that learners encounter materials that are at a suitable level of difficulty. Our suggestion is that teachers and educational specialists should consider the learners' linguistic proficiency. With respect to the role of the learner's competence in the target language, it should be kept in mind that exposure to more comprehensible listening materials might evolve the learners' linguistic knowledge.

It is clearly desirable to use syntactically and lexically simplified input at different points in a language course. Simplified input is useful for presenting specific language items economically and effectively. The course designer has a total control over it, and can provide just the linguistic elements and contextual back up he/she wishes. If students are exposed to unsimplified input, they are unlikely to meet all the high frequency items they need to learn. Elementary students faced with unsimplified input that is not very carefully selected may find it so difficult that they become unable to understand unfamiliar lexis and syntactic complexity.

B. Limitation of the Study

One of the limitations of this study is the phrasal verbs used as replacements for the target words. The meaning of an entire phrasal verb often differs from the meaning of the base word alone. Thus, the phrasal verbs used as replacements for the off-list words may not have been any familiar to the participants than the original words, and they may have affected the comprehension scores.

In addition, there seems to be some relationship between the type of comprehension task and the effect of syntactic and lexical simplification on learners' listening comprehension performance. The comprehension task applied in this study is multiple choice questions. The study by Cervantes and Gainer (1992) used a cloze test to measure subjects' listening comprehension. According to Chaudron's (1985) scheme, a cloze test requires a lower degree of speech comprehension than multiple-choice questions do. Thus, it seems that syntactic and lexical simplification can improve the performance in tasks requiring less comprehension, instead of those more complicated listening tasks.

C. Suggestions for Further Research

The findings of the study offer fruitful avenues for future research. While research in lexical simplification is becoming more established and many lexically simplified materials exist, the possible benefits of lexical elaboration have largely been ignored. Understanding how learners process lexical elaboration might provide useful insight into the use of this tool in the future.

The use of frequency lists is an invaluable tool in organizing and evaluating different registers of language. However dependence on such lists should be carefully considered. Lists should be evaluated for actual occurrence in current language, polysemy, and other measures. While this may be a discouraging task, it may be a necessary prerequisite before confidence can be obtained in using the lists to define relative text difficulty. A standard measurement for frequency and difficulty for vocabulary might then be established.

This study was done with the participants studying at an English private school, another research can be conducted with the subjects at university level. In this experiment the materials used were of a text type. Some other experiments can be accomplished using simplified dialogs. At present, the lines of reasoning that would establish a causal link between simplification and learning outcome has received some supporting evidence for the first step in the argument, that is, speech simplification improves comprehension. The second step, the impact of comprehension on learners' syntax and lexicon ability is untested.

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Solmaz Shirzadi holds an M.A. degree in TEFL from Azad University of Shahreza and has taught EFL in different institutes in Esfahan- Iran.

Translating Scientific Terms

Luu Hoang Mai
Thu Dau Mot University, Vietnam

Luu Thi Bich Ngoc
Open University, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

Luu Trong Tuan
Open University, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

Abstract—**Translation theorists still have been on the quest for an approach to translation units in scientific term translation. The paper presents two principles of scientific term translation – "recombination of semantic components" and "functional equivalence" – which, in combination with Vinay & Darbelnet's (1977) translation procedures, produce procedures of translating terms outside the context. The paper further proposes Coordinate Translation Model which helps decode apposite translation units for the translation of contextualized terms.**

Index Terms—**scientific term, recombination of semantic components, functional equivalence, Coordinate Translation Model**

I. INTRODUCTION

From Newmark's (1995, p. 151) standpoint, the distinction between scientific translation and the other types of translation resides in scientific terms in the texts. The authors' aesthetic intention is the focus of literary translation whereas the precision of scientific terms contributes to scientific translation effectiveness. "Translating terms can be a challenge for translators once even certain bilingual dictionaries of a science fail to distinguish academic meaning of a term from its common meaning" (Luu, 2011). In Lam's (2003) bilingual medical dictionary (pp. 179, 236), for example, the terms "perspiration" và "sweating" are translated as "ra mồ hôi" ("releasing sweat") in Vietnamese language.

Although both terms refer to "the act or process of excreting fluid by the sudoriferous glands through pores in the skin" (Anderson et al., 2002, pp. 1323, 1664), "perspiration" implies a physiological process whereas "sweating" denotes the excretion of sweat caused by heavy workload, fear, illness, or medication. The semantic differences render "perspiration" academic in style and "sweating" academic in case of illness or medication and popular in case of heavy workload or trepidation. The English-Chinese medical dictionary has translated "perspiration" as "chuhan" and translated "sweating" as "fahan" (see Mengzhi, 1999). Likewise, in translating them into Vietnamese language, the semantic as well as stylistic distinction between "perspiration" and "sweating" should be taken into account as displayed in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
TRANSLATING "PERSPIRATION" AND "SWEATING" INTO VIETNAMESE LANGUAGE

Terms	Meanings	Scale of style	Physiological states	Vietnamese translations
Perspiration	Natural excretion of sweat	Academic	Normal (neutral)	Tiết / bài tiết / ra mồ hôi
Sweating	Excretion of sweat caused by illness or medication	Professional	Abnormal (negative)	Đổ / vã mồ hôi
	Excretion of sweat caused by heavy workload or trepidation	Popular	Abnormal (negative)	Đổ / vã / toát mồ hôi

From the significance of accurately translating terms in scientific texts via the above illustration, the aim of the paper entails exploring principles and procedures of translating scientific terms, thereby augmenting the quality of scientific translation.

II. PRINCIPLES OF SCIENTIFIC TERM TRANSLATION

The two principles guiding the translation of scientific terms include:

A. Recombination of Semantic Components

Bijective mapping in translating English terms into Vietnamese language does not always occur. English single words, complex words, and phrases may not be translated as Vietnamese single words, complex words, and phrases respectively. On the contrary, the recombination of the semantic components of the terms may occur in the target language.

From Luu's (2011) view, "If the semantic components in the target language are tightly compacted, the translated terms will be single words, and if the semantic components in the target language are loosely compacted, the translated terms will be complex words or phrases". Figure 1 displays "recombination of semantic components" principle.
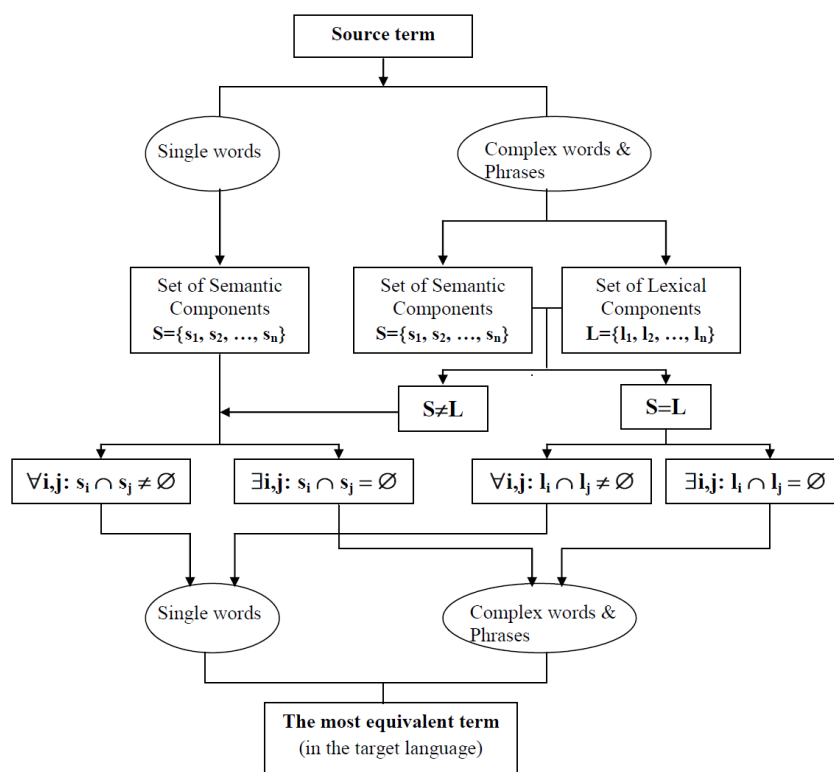
Figure 1. Recombination of semantic components in term translation

As Figure 1 reveals, "if a term is a single word, the translator will analyze its set of semantic components $S=\{s_1, s_2, ..., s_n\}$ (S=semantic component) (the set of semantic components is explored through its definition). In case its semantic components are tightly compacted, i.e. subsets of every semantic component are joint, or their intersection is not the empty set ($\forall i,j: s_i \cap s_j \neq \varnothing$), term translation in the target language will be a single word" (Luu, 2011) as "lung" is rendered as "phổi" in Vietnamese.
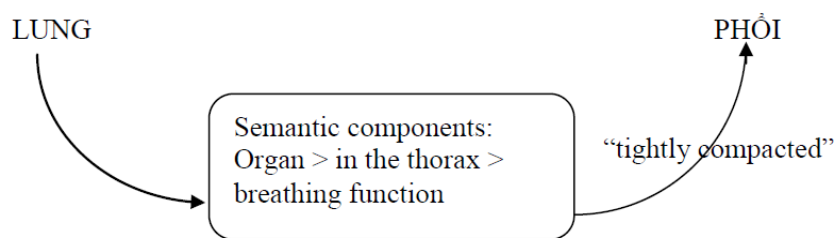
However, from Luu's (2011) perspective, "if the semantic components of a single word are not tightly joint, i.e. there exist at least two disjoint subsets of semantic components, or their intersection is the empty set ($\exists i,j: s_i \cap s_j = \varnothing$)", term translation in the target language will be a complex word or phrase as "malaria" is translated as "sốt rét" in Vietnamese language.
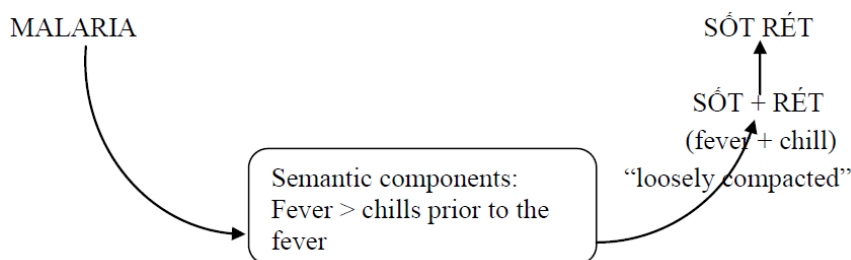
If the term is a complex word or phrase, its set of semantic components $S=\{s_1, s_2, ..., s_n\}$ (S=semantic component) and its set of lexical components ($L=\{l_1, l_2, ..., l_n\}$) (L=lexical component) has to be dissected. "If its set of lexical components does not reflect its set of semantic components ($S \neq C$), then its set of semantic components should be analyzed, like the case of the term as a single word" (Luu, 2011); for example, "smallpox" is rendered as "đậu mùa" in Vietnamese.
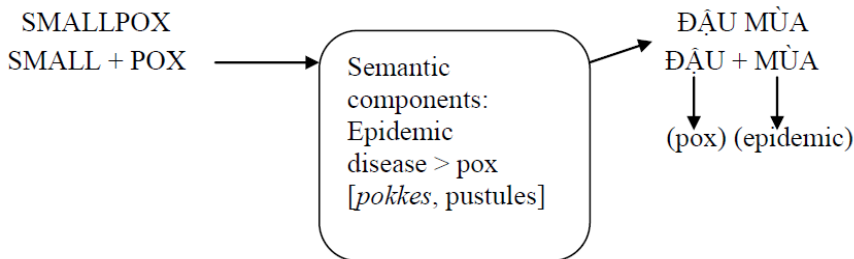
However, if the term's set of lexical components reflect its set of semantic components ($S=L$), its set of lexical components is then dissected. "If its lexical components are tightly compacted, i.e. subsets of every lexical component are joint or their intersection is not the empty set ($\forall i,j: l_i \cap l_j \neq \emptyset$)" (Luu, 2011), term translation in the target language will be a single word as "lipothymia" is translated as "xỉu" (fainting) and "white water lily" is translated as "súng" (a species of plant) in Vietnamese language.
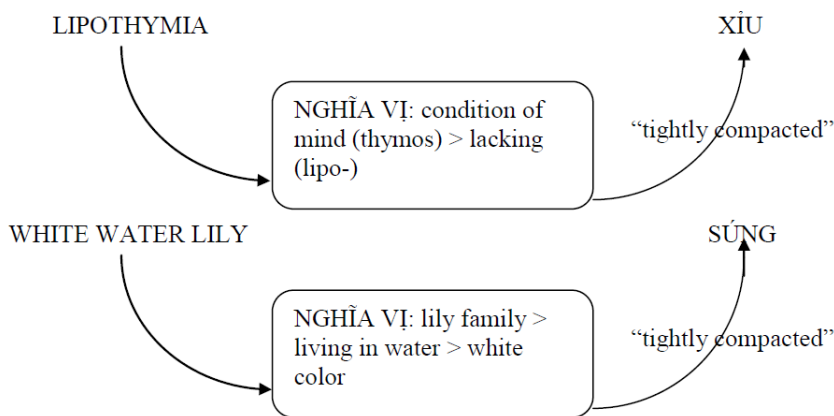
However, "if the lexical components of a complex word or phrase are not tightly joint, i.e. there exist at least two disjoint subsets of lexical components, or their intersection is the empty set ($\exists i,j: l_i \cap l_j = \emptyset$)" (Luu, 2011), term translation in the target language will be a complex word or phrase as "*myasthenia*" is translated as "bệnh nhược cơ" in Vietnamese language, a recombination of disjoint translated lexical components except the merger of "a" and "sthen" into the translation "nhược" (feeble).
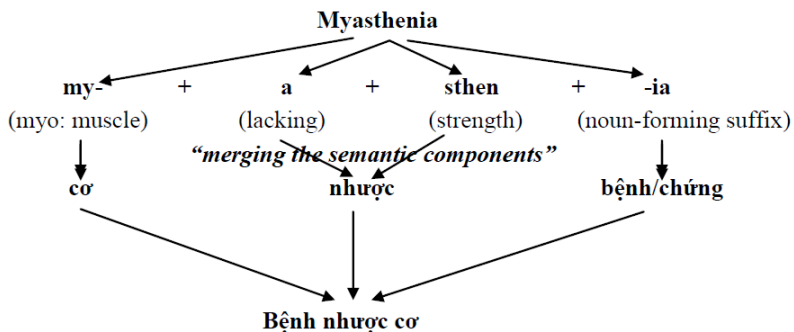
B. Functional Equivalence Principle

Translating a scientific term entails seeking functional equivalence "between the term in the source language and its translation in the target language" (Luu, 2011). Arntz & Picht (1991, p. 160) suggest four levels of functional equivalence:

1) Complete conceptual equivalence

An illustration for this level of functional equivalence is the case of "phagocyte" (phago-: eat; cyte: cell) to be translated as "thực bào" (thực: eat; bào: cell), and "hemolysis" (hemo-: blood; -lysis [Gk, *lysein*, to loose]: breaking down or decomposition) to be translated as "tán huyết" (tán: breaking down; huyết: blood).

2) Partial equivalence

Translating the term "hemoglobin" into Vietnamese language is an illustration for this level of functional equivalence. The overlapping between the term "hemoglobin" and its translation "huyết sắc tố" is the component "hemo-" meaning blood (huyết: blood), whereas the other component of the term "globin" [L, *globus*] meaning "ball" is not analogous to the component "sắc tố" (pigment) of the translation.

Likewise, "smallpox" is rendered as "bệnh đậu mùa" in Vietnamese; however, their only overlapping is "pox" implying pustules, and the other component of the term "small" and that of its translation "mùa" are divergent, which produces partial equivalence between the term and its translation.

3) Inclusion, a term merges into another

The term "protein" is translated as "đạm" in Vietnamese language. Originally meaning "nitrogen gas", the Sino-Vietnamese term "đạm" has taken on the meaning "substances containing nitrogen", so is a hypernym including the hyponym "protein".

Similarly, the term "carbon dioxide" is translated as "thán khí" in Vietnamese language, which means "a gas being composed of carbon", so its translation "thán khí" is a hypernym embracing the hyponym "carbon dioxide".

On the contrary, the hypernym "problem" with high frequency in scientific terms does not have the equivalent hypernym in Vietnamese. Therefore, using the hyponyms of the term "problem", it can be translated as:

+ "hội chứng" (syndrome): breathing problems → hội chứng khó thở (syndrome of dyspnea)

+ "bất thường" (anomaly): Fallopian tube problems → bất thường ở ống dẫn trứng (anomaly in oviduct)

+ "rối loạn" (disorder): sleep problems → rối loạn giấc ngủ (disorder of sleep)

4) No conceptual equivalence

The term "epidemic parotitis" is literally translated as "viêm tuyến mang tai dịch tễ"; however, its common translation "bệnh quai bị" (bag-shaped swollen jaw) is entirely unequivalent to the term.

Certain terms and their translated terms are unequivalent in terms of lexical roots. However, they will become complete equivalents in view of the term's definition. The term "potential energy" is translated as "thế năng" ([position],[energy]), whereas *potential* builds upon two Latin roots, *potis* or latent power, and *posse*, to be able, so the term and its translation seemingly reflect partial equivalence. However, the definition "Potential energy is the energy an object has because of its position in a gravitational field, magnetic field, or similar environment that affects the object" (Ebbing et al., 1995, p. 82) shows that the term and its Vietnamese translation "thế năng" are complete equivalents.

The last degree of functional equivalence, no conceptual equivalence, refers to the last resort suggested by Ohly (1987) that if no appropriate equivalent can be encountered or created in the target language, the foreign word should be retained after it has undergone certain adaptations to be more pronounceable and memorable. Ohly's last resort is a part of Jakobson's (1959, p. 234) acknowledgement on the use of "loanwords or loan-translations, neologisms or semantic shifts, and circumlocutions" in case of deficiency of equivalent terms in the target language.

For instance, the most common translation of the term "Parkinson's disease" is the loanword "Bệnh Parkinson". The term is also less commonly translated as "Bệnh liệt run", a loan translation from the term "paralysis agitans", which James Parkinson also employed to refer to this disease (see Le, 1984, p. 185). The term *nystagmus*, on the other hand, is transferred into Vietnamese language through the circumlocution "*dấu hiệu rung giật nhãn cầu*" (the sign of jerky movements of the eyes).

III. Term Translation Procedures

Vinay & Darbelnet's (1977) translation procedures encompass:

1) Direct borrowing

Illustrations of direct borrowing include "test" and "oxygen", which however should be translated as "xét nghiệm" and "dưỡng khí" respectively, rather than being retained in the target language.

2) Calque/loan translation

In calque or loan translation procedure, the lexical components of the term in the source language is translated, then arranged in the target language in a sequence analogous or nearly analogous to that of the lexical components of the term in the source language:

milk + tooth

sữa   răng = răng sữa

musculus + sterno + cleido + mastoideus

cơ   ức   đòn   chũm   = cơ ức đòn chũm

3) Literal translation

Literal translation occurs in case of the coincidence between the set of semantic components and the set of lexical components. For instance:

While loan translation entails the syntax of the components, literal translation entails the semantic relationship among the components. For example,

Loan translation: rheumatic + fever
                           thấp   sốt   = sốt thấp
Literal translation: drug + fever
                           thuốc   sốt   = sốt do thuốc (fever caused by drug)

The first components of both terms "rheumatic" (implying "rheumatic factor") and "drug" refer to the causes of the diseases. Literal translation elucidates the causal relationship in the translation of "drug fever", but loan translation does not refer to this sort of relationship, so the term is translated as "sốt thấp" instead of "sốt do yếu tố thấp" (fever caused by rheumatic factor).

4) Transposition

Transposition entails the grammatical changes but no semantic changes. The following examples denote changes in word formation from the source terms to their translations:

vein (single word)   *translated*   tĩnh mạch (complex word)
arteriosclerosis (complex word)   ⟶   xơ cứng động mạch (phrase)
Nymphaea tetragona Georgi (phrase)   súng (single word)

Transposition also occurs when nominalizations are translated as verbal forms in Vietnamese language since the Vietnamese tend to employ verbal structure (Tran 2004: 296) rathern than nominalizations as "detransitivizing devices" (Martínez, 2002, p. 1). Thus, in the following medical text, the nominalization "disease activity" is translated as the verbal construction "bệnh đang tiến triển" (disease being active) rather than "sự tiến triển của bệnh" (the activity of the disease):

Source text	Translation
Fever accompanies a wide variety of illnesses and is a valuable marker of *disease activity*.	Sốt đi kèm với nhiều loại bệnh và là một chỉ dẫn có giá trị *bệnh đang tiến triển*.

Transposition is also resorted to when the relationship among the lexical components of the term is seen from a different perspective in the target language. In the phrasal term "Acute drug induced tubuloinstertial nephritis", "nephritis" is modified by "tubuloinstertial", "drug induced", and "acute" in this sequence, so literal translation of the term will produce the target term "Viêm ống thận mô kẽ do thuốc cấp tính" (tubuloinstertial nephritis + drug induced + acute). However, in Vietnamese language, the cause is prone to pursue the characteristics of the disease, so this term is translated as "Viêm ống thận mô kẽ cấp tính do thuốc" (tubuloinstertial nephritis + acute + drug induced)

5) Modulation

Van Hoof (1989, p. 126) views "modulation as a type of transposition at the global level, applying to categories of thought, not grammatical categories".

Comparing the medical terms in *Mosby's Medical Dictionary* (6th ed.) (2002) with Vietnamese medical terms shows the reverse shifts of modulation forms found by Vinay & Darbelnet (1977), Van Hoof (1989, p. 126), and Chuquet & Paillard (1987, pp. 30, 26, 28), as well as different spatial viewpoint. Shifts in modulation are displayed in the following examples (Vietnamese translations trail the arrows).

(1) Abstract ⇆ concrete
    Abstract → concrete: floating kidney   → thận di động
                                                        (kidney + moving)
                               floating ribs   → xương sườn cụt

(rib + cut off/too short)

frozen shoulder → khớp vai hạn chế

(shoulder + limited)

Concrete → abstract: sexually transmitted disease (STD)

→ bệnh hoa liễu (disease + flower and willow [, which probably comes from the Japanese word *karyūkai* 花柳界 "the flower and willow world" implying the elegant, high-culture world of geisha]).

(2) Cause ⇆ effect

Cause → effect: poliomyelitis → Sốt bại liệt
 (fever + paralysis)

Effect → cause: tuberculosis → lao
(tuber = swelling) (due to working too hard)

(3) Means ⇆ result

Means → result: undescended testis → tinh hoàn ẩn
(incomplete descending) (hidden testis)

Result → means: hemothorax → tràn máu màng phổi
(blood in the thorax) (blood flooding pleural cavity)

ulna → xương trụ
(ulna [Latin, elbow] = elbow bone)
(xương trụ = the bone functioning as a pivot)

(4) Part ⇆ whole

Part → whole: meningococcemia → nhiễm não mô cầu
(meninges = part) (the infection involving brain (= whole) tissue)

Whole → part: hydrothorax → tràn dịch màng phổi
(thorax = whole) (fluid flooding pleural cavity (= part))

sleepwalking → mộng du
(sleep = whole) (walking in the dream (= a part of the sleep))

(5) A ⇆ Negation of not-A

A → Negation of not-A:

fainting → bất tỉnh
(not + conscious [= not fainting])

Negation of not-A → A:

insanity → loạn tâm thần (mental illness)
(in + sanity [= opposite "mental illness"])

(6) Different temporal/spatial viewpoint

Different temporal viewpoint:

prolonged pregnancy → thai già tháng
(too old fetus)

Different spatial viewpoint:

articulatio radioulnaris distalis → khớp quay trụ dưới
(= inferior radioulnar joint)

(7) Different part/phase of the same process

Psoriasis [Greek, itch] is etymologically a minor symptom of the disease whereas its Vietnamese translation "vảy nến" (wax-like scales) is a major manifestation of the disease.

(8) One metaphor to another

heart murmur → âm thổi tim
(the blowing sound of the heart)

risus sardonicus → vẻ mặt cười nhăn
(laughter + mocking) (laughter + pulling faces)

kneecap → xương bánh chè
(cake-shaped bone)

spur → gai xương
(spur = spur-shaped projection of bone from a body structure)
(gai xương = thorn-shaped projection of bone from a body structure)

tapeworm → sán xơ mít
(tape-shaped worm) ("jackfruit bulb" worm, implying worm resembling the edible bulbs of ripe jackfruit)

roseola → ban đào (Luu, 2009)
(= rose-colored rash) ("peach blossom" rash, implying peach blossom-colored rash)

(9) Metaphor ⇆ Non-metaphor

Metaphor → Non-metaphor: cradle cap → bệnh nấm da đầu

(dermatitis of the scalp)

Non-metaphor → Metaphor: lymphogranuloma venereum (LGV)

→ bệnh hột xoài

("mango stone" disease, in which the metaphor "mango stone" refers to marked swelling of the lymph nodes in the groin)

epidemic parotitis   →   bệnh quai bị

("bag-shaped swollen jaw" disease)

(10) Popular style ⇆ Professional/Academic style

Popular style → Professional/Academic style:

windpipe   →   khí quản (equivalent to "trachea" in terms of stylistic scale)

Professional/Academic style → Popular style:

anaemia   →   thiếu máu ("lack of blood")

ductus arteriosus →   ống động mạch ("arterial duct")

molluscum   →   u mềm ("soft tumor")

in vivo   →   trên cơ thể sống ("on the human body")

(11) One color to another

pinkeye   →   bệnh đau mắt đỏ ("red eye")

cyanosis   →   chứng xanh tím

[Greek, kyanos, blue]   ("blue and violet skin")

6) Adaptation

Adaptation is "the search for the term's equivalent in the target language based on its set of semantic component as a whole, rather than translating each semantic or lexical component of the term" (Luu, 2011).
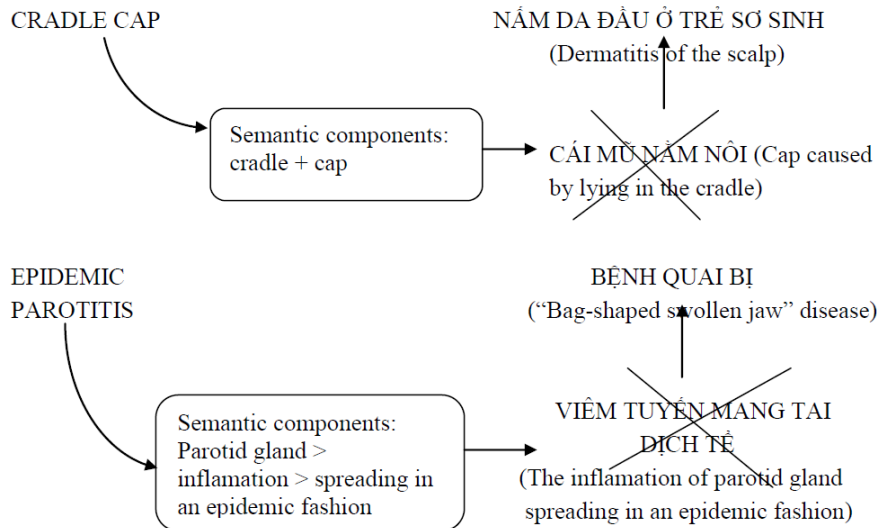
IV. TRANSLATING TERMS IN THE CONTEXT

Luu (2011) proposes **Coordinate Translation Model** "which has three axes: X axis – translation unit axis, Y axis – concept equivalent axis, and Z axis – language task schema axis" as displayed in Figure 2.
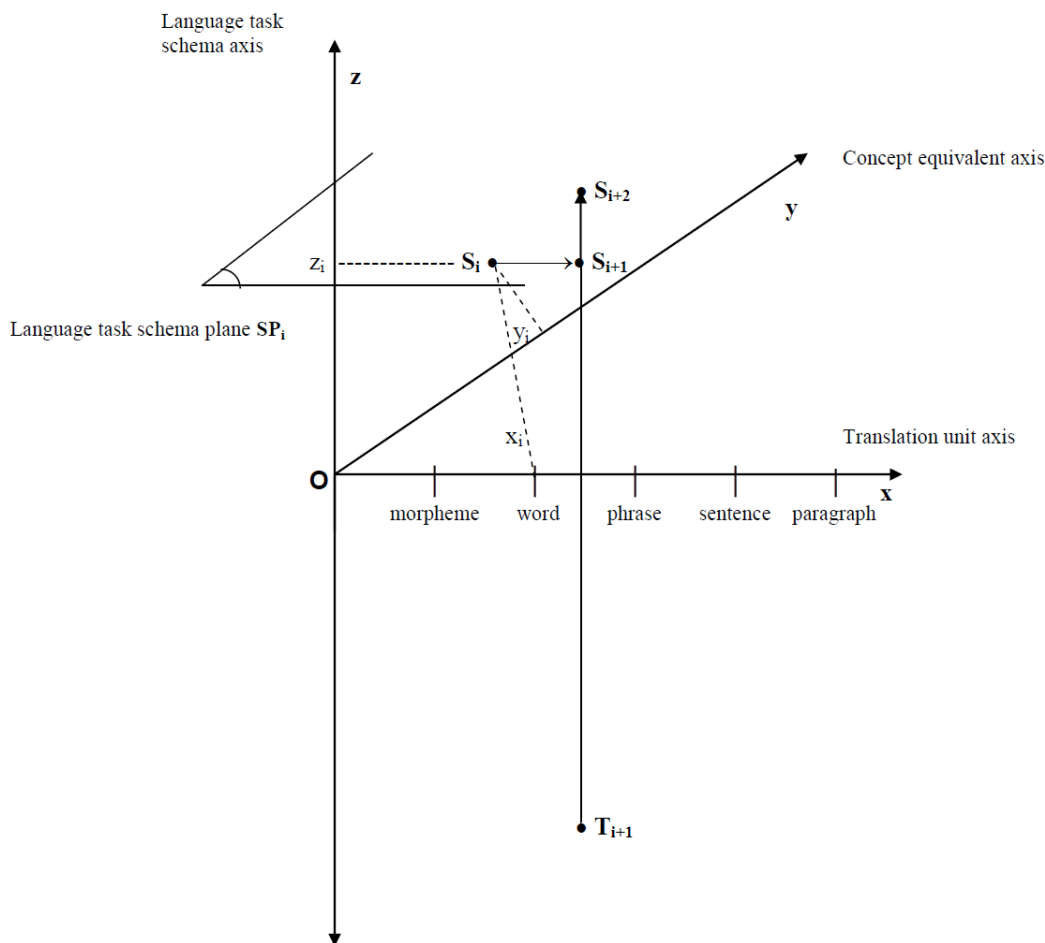
Figure 2. Coordinate translation model

For instance, facing the phrase "yellow fever" in the text at http://www.who.int/mediacentre/factsheets/fs100/en/, the translator needs to determine if the translation unit(s) is (are) the whole phrase "yellow phrase" or words "yellow" and "fever". In view of the semantic components of "yellow" [color > yellow] and "fever" [body temperature > exceeding 37^oC], "yellow" can not be an adjective of the noun "fever", so the translation unit is the entire phrase "yellow fever". This translation unit is further confirmed through the analysis of the interaction between the phrase and the intra-sentential/inter-sentential components. In the first sentence, the complement "a viral disease" provides a definition for the subject "yellow fever", asserting that "yellow fever" is not a symptom (if "yellow fever" were an unidiomatic phrase, it would be a symptom), but a disease. Furthermore, the fourth sentence shows that the component "yellow" is not an attribute of "fever", but a symptom. Thus, "yellow fever" is composed of two major symptoms "yellow" and "fever", and here there is a transition from $x_i \rightarrow x_{i+1}$=word $\rightarrow$ phrase, and the term "yellow fever" is translated as "sốt vàng da" (fever + jaundice), not "sốt vàng" (fever + yellow) in Vietnamese language.

Unlike the above case, the text at http://www.fpnotebook.com/ID45.htm provides an illustration on words being discerned as translation units. In the text, the phrases "remittent fever", "intermittent fever", "hectic fever" and "sustained fever" can be decomposed into words as translation units since the lexical components "remittent", "intermittent", "hectic" and "sustained" represent the attributes of the concept "fever". Governed by the text title "Fever", these phrases display the types of fever defined at B.1&2, C.1&2, D.1&2, và E.1&2, and are translated as "tái hồi", "từng cơn", "thất thường" and "liên tục". On the contrary, at C.3.b. in the text, the term "relapsing fever" is an example of the diseases with Intermittent Fever, so cannot be broken down into two translation units "relapsing" and "fever".

V. Conclusion

Scientific terms contribute to academic style of a science text. Translating a scientific term, whether inside or outside a context, involves identification of translation units, functional equivalence degree, and how semantic components are recombined. The paper also revisits Vinay & Darbelnet's (1977) translation procedures for translating terms outside the context, as well as proposes Coordinate Translation Model for translating terms in the context.

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Luu Hoang Mai is an EFL lecturer at Thu Dau Mot University, Binh Duong Province, Vietnam. She earned her MA in TESOL from Victoria University, Australia. Her research interest includes linguistics, translation, and English teaching.

Luu Thi Bich Ngoc earned BA degree from National University of Ho Chi Minh City. She is now a teacher at Open University, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam and displays research interests in classroom management and educational leadership.

Luu Trong Tuan is currently a lecturer in reasearch methodology at Open University, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. He received his PhD from Asian Institute of Technology, Thailand.

Evidentiality in English Research Articles of Applied Linguistics: From the Perspective of Metadiscourse

Linxiu Yang

The Foreign Languages School, Shanxi University, China

Abstract—**This paper investigates, from the metadiscourse perspective, the linguistic phenomenon of evidentiality in English Research Articles (RAs) of applied linguistics. Based on a corpus of 100 RAs, the study first presents its own classification of evidentiality and their specific lexicogrammatical realizations. Then, following Hyland's metadiscourse model (2005), it examines in detail how different evidential types and linguistic realizations can function as various metadiscourse devices and what roles they can play in the construction and attainment of persuasion. The study has shown the multiple metadiscourse functions of evidentiality. It provides a new perspective to understand evidentiality.**

Index Terms—**evidentiality, metadiscourse, RAs**

I. WHAT IS EVIDENTIALITY

The linguistic phenomenon of evidentiality exists in almost all the languages and has recently become a hot research issue in linguistics. However, there has been no consensus yet on what evidentiality is and what kind of linguistic category it is. Yet, this is the elementary basis for any evidential study for different definitions lead to different perspective and research focus. Therefore, it is necessary to clarify the understanding of evidentiality in the current study before the analysis.

Generally, the disagreements of what evidentiality is mainly occur in the following two aspects: whether evidentiality is a grammatical category or a semantic one and what is the semantic scope of evidentiality.

First, as to whether evidentiality is a grammatical category or a semantic one, studies have shown that it is language-specific. In about a quarter of the world's languages, every statement is required to specify the type of source on which it is based —for example, whether the speaker sees it, hears it, infers it from indirect evidence, or learns it from someone else. This linguistic category, whose primary meaning is information source, is called '**evidentiality**'. In Boas'(1938) words, 'while for us definiteness, number, and time are obligatory aspects, we find in another language location near the speaker or someone else, [and] source of information — whether seen, heard, or inferred — as obligatory aspects'(p.133).

From Boas' words, it can be seen that in some languages, evidentiality is an obligatory category. As to how to express evidentiality, different languages demonstrate different evidential systems. Tariana, an Arawak language spoken in the multilingual area of the Vaupes in northeast Amazonia, has a complex evidential system. In this language, one can not simply say '*Jose played football*'. Instead, speakers have to specify whether they see the event happen, hear it, or know about it because somebody else tells them, etc. This is achieved through a set of evidential markers fused with tense. Omitting an evidential in Tariana will result in an ungrammatical and highly unnatural sentence. Look at the following examples.

(a) Juse ifida di-manika-*ka*.
    'Jose has played football (we saw it)'
(b) Juse ifida di-manika-*mahka.*
    'Jose has played football (we heard it)'
(c) Juse ifida di-manika-*nihka.*
    'Jose has played football (we infer it from visual evidence)'
(d) Juse ifida di-manika-*sika.*
    'Jose has played football (we assume this on the basis of what we already know)'
    (Adapted from Aikhenvald, 2004:2)

The examples above illustrate that the evidentiality is obligatory in the language of Tariana. To mark the information source, some markers are used, such as *ka, mahka, nihka* and *sika,* which are termed as *evidentials* or *evidential markers* in evidential studies. These instances show that in Tariana evidentiality is a grammatical category and it is expressed through affixes or clitics. However, this is only one of the understandings concerning evidentiality and evidentials. If evidentiality is defined from the formal perspective, it seems that evidentiality only occurs in some languages, but not universal. For example, in the languages of English, Chinese, German and so on, there are no

grammaticalised evidential systems. In these languages, there are no affixes or clitics to express evidentiality. Thus, concerning evidentiality, there exist different research orientations. While some linguists still show great enthusiasm for describing the grammatical evidential systems of some languages, more researchers agree that evidentiality is not a grammatical form, but a semantic category. It is agreed that the semantics of evidential is universal and exist in almost all the languages in the world. The differences exist in whether it is obligatory or optional and how the semantics is construed in grammatical, lexical or whatever forms. For example, Japanese presents a quite complex system of evidential coding. It has both grammaticalised and non-grammaticalised evidentials (Mushin, 2001). Unlike Tariana and Japanese, the evidential category in English is not grammaticalised (Lazard, 2001). Yet, English has a rich repertoire of evidential devices (Chafe, 1986). It has a broad range of devices such as verbs, adverbs, adjectives, nouns and so on. According to Chafe (1986), the difference between some Indian languages and English in evidentiality is not a matter of evidential vs. no evidentials. It is partly a question of how evidentiality is expressed: is it by suffixes, adverbs and what?

Studies have also shown that some linguists still stick to the grammaticalised evidentials and exclude other realization forms of evidentiality. However, more researchers tend to take evidentiality as a semantic one and study various forms in different languages. In English, if evidentiality is taken as a grammatical category, just as in some Indian languages, it appears unnecessary to study evidentiality, for there seems to be no grammaticalised evidentials. In fact, many researchers have been studying evidentiality in English (e.g. Chafe, 1986; Palmer, 1990, 2001; Mushin, 2000, 2001; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Hu, 1994; Fang, 2005; Tang, 2007; Yang, 2009, 2010), which shows that the notion of evidentiality as a semantic one has been broadly accepted. This study also takes evidentiality as a semantic notion.

Secod, there has been no common understanding of the semantic scope of evidentiality. It is claimed (Aikhenvald, 2004) that evidentiality is an obligatory grammatical category in the language of Tariana whose primary meaning is to indicate the source of information. This view is considered as the narrower understanding of evidentiality in evidential studies. Bussemann (1996, one of the linguists who hold the narrow view on evidentiality, defines evidentiality as "the structural dimension of grammar that codifies the source of information transmitted by a speaker with the aid of various types of constructions" (p. 157). Aikhenvald (2003) also overtly declares the narrow view of evidentiality. She defines the term 'evidentiality' in its strict grammatical sense. She holds that the gratuitous extension of evidentiality to cover every way of expressing uncertainty, probability and one's attitude to the information is one of the current misconceptions concerning evidentiality. She thinks that this extension will be unhelpful and quite uninformative and that this approach obscures the status of evidentiality distinct from modality, mood and tense. Those who hold the narrow definition of evidentiality mainly put their focuses on some highly-inflectional languages and concentrate on the detailed descriptions of the grammatical evidential systems.

However, this is only one side of the coin. There is another understanding which holds that with the indication of information source as the core meaning, evidentiality may also be related to the degree of the speaker's certainty of the information. Compared with the previous one, this is a broad view of evidentiality. First, it does not confine evidentiality to a grammatical one. Instead, it treats evidentiality as a semantic notion and whatever forms of evidentials are within the scope of research. Second, evidentiality, in addition to indicating the information source, may acquire other meanings — of reliability, probability, possibility, etc. Third, the semantics of evidentiality is universal, and is expressed in different languages. Some languages have grammaticalised systems to indicate evidentiality, but others not. In some languages, evidentiality is obligatory, but in others not. Chafe (1986) is the leading figure who defines evidentiality in its broadest sense. He defines evidentiality as 'attitude toward information'. Under the broader definitions, both grammatical evidentials and lexical ones are taken into considerations. Therefore, evidential studies are not only confined to those languages with grammatical evidential systems, but also extended to almost all the languages in the world.

In spite of different opinions toward evidentiality stated above, in this paper, I take evidentiality as a semantic notion to indicate the information source and at the same time the speaker's degree of commitment to the factual status of the information. It can have various lexicogrammatical realizations, such as grammatical or lexical ones.

II.   WHY FROM METADISCOURSE PERSPECTIVE?

Since the first mention of evidentiality by Franz Boas (1938), many researchers have devoted much to this linguistic phenomenon from various perspectives including typological, cognitive linguistics, pragmatics, systemic functional linguistics and so on (Aikhenvald, 2003, 2004; Chafe & Nichols, 1986; Lazard, 2001; Martin-Arrese, 2004; Mushin, 2000, 2001, to just name a few). In China, some scholars also study evidentiality from various perspectives (Hu, 1994, 1995; Niu, 2005; Zhu, 2006; Fang, 2005; 2006, 2008; Tang, 2007).

In spite of the recent surge for evidential studies and the achievements made in previous researches, the study is still in its infancy. There are many aspects to be explored. Generally speaking, the previous studies have the following characteristics. First, some researchers still put emphasis on grammatical descriptions of the evidential systems in some languages. Second, the researches seem to be confined to the lexis and clausal level, and evidential studies at discourse and genre level are much fewer than enough. In addition, few systematic researches on evidentiality in academic discourse have been conducted. Third, few studies have touched the interpersonal functions of evidentiality, especially from metadiscourse perspective.

On considering the limitations of the previous studies on evidentiality, I have found the necessity and urgency of evidential studies at the genre level and from the metadiscourse perspective. Therefore, this paper will fill this gap by focusing on the interpersonal functions of evidentiality, from the metadiscourse perspective, in English Research Articles of applied linguistics.

III.   THEORETICAL CONSIDERATION

This study takes metadiscourse perspective to examine evidentiality. Metadiscourse, as is defined by Williams (1981), refers to "discourse about discourse, which is irrelevant to the subject matter" (p. 211-212). Crismore (1983) takes a functional approach to metadiscourse, defining it as "the directives given to the readers so they will understand what is said and meant in the primary discourse and know how to take the author" (p.2). He argues that when metadiscourse is used appropriately, the non-content aspect of the text (i.e. metadiscourse) can serve to guide and direct a reader through a text by helping him to understand the text and the author's perspective. Vande Kopple (1985) takes metadiscourse as the discourse about the primary propositional information of the text. It has the functions to guide the readers to organize, classify, reiterate, evaluate and reflected on the information conveyed by the text.

In response to two categorizations of metadiscourse given by Crismore and Vande Kopple, Hyland (2005) holds that there exist ambiguity and uncertainty about what features to be included in the analysis and how to categorize these. He (2005) presents a clear definition of metadiscourse.

Metadiscourse is the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of particular community. (p. 37)

Based on a functional approach which regards metadiscourse as the ways the writer refers to the text, the writer or the reader, Hyland builds an interpersonal model of metadiscourse. He regards metadiscourse as a means of conceptualizing the interpersonal relationship. No matter how the metadiscourse is categorized, it is interpersonal by nature. In Hyland's model, metadiscourse consists of two dimensions of interactions (Hyland, 2005).

1. *The interactive dimension*. This concerns the writer's awareness of a participating audience and the ways he or she seeks to accommodate its probable knowledge, interests, rhetorical expectations and processing abilities. The writer's purpose here is to shape and constrain a text to meet the needs of particular readers, setting out arguments so that they will recover the writer's preferred interpretations and goals.

2. *The interactional dimension*. This concerns the ways the writer conducts an interaction by intruding and commenting on their message. The writer's goal here is to make his or her views explicit and to involve readers by allowing them to respond to the unfolding text. This is the writer's expressions of a textual 'voice', or community-recognized personality, and includes the ways he or she conveys judgements and overtly aligns him- or herself with readers. Metadiscourse here is essentially evaluative and engaging, expressing solidarity, anticipating objections and responding to an imagined dialogue with others. It reveals the extent to which the writer works to construct the text with readers.

Based on the two dimensions, the categorizations of metadiscourse can be modeled as the following table shows.

TABLE 1
HYLAND'S CATEGORIZATION OF METADISCOURSE

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	**Help to guide the reader through the text**	**Resources**
Transitions	express relations between main clauses	In addition; but; thus; and
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	finally; to conclude; my purpose is
Endophoric markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above, see Fig;
Evidential	refer to information from other texts	according to X; Z states
Code glosees	elaborate propositional meanings	namely; e.g. such as
Interactional	**Involve the reader in the text**	**Resources**
Hedges	withhold commitment and open dialogue	might; perhaps; possible
Boosters	emphasize certainty or close dialogue	in fact; definitely;it is clear that
Attitude markers	express the writer's attitude to proposition	unfortunately; I agree;
Self mention	explicit reference to authors	I; we; my; me; our
Engagement markers	explicitly build relationship with reader	consider; note;

From the above model, we can see that in the category of interactive metadiscourse, "evidential", but it differs from "evidentiality" in this study. In my study, the semantics of evidentiality is more than "evidential" in Hyland's metadiscourse model. In the following analysis, I will classify evidentiality into different types (see Section 5.1). It is supposed that different types of evidentiality can function as metadiscourse devices, such as the inferring evidentials, such as *may, must, might,* and *possibly*, can function as hedges or boosters in this model.

Based on Hyland's model, I extend evidentiality into metadiscourse model to check the multifunctionality of evidentials in RAs of Applied Linguistics. It is hope to prove that by choosing the appropriate evidentials, the RA writer can interact with the reader and also make the propositional content more coherent, intelligible and persuasive to the reader.

<div align="center">IV. DATA AND METHODOLOGY</div>

The corpus consists of 100 RAs in Applied Linguistics amounting to about 700,000 words. The articles are downloaded from the Internet (www.elsevier.com). The journals selected for this study are: *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* (2004-2008), *Journal of English for Specific Purposes* (2004-2008), and *Journal of Pragmatics* (2004-2008). The data of RAs are confined to the same period because of the fact that genres are on the one hand quite stable in a certain period of time. On the other hand, they are also in a state of constant evolution, as Fairclough (1992) notes, "a genre implies not only a particular text type, but also particular processes of producing, distributing and consuming text.… Changes in social practice are both manifested on the plane of language in changes in the system of genre, and in part brought about by such changes". The genre of RAs also may change over time. Therefore, in order to examine the linguistic features of RAs, the study chooses RAs published during the same time for the validity of the research results.

The data-coding of this research is done manually at the preliminary stage to identify and count all the potential lexical and discourse-based items that indicate different evidential types. The material for data-coding includes the body of the articles, i.e. the complete text of the articles, excluding abstracts, notes, linguistic examples, tables, and figures. Then, Microsoft Office Excel is adopted to deal with the data and draw the figures accordingly. In addition, in order to take the context of evidentials into consideration to find the concordance patterns, a concordance software is also adopted. The statistical results are the basis for later illustration of evidentiality as a discourse strategy to fulfill the function of metadiscourse. The frequency of occurrence of each group of items is calculated in permillage.

<div align="center">V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS</div>

A. Classification of Evidential in the Current Study

Based on the previous classifications of evidentiality and considering the unique generic characteristics of RAs, this research takes the broader view of evidentiality proposed by Chafe(1986) and at the same time it draws on Willett's and Tang's classifications(2007). Although we admit that evidentiality can reveal attitude toward knowledge in addition to indicating information source, this attitude is not as broad as Chafe's. Evidentiality only concerns the speaker/writer's attitude toward the factual status of knowledge. For example, in the proposition "*It is important that the corpus ...*", "*it is important*" indicates the attitude toward the proposition "*the corpus …*", but this kind of attitude is beyond the scope of the evidential analysis, for it is not about the factual status of the proposition.

The preliminary sample survey shows that four evidential types frequently occur in the genre of RAs: sensory evidentials, reporting evidentials (further divided into other-reporting and self-reporting evidentials), inferring evidentials, and belief evidentials. The classification is shown in Figure 1.

<div align="center">Figure 1 Classification of evidentiality in the current study</div>

B. Lexicogrammatical Realizations of Evidential Types in RAs

Based on the corpus, we conclude the lexicogrammatical patterns of evidential types in RAs in Table 2 for a clearer picture.

TABLE 2
LEXICOGRAMMATICAL PATTERNS OF EVIDENTIAL TYPES IN RAS

Evidential types	Typical Realizations		Examples
Sensory evidential types	first-person pronoun plus see verb*s* or passive forms of see		I/we see; be seen
	it is/can be seen		It is/can be seen that
	as (be) seen		as seen above
Belief evidential types	subjective	I/we+mental state verb	I think; I believe; I/we suggest
		Adjunct	In my/our view,
	objective	it (modal verb)+mental state verbed	It can be suggested; it may be tentatively argued
		Adjunct	arguably; admittedly
Reporting evidential types	(author+year) or (website+year)		(Hunston, 2000)
	Verbal realization	*verb that* structure, *be verbed* structure,	X argue, maintain, found, …that
		it is ved structure	It is argued, it has been revealed
		as structure.	as indicated by…
	Non-verbal realization	noun that	fact, observation, agreement, finding, view, claim,
		Adjunct	according to X, in X's data, in X's view
Inferring evidential types	Modal verbs		can; may;could; might; must;
	Relational process		Seem to/that; appear to/that
	Modal adjunct		clearly, probably, evidently, possibly, certainly, obviously,
	impersonal *it* structure		it's possible that, it's certain that, it's clear that, it's evident that

C. *Evidentiality as Metadiscourse*

1. Evidentiality as interactive metadiscourse

According to Hyland's model, interactive metadiscourse aims to organize propositional information in the ways that a projected target audience is likely to find coherent and convincing. Clearly, they are not simply text-organizing. They are a consequence of the writer's assessment of the reader's assumed comprehension capacities, understandings of the related texts, and need for interpretive guidance, as well as the relationship between the writer and the reader. Under this heading, several categories are included, such as transitions *(in addition to, but, thus, and)* to express the relations between the main clauses, frame markers (*finally, to conclude, my purpose is*) to refer to the discourse acts, sequences, or stages, endographic markers(*noted above, see Fig*) to refer to the information in other parts of the text, evidentials (*according to X, X states*) to refer to the information from other texts and also code glosses (*namely, e.g., such as*) to elaborate the propositional meanings. All these metadiscourse markers help to create a reader-friendly text for they can guide the reader through the text and make it more possible for the information to be interpreted in the way preferred by the writer.

As for the metadiscourse functions of evidentiality, it is found that in RAs, different evidentials can function as different types of interactive metadiscourse with the same purpose of making the writing more coherent and more convincing. The following are the specific analyses.

First, other-reporting evidentials can function as what are referred to as evidentials (they are not in the broad sense of evidentialitiy in the current research) in the metadiscourse model by Hyland (2005). Evidentials in the model are used in a narrow sense and refered to 'metalinguistic representations of an idea from another source' (Thomas & Hawes, 1994). They can function as a guide to the reader's interpretation and establish an authorial command of the subject. They may involve hearsay or attribution to a reliable source. In academic writing, they often refer to a community-based literature and provide important support for argument.

Other-reporting evidentials are usually studied as "citations" in RAs. This explicit reference to prior literature is a substantial indication of a text's dependence on contextual knowledge and thus a vital piece in the collaborative construction of new knowledge between writers and readers. The embedding of arguments in networks of references not only suggests a cumulative and linear progression, but reminds us that statements are invariably a response to previous statements. Fairclough (1992), extending Bakhtin, refers to these intertextual relations as 'manifest intertextuality', which he distinguishes form 'constitutive intertextuality':

In manifest intertextuality, other parts are explicitly present in the text under analysis; they are 'manifestly' marked or cued by features on the surface of the text such as quotation marks….The constitutive intertextuality of a text, however, is the configuration of discourse conventions that go into its production. (p.104)

Other-reporting evidentials also show the interaction between the writer, the cited author and the cited information. Through the evaluative functions in other-reporting evidential type discussed above, the writer shows his relative stances in relation to the cited authors and the cited information, which will guide the reader to interpret the propositions in the way anticipated by the writer so that the persuasive purpose will be obtained.

Second, self-reporting evidentials in RAs can function as endophoric markers. Endophoric markers are the expressions which refer to other parts of the text (*as noted above, as discussed in Chapter 2*). They make additional ideational material salient and therefore available to the reader in aiding the recovery of the writer's meanings, often

facilitating comprehension and supporting argument by referring to earlier materials or anticipating something yet to come. By guiding the reader through the discourse, these markers help to steer the reader to a preferred interpretation or reacting to the discourse. As discussed above, self-reporting evidentials can indicate that the information is from the writer himself, such as *the writer(s), the article, our research, our data, our analysis, our tables and figures, our examples* and so on. At the same time they can steer the reader's thinking and influence his/her interpretation of the given information.

(1) ***As noted** earlier*, the ability to cite appropriately is of key importance in academic writing, but presents considerable difficulty for the novice writer.

(2) This paper will focus specifically on the use of retrospective labels in the construction of stance, ***as illustrated in (1) below***.

(3) Moreover, ***as noted** above,* these labels are interactive; their use affects the reader's perception of the propositions and so enables the reader to perceive the organization and meaning that the writer intends.

In the examples above, the evidentials *as noted earlier, as illustrated in (1) below, as noted above* function as 'endophoric markers'. These markers 'play an important role in making additional ideational material salient and therefore available to the reader in aiding the recovery to the writer's argumentative intentions' (Hyland, 1998). Endophoric markers are important in the process of persuasion in academic writing because the reader always has the possibilities of reinterpreting the propositional materials and even rejecting the writer's viewpoints. In order for the reader to recover the writer's intentions, the writer has to anticipate and respond to the possible negation of his claims.

2. Evidentiality as interactional metadiscourse

Different from interactive metadiscourse, interactional metadiscourse involves readers and opens the opportunities for them to contribute to the discourse by alerting them to the writer's perspective towards both the propositional information and readers themselves. They can control the level of personality in a text as the writer acknowledges and connects to others, pulling readers along with their argument, focusing their attention, acknowledging their uncertainties and guiding them to interpretations. Interpersonal metediscourse resources are the means by which the writer expresses his views and engages with the socially determined positions of others. They therefore act to anticipate, acknowledge, challenge or suppress alternative, potentially divergent positions and expand or restrict opportunities for such views (White, 2003). Under this heading, several categories are included, such as hedges (*might, possible, perhaps*) to withhold commitment and open dialogue, boosters (*in fact, definitely, it is clear that…*) to emphasize the certainty or close the dialogue, attitude markers (*unfortunately, I think, I agree*) to express the writer's attitude to proposition, self mention (*I, we, my, our*) to explicit reference to the author and engagement markers (*consider, note*) to explicitly build relationship with the reader. These metadiscourse markers are the means to involve the reader in the text and make the reader actively involved in the text construction. Just as evidentiality can function as interactive metadiscourse, the following will show how evidentiality can function as interactional metadiscourse.

First, evidentials functions as hedges. Hedges are the devices indicating the writer's decision to recognize alternative voices and viewpoints and therefore withhold complete commitment toward a proposition. Hedges emphasize the subjectivity of a position by allowing the information to be presented as an opinion rather than a fact and therefore open that position to negotiation. Hedges imply that a statement is based on the writer's plausible reasoning rather than certain knowledge, indicating low degree of confidence. Some types of evidentials can function as hedges to show the writer's partial commitment to the validity of propositions.

Inferring evidentials are the primary group to function as hedges. Inferring evidentials, such as *might, may, perhaps, possible, probably*, and so on, function as hedges in that they indicate low commitment to the validity to propositions. They open a space for alternative viewpoints and negotiation with the reader. For example:

(4) ***It is possible that*** thesis writers tend to deal with the literature by discussing individual papers at some length, rather than by subsuming a number of papers under a single comment.

(5) Thus, it ***may*** be more appropriate for a thesis writer to use a verb when dealing with aspects of the literature where there is a conflict or uncertainty.

In Examples (4) and (5), by using the two evidentials *it is possible that* and *may* as hedges, the writers withhold their full commitment to the propositions and suggest what they present is just one of the several possibilities. These evidentials, on the one hand, reveal the uncertainty of the truth. On the other hand, it is a strategy that the writer uses to avoid taking full responsibility for the factual status of the propositions. By using them, the writer expects the possible negation, criticism or later confirmation from other researchers. By revealing the uncertainty of truth, the writer adopts these evidentials to function as hedges to distance himself from the propositions and opens the dialogic space for the propositions.

Some self-reporting verbs can also function as hedges. Self-reporting evidentials are mainly adopted in *Findings and Discussion and Conclusion* parts to report what the writer has found and what the findings can indicate. In these two parts, the writer often chooses more tentative reporting verbs rather than the assertive and factive ones. Assertive and factive verbs will give the impression of imposing and close down the negotiation space between the writer and the reader. Therefore, in order to be more modest and more reader-friendly, when the writer presents his findings, he tends to choose some tentative reporting verbs. In the corpus, it is found that the most frequently used tentative reporting verbs is *suggest* with the occurrence of 21 out of the total self-reporting verbs.

(6) ***These results suggests that*** the majority of researcher in a second language acquisition research tend to employ the move the structure M1-M2-Ms, which is to say they first establish the territory in M1, then establish the niche in M2, and end their RA introductions by occupying the niche in M3.

(7) ***Our study shows that*** problems with perception have a significant and system impact on the very common, familiar settings of many conversations in noisy rooms.

The examples above adopt the self-reporting evidentials *suggest* and *show* to show what the writer has found in the research, but different verbs are used. The verb *suggest* here functions as a hedging device, as it allows the writer to withhold the whole commitment to the propositions so that the writer will take less modal responsibility. In contrast, the verb *show* is different in functions, as it can indicate the writer's higher degree of commitment and higher degree of modal responsibility, which is categorized as boosters, and will be discussed in the following part.

Belief evidentials can also function as hedges. Belief evidentials refer to the writer's overt opinion of a proposition, such as *I believe, I argue, I think, in my view, to my knowledge*, and so on. They provide a way to confine the commitment to the proposition to the writer him/herself and allow for alternative viewpoints.

(8) A further reason stems, ***I think***, from the nature of the thesis itself.

(9) ***I suggest*** that the ability to handle nouns used as retrospective labels is important for thesis writers.

The belief evidentials like *I think* and *I suggest* in the two examples above indicate the subjective intrusion of the writers into the propositions. They confine the views to their own, which shows the writers' full responsibility for what they think or believe. By using these evidentials as hedges, the writer admits the possible alternative views from others. Therefore, it can be a politeness strategy for face-saving for both the writer and the reader. However these belief evidentials are the most explicit and subjective way for the writer to be involved in the text. In order to keep the objectivity of RAs, these cases are not very common in our data.

In conclusion, by using evidentials as hedges, the writer makes his claims less assertive and imposing. He makes a dialogue with the reader, expects the possible objections from others, and expresses his less certainty of the propositions. Although hedges show the writer's tentativeness in claim-making, his credibility is consolidated because of the relativity of truth in the world.

Second, evidentials functions as boosters. Boosters, in contrast to hedges, are words such as *clearly, obviously, and demonstrate,* which allow the writer to close down alternatives, head off conflicting views and express his certainty of his claims. They suggest that the writer recognizes the potentially diverse positions but has chosen to narrow this diversity rather than enlarge it, confronting alternatives with a single, confident voice. By adopting boosters, the writer is confident and shows his certainty of the validity of the proposition.

The above has mentioned that inferring evidentials can function as hedges, but contrary to the ones as hedges, some inferring evidentials such as *evident, clear, likely, must, can, shall* and so on can also function as boosters and denote the high reliability and high modal value. Such inferring evidentials suggest that the writer has quite reliable evidences to show strong commitment to the validity of the propositions. For example:

(10) ***As is evident***, the difficulties understanding what was needed in this advisor/advisee relationship went both ways.

(11) ***It is clear*** from this example that much work remains to be done to shed further light on the role of personal voice or stance and the means by which it is realized.

By using the two evidentials *as is evident* and *it is clear,* the writers indicate that they have strong evidence to support what they present. They make strong claims and have high degrees of commitment to them. These strong claims show the authority and assertiveness on the part of the writer, which is also a very important persuasive strategy because the reader will not believe the writer who is all the time conservative and tentative.

Besides inferring evidentials, some self-reporting evidentials can also function as boosters such as *demonstrate, argue* and *show*. In contrast to hedges, they do not show the writer's modesty and hesitation to present his findings and study. Instead, they show confidence and eagerness to present what they have found. However, it should be noted that there is a balance between hedges and boosters. To present his study and findings, the writer can not use boosters all the time to show his confidence. However, too many boosters will give an impression of imposing and no respect for the reader. The reader may feel too imposed to accept what the writer expresses. Thus, keeping a dynamic balance between boosters and hedges is quite important.

As mentioned above, self-reporting evidentials can function as both boosters and hedges. However, the study has found an unbalanced use of self-reporting verbs as boosters and as hedges, as shown in Figure 2.
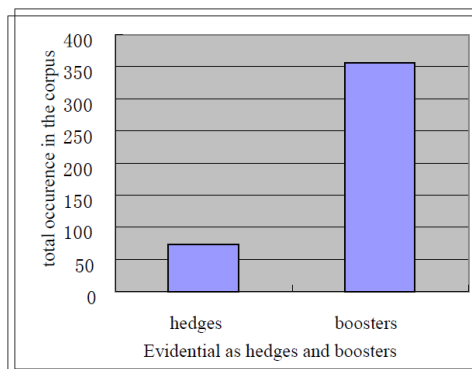
Figure 2 Comparison of self-reporting evidentials as boosters and hedges

Figure 2 clearly shows the unbalanced use of self-reporting evidentials as hedges (f=74) and boosters (f=358). However, the result does not show that when presenting claims, the writer uses more boosters than hedges. It can only tell us that in making strong claims and in showing high degrees of commitment, the writer tends to choose self-reporting evidentials rather than other means, such as modal verbs. They indicate that for high degrees of commitment, the writer is more likely to choose verbal (objective) forms rather than the more subjective forms such as modal verbs, or belief evidentials. The subjective way is preferred when presenting the lower degree of commitment.

Some information sources can also function as boosters when the assertive reporting verb collocates with the information source such as *the data, the example, the analysis, the table* and the scholars and their related findings. The reliability of information will be improved, for these sources are the ones that the reader tends to rely on. The choice of a reliable information source is also a persuasive strategy to make strong and assertive claims more convincing and reliable for readers to accept. In the use of other-reporting evidential type, the writer generally chooses the scholars and researchers concerning the research to be the information sources, which the reader finds more reliable. The study also finds that the sources in self-reporting type reveal the writer's reliance on the multi-modality by frequent reference to tables, figures, examples and so on. With concrete sources which the reader can refer to directly, he will be more likely to be convinced of the claims.

Third, evidentials function as self-mention. Self-mention refers to explicit authorial presence in the text by adopting first person pronouns and possessive adjectives (*I, me, mine, exclusive we, our, ours*). All the writings carry the information about the writer, but the convention of personal projection through first-person pronouns is perhaps the most powerful means of self-representation (Ivanic & Weldon, 1998). The writer can not avoid projecting his/her impression and how he stands in relation to his argument, his community and the reader. The presence or absence of explicit authorial reference is generally a conscious choice by the writer to adopt a particular stance and a contextually situated authorial identity. In evidentiality, there are quite a number of self-mention cases, which mainly occur in self-reporting and belief evidentials.

Self-reporting evidentials clearly indicate that the information source is the writer or whatever related to the study. For example:

(12) In this cases *we* found, this included external sounds that penetrated from outside the building or from adjacent rooms, mechanical and other background….

(13) **Our** *study* of conversation in noisy settings suggests that there are also identifiable patterns in the ways that noice and impaired language perception during conversation affect grammatical and discourse….

(14) **Our** *data* from both children and adults indicates that noise significantly alters the pragmatics of conversational discourses.

The information sources *we, our study,* and *our data* here function as self-mention metadiscourse markers. They clearly refer to the writer, and his related researches. Therefore, this is a strategic device to promote the writer and his researches. Based on our data survey, the semantic and discourse functions of self-mention of   vidential are summarized as follows:

i. The writer of a single-authored single refers to himself/herself as *we* rather than I;

ii. Exclusive *we* refers to the writers themselves to explain what they have done in research and reveals how they position themselves.

iii. Inclusive *we* referring to both the writer and the reader serves the discourse function of assuming shared knowledge, goals and beliefs. By doing so the distance between the writer and the reader is shortened and thereby the solidarity of the writer with the community is strengthened.

Belief evidentials are also a primary means for self-mention and they are the most explicit way to present the writer's stance to or viewpoint of the information.

In our data, the typical rhetorical functions of evidentials as self-mentions are presented as follows.

i   Evidentials function as the claim-maker to make a claim or statement, or elaborate an argument, as shown in (128) and (129).

(15) ***The general findings from our study suggest*** that metadiscourse is an important feature of professional rhetorical writing in languages other than English…

(16) In the example above, ***we understand that*** all members to the field know that uniformity along the length of the superconducting wire is one of the key factors…

ii   Evidentials function as the finding announcer to show the results or findings. For example:

(17) ***our analysis indicates that*** practioners undertaking research degrees and the academics assessing their texts may have divergent understanding about what counts as legitimate knowledge types, knowers, evidence, intertextual practices, and argumentation.

(18) First of all, consistent with O'zbek's findings, ***we found that*** one of the functions of *s, ey* was to index the speaker's planning at a certain points in the discourse by filling a pause in the flow of speech.

In (17) and (18), the writers choose self-reporting evidentials to announce what they have found in their researches. With the self-mention forms "*our analysis*" and "*we*" as the information source, the writer and his researches are promoted.

iii   Evidentials function as the opinion holder. For example:

(19) Thus taking a case study approach here has made it possible, ***we think***, to begin to identify and exemplify key writing challenges that…

(20) These statements, ***in our view***, reflected the reviewer's belief that the writer was a relative novice rather than an experienced authority.

In Examples (19) and (20), the two belief evidentials *we think* and *in our view* are adopted to show that the information is totally from the writers' own points of view. In so doing, the writers are totally responsible for the truth value of the statements, allowing alternative opinions from others and thereby protecting them from negation and criticism.

Fourth, evidentials function as engagement markers. Engagement markers are the devices that the writer explicitly addresses the reader, either to focus their attention or include them as discourse participants. In addition to creating an impression of authority, integrity and credibility through the choice of hedges, boosters, self-mention and attitude, the writer is able to either highlight or downplay the presence of the reader in the text. In any communicative situation, an orientation to the reader is crucial in securing social and rhetorical objectives. Self-mention provides a way for the writer to intrude into the discourse to stamp his personal authority onto his argument or step back from the discourse and disguise his involvement. In other words, these evidentials refer to *writer-oriented features* for they provide the writer with the devices to present himself. Engagement markers are the other side of the coin. They are more *reader-oriented*. Academic writers do more than simply push themselves and their ideas forward. They also have to recognize the presence of their readers, pulling them along with their argument, focusing their attention, recognizing their uncertainties, including them as discourse participants and guiding them to interpretations. Some types of evidentials also show engagement features, as illustrated in the following.

Engagement features can be shown in the cases where the information source is the inclusive pronoun *we*. Consider the following examples.

(21) In the excerpt in Fig. 2, ***we*** can see examples that the teacers successfully drew on several specific aspects of her English competence to achieve her teaching aims.

(22) When we focus specifically on their organizational role, ***we*** can see that these labels also mark the writer's stance.

By using inclusive *we* in Examples (21) and (22), the writers include the reader as the discourse participant. It can be seen that the inclusive pronoun *we* invites the reader into the argument and presupposes a set of mutual understandings which serve to identify the writer and the reader of the same discipline. This strategy, on the one hand, involves the reader in the discourse-making process so that they are more likely to believe what they experience by themselves, as illustrated in the examples above. On the other hand, this strategy can appeal to the solidarity between the writer and the reader and mitigate the individual assertive and imposeness.

VI. Conclusion

Our corpus-based study has shown that in RAs evidentiality function as metadiscourse devices. These devices play a very important role in the construction and attainment of persuasion. The specific findings are presented as follows:

First, different evidential types and their respective linguistic realization forms function as different metadiscourse devices and therefore perform different functions.

Secondly, in the category of interactive metafunction, other-reporting evidential can serve as Evidential in Hyland's model, which helps the writer to establish the intertextual links. However, the self-reporting evidentials mainly serve as the Endophoric markers to make the information more salient, to guide the reader's thinking direction and at the same time to make the claims interpreted in the way the writer prefers to.

Thirdly, in the category of interactional metadiscourse, to make his claims more conservertive, tentative so as to promote his credibility, modesty and humility, the writer tends to resort to inferring evidential denoting low degree of certainty, some self-reporting verbs (e.g. suggest) and belief evidential. At the same time, to Make the claims more assertive and authoritative so as to establish his credibility and authority, the writer has the choice among Inferring

evidential denoting high degree of certainty, some self-reporting verbs(e.g. suggest), the choice of information source. Besides, the use of Self-reporting evidential and Belief evidential help to Show the writer's individuality, and authority and the use of Sensory evidential and Evidentials denoting common knowledge can invite the readers to the discourse process and appeal to the solidarity between the writer and the reader.

In sum, functioning as metadiscourse devices is an important interpersonal function of evidentiality in RAs, and contributes much to creating a reader-friendly, more coherent and more convincing text.

Our evidential study from metadiscourse perspective is an attempt to examine the functions of evidential besides indicating the information source of a proposition. It lays a foundation for the future research and provide orientations for further study. First, the functions of evidentiality can be further studied from other perspectives such as cognitive linguistics, pragmatics, critical discourse analysis, positive discourse analysis, sociolinguistics and so on; Second, because of the genre convention, evidential use in other genres, even evidential use across genres is worthy of more research; Third, evidential use across languages is believed to be an interesting topic in furture evidential study.

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Linxiu Yang is currently an associate professor at the Foreign Languages School of Shanxi University, China. She obtained her PhD in July 2009 in Xiamen University. Her current research interests include functional linguistics and discourse analysis. She has published over 10 academic articles in the areas of discourse studies, functional linguistics and foreign language teaching and learning in Journal of Pragmatics and Discourse Studies.

Postmethod Era and Glocalized Language Curriculum Development: A Fresh Burden on Language Teachers

Mehrshad Ahmadian (Corresponding Author)
Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch, Qaemshahr, Iran

Saeedeh Erfan Rad
Islamic Azad University, Yazd Branch, Yazd, Iran

Abstract—**The disappearance of method from academic discussions and the rise of the postmethod debate emanating from both the postmodernist philosophy and a globalized world have stirred a fresh round of discussion in academic circles in the field of the second language (L2) teaching profession. As a result of postmethod pedagogy, the teacher comes to the center of language learning and teaching and his/her beliefs, experiences and knowledge are greatly valued. Although postmethodists favor teacher autonomy, they do not favor the one-way flow of information inherent in a top-down syllabus, and provide a theoretical basis for the re-emergence of a learner-centered process syllabus and the negotiated contributions to syllabus development by both teachers and learners. Finally, although postmethod pedagogy favors a glocalized learner-centered curriculum, it is highly teacher-dependent since this is the postmethod teacher who can fulfill postmethod promises.**

Index Terms—**critical teacher education, curriculum development, glocalization, postmethod, postmodernism**

I. INTRODUCTION

The second language (L2) teaching profession has gone through a number of dramatic changes particularly during the final quarter of the twentieth century. Starting in the 1970s, teachers and researchers came to realize that no single research finding and no single method of language teaching would bring total success in teaching a second language especially as it was seen that certain learners seemed to be successful regardless of methods or techniques of teaching (Brown, 2007, p. 40). As a consequence of repeatedly articulated dissatisfaction with the limitations of the concept of *method*, and following the advent of a set of newer beliefs and assumptions surrounding (second/foreign) language teaching practices, the L2 profession was faced with an imperative need to construct a new concept (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). As such a conceptual shift took place: the disappearance of method from academic discussions and the rise of the postmethod debate (Akbari, 2008).

Having succinctly reviewed the main concerns of postmethod debate and its due philosophical foundations, the present study does its best to cast some light on the following questions: What impacts does postmethod pedagogy have on language teaching practices worldwide? What are its effects on language curriculum development? And last but not least, what are the criticisms leveled against postmethod curriculum?

II. POSTMETHOD AND POSTMODERNISM

As acknowledged by Kumaravadivelu (2003b, 2006a), the source of inspiration for philosophizing postmethod is postmodernism. So before dealing with the postmethod pedagogy, it would be helpful to take a glance at the concept of *postmodernism* (Hashemi, 2011).

Postmodernism philosophy, which appears in a wide variety of disciplines or areas of study including art, music, film, literature, architecture, and even technology, originated in France during the 1960s and 1970s and was greatly influenced by phenomenology (the scientific naturalism), existentialism, psychoanalysis, Marxism, and structuralism. These intellectual movements rejected the belief that the study of humanity could be modeled on (objectivity) or reduced to the physical science (reductionism); hence they avoided behaviorism and naturalism, and unlike hard sciences, they focus not merely on facts but on the meaning of facts for human subjects (Fahim & Pishghadam, 2009).

As the term *postmodernism* itself suggests, postmodernists wish to dissociate themselves from *modernism*, what is often referred to as the project of the *Enlightenment*. The modern scientific enterprise has its roots in the Enlightenment, which brought to the fore reason, rationality, the universal, idealism, objectivity, and the search for the truth (Lantolf, 1996). Briefly, the idea is that the Enlightenment, or modernism, while liberating us from the backwardness, superstition and prejudice of the middle ages, has subjected us to new oppressions. Especially, science and the idea of

Reason have led both to an intolerance of diversity and difference, and to a purely materialistic and instrumental view of nature, including man as the subject of the social sciences (Gregg, 2000).

Blackburn (1996) defines postmodernism as a reaction against a naive confidence in objective or scientific truth. It denies the idea of fixed meanings, or any correspondence between language and the world, or any fixed reality or truth or fact to be the object of enquiry (Hashemi, 2011). Postmodernists reject what they see as the modernist belief in epistemic absolutism, or foundationalism: the idea that there are universal, objective and infallible foundations for our knowledge. In other words, Postmodernism rejects the very idea of an objective reality external to the observer. The postmodernist sees reality as a social construction, the product of interactions between actors in a social setting. Hence such factors as social structure, class and power relations play an essential role in the creation of reality. This means that there can be a multiplicity of realities, none of which has any more legitimate claim than any other to being viewed as *the* reality. Thus, postmodernism is essentially *constructivist* (Gregg, 2000).

Despite the divergence among different usages of postmodernism, one can find some commonalities centering on postmodernists. As Fahim and Pishghadam (2009, pp. 34-35) enumerate, postmodernists:

1. are constructivist. In their view, there are no real foundations of truth, for there is no truth, except what the group decides is truth. Postmodernism is preference and truth is a social construct to be eliminated. Truth and persons are given value only as the group values them.

2. are against absolutism. They value relativism. Knowledge is not stable and eternal as the history of science has shown us, it refers to probabilities rather than certainties, better rather than the best.

3. reject theories because theories are abundant, and no theory is considered more correct than any other. To them inquiry must be approached pragmatically.

4. question the notion of expertise. The idea that some people (experts) know more than others (non-experts) are not supported. They believe that interaction between the knower and non-knower is often best seen as dialog in which there is mutual influence than simple transmission of knowledge from one to other. In fact both are involved in an interactive process of knowledge creation. Dialog replaces monolog.

5. reject global decisions. Since reality is culture dependent, changing over time, as cultures do, and varies from community to community, knowledge is not universal. We are cautioned to be careful with generalization, because they can be deceiving. Therefore, Postmodernists are intolerant of truth and values unless they are considered local. Diversity is celebrated.

6. attack notions of reason and means-end thinking. Objectivism is replaced with subjectivism and this is the society's whims which rule scientific disciplines not physical laws.

7. use analytic strategy which is central to politics of postmodernism. They try to uncover the taken-for-granted relationship which has been hidden for a long time, to denaturalize the naturalized roles in the world and each society, and to analyze a text to find out the hidden and marginalized meanings of it. To them, no text is innocent, and every text betrays a fragment of power which should be surfaced.

On education, too, postmodernism had an impact as "postmodernists attacked notions of reason, means-end thinking, and theory teaching;" and this consequently caused "a major shift in our conception of inquiry" (Beck, 1993). Questioning the practice of problem posing in schools, Beck (1993) suggests that postmodernist education should help students develop cultural-political understanding through "democratic and dialogical emphasis of postmodernism, its questioning of the motives of authorities and its downplaying of the role of experts" (Beck, 1993). However, Beck (1993) calls for a kind of balance by cautioning that "we should not dismantle all structure and hope that something happens."

If postmodernism is the dominant spirit of the time and has influenced many fields of study, this question may come to mind: How has postmodernism affected the field of English language teaching both in theory and practice? To answer this question, we now delve briefly into the concept of postmethod pedagogy.

III. POSTMTHOD PEDAGOGY

Postmodernism seems to have influenced TESOL through the guise of postmethodism from the 1990s when for the first time the concept of postmethod condition was officially introduced by Kumaravadivelu (1994). Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2001, 2003b) exploring the nature of the traditional, top-down, modernist, and transmission-oriented methods of teaching that view learners as passive recipients of the teacher's methodology and defining the concept of method as a construct of "marginality" in the sense that it "valorizes everything associated with the colonial Self and marginalizes everything associated with the subaltern Other" (2003b) invites practitioners of all persuasions in the field to find a systematic, coherent, and relevant *alternative to method* rather than an *alternative method* (Hashemi, 2011).

In fact, he argues that any meaningful process of decolonization of ELT requires a fundamental shift from the concept of method to the concept of postmethod which entails a greater awareness of issues such as teacher beliefs, teacher reasoning, and teacher cognition, and a transform of disempowered periphery or merely classroom consumers into strategic teachers or strategic researchers reclaiming their teacher autonomy that empowers teachers to theorize from their own practice and practice what they have theorized. This bottom-up "pedagogic mediation" is the essence of what he, following Widdowson's (1990) notion of pragmatics of pedagogy which construes the immediate activity of teaching as the medium through which the relationship between theory and practice can be realized, calls "principled

pragmatism," a key element of postmethod pedagogy that is sensitive to language teachers' local needs, wants, and situations (Hashemi, 2011). As such, Kumaravadivelu (2001, 2003a, 2006a) conceptualizes three parameters for postmethod pedagogy consisting of three parameters of *particularity, practicality,* and *possibility.*

The parameter of *particularity* is based on the belief that any language teaching program "must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p.538). At its core, the idea of pedagogic particularity is consistent with the hermeneutic perspective of *situational understanding,* which highlights the context-sensitive nature of language teaching and claims that a meaningful pedagogy cannot be constructed without a holistic interpretation of particular situations, and that it cannot be improved without a general improvement of those particular situations (Elliott, 1993, cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006a, p. 171).

The parameter of *practicality* refers to the relationship between theory and practice. If context-sensitive pedagogic knowledge has to emerge from teachers and their practice of everyday teaching, then they ought to be enabled to theorize from their practice and practice what they theorize. The idea that knowledge is derived from practice, and practice informed by knowledge shifts the postmethod pedagogy to a paradigm of praxis in which teachers are no longer consumers of knowledge produced by theorists, but they need to act upon the conditions they face in order to change them. A *theory of practice* is conceived when there is a union of action and thought, or more precisely, when there is action in thought and thought in action. The parameter of practicality, then, focuses on teachers' reflection and action, which are also based on their insights and intuition (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, 2003b).

The parameter of *possibility* owes much of its origin to the Freirean critical pedagogy that seeks to empower classroom participants so that they can critically reflect on the social and historical conditions contributing to create the cultural forms and interested knowledge they encounter in their lives (Kumaravadivelu, 2003b). The experiences participants bring to the pedagogical setting are shaped, not just by what they experience in the classroom, but also by a broader social, economic, and political environment in which they grow up. These experiences have the potential to alter classroom aims and activities in ways unintended and unexpected by policy planners or curriculum designers or textbook producers. The parameter of possibility is also concerned with language ideology and learner identity (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a, p. 175).

In other words, in the new alternative called postmethod pedagogy the main features of a postmodernist philosophy are realized; that is to say (1) it is constructivist; (2) it is against absolutism, and it values relativism, so it does not look for a cure-all; (3) it does not look for another theory, but it tries to approach the whole process of language teaching/learning pragmatically, and as such it moves toward the paradigm of praxis; and to do this (4) it rejects global decisions and values culture-dependent, local norms.

IV. POSTMETHOD AND GLOBALIZATION

Globalization, according to Giddens (1990, cited in Block, 2004), is defined as "the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa" (p. 75). In language teaching, this has manifested itself in the way English is widely used as the international language or "the shared linguistic code" (Block & Cameron, 2002, p. 1) in international communication to the extent that as Richards (2008) points out "English is no longer viewed as the property of the English-speaking world but is an international commodity sometimes referred to as world Englishes, a deterritorialized English detached from its geographical and cultural origins" (p. 2). Although there is no doubt that we are living in a globalized world, thanks to technological innovations that are in fact "evaporating borders and distances" (Daly, 2009, p. 7), there is little agreement on the various aspects of the issue.

While debate over the merits and demerits of globalization and the extent it should be regarded as a homogenizing process continue to the third millennium, the advent of more individualistic and learner-centered approaches to learning, and the post-method rejection of the belief in one-size-fits-all method, has given rise to the need to localize the teaching materials in order to better suit the particular language needs and wants of each specific context. Localizing, as is conceptualized by McDonough and Shaw (2003), takes into account the international geography of English language teaching and the recognition that what may work in one particular setting may not necessarily do so in another context. Perhaps, it has been due to the same clash between globalization and localization in modern life that the reconciling neologism of *glocalization* has been introduced to the literature to advocate the slogan *think globally, act locally.* According to Weber (2009, cited in Gurko, 2011), glocalization is "a mix of global frameworks and local practices, and which greatly increases the potential for independent learning by merging worldwide knowledge and local knowledge" (p. 132). Yet, Moss (2008) believes that glocalization does not represent the intermediate or transitional idea or period between the local and the global level but rather as the use of global standards to describe the goals and consequently make local plans to achieve the global standards. Khondker (2004, p. 3) enumerates the following points as the main propositions of glocalization:

1. Diversity is the essence of social life;

2. Globalization does not erase all differences;

3. Autonomy of history and culture give a sense of uniqueness to the experiences of groups of people whether we define them as cultures, societies or nations;

4. Glocalization is the notion that removes the fear from many that globalization is like a tidal wave erasing all the differences.

5. Glocalization does not promise a world free from conflicts and tensions but a more historically grounded understanding of the complicated – yet, pragmatic view of the world.

As far as language curriculum development is concerned, Daly (2009) believes that:

…in this post-methods age, non-native speaker teachers are in the best position to act as mediators in the EFL profession to combine local knowledge and teaching strategies with CLT or other principles from SLA or Applied Linguistics. In this way, a more systematic (and hopefully less teacher-responsible) approach to FL teaching for exam-oriented contexts can be devised to better prepare EFL students for the needs of a globalized world. (p. 14)

Further, Daly (2009) refers to this glocalizing activity as "a post-methods principled pragmatics", which is currently "cautious, tentative and hazy" and which "places a terrific burden on teachers" (p. 15). Hence, glocalizing is not an easy straightforward path to take and some requirements must be met to pave the way toward achieving it.

Considering all these promising vantage points, the question springing to mind is what type of language teachers are needed to actualize all these aspects of the glocalized postmethod pedagogy? The next section seeks to answer this question.

V. POSTMETHOD AND CRITICAL LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION

Postmethod pedagogy puts the teacher at the center of language learning and teaching and values his/her beliefs, experiences and knowledge. The value given to teachers should be appreciated because it is the teachers who know their learners and the classroom context best. Teachers are considered as great sources as a result of their experience in the past as students, past experience of teaching, knowledge of one or more methods gained throughout their training as teachers, knowledge of other teachers' actions and opinions and their experience as parents or caretakers (Prabhu, 1990, as cited in Can, 2012). Therefore, postmethod teachers are encouraged to develop and create their own methods as they gain experience based on their classroom context and knowledge of other methods and approaches. In this sense, post-method teachers are autonomous, analysts, strategic researchers and decision-makers. Such teachers are also reflective as they observe their teaching, evaluate the results, identify problems, find solutions, and try new techniques (Can, 2012). Based on this, there is a movement in which teachers feel compelled to dissociate themselves from a top-down process and associate themselves with a bottom-up process as teachers "theorize what they practice or practice what they theorize" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003a, p. 37). In brief, "postmethod pedagogy recognizes teachers' prior knowledge as well as their potential to know not only how to teach but also how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula and textbooks" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a, p. 178).

However, one might ask how we may accomplish this type of teacher autonomy? Training in the techniques and procedures of a specific method is probably essential for novice teachers entering teaching because it provides them with the confidence they will need to face learners and it provides techniques and strategies for presenting lessons (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.250). As Richards and Rodgers (2001, p.251) rightly claim, an approach or a predetermined method with its associated activities, principles, and techniques may be an essential starting point for an inexperienced teacher, but it should be seen only as that since in most cases, novice teachers are far from fulfilling postmethod promises.

If we are to render teachers who can act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints, we need to challenge existing narrow view of teacher training and even teacher education programs and move toward a limitless quest for *critical language teacher education* (Hawkins & Norton, 2009). Rooted in the work of Paolo Freire, the concept of "critical" is especially salient for postmethod language teachers. Since language, culture, and identity are integrally related, language teachers are in a key position to address educational inequality, both because of the particular learners they serve, many of whom may be marginalized members of the wider community, and because of the subject matter they teach - language - which can itself serve to both empower and marginalize (Hawkins & Norton, 2009).

Language teachers often serve as social mediators and informants in the new language. They play a key role in the construction of the learners' views of their understandings of unfamiliar belief systems, values and practices, and their negotiations of new social relationships. Critical language teachers make transparent the complex relationships between majority and minority speakers and cultural groups, and between diverse speakers of the majority language, thus having the potential to disrupt potentially harmful and oppressive relations of power (Hawkins & Norton, 2009).

Although language is the primary medium used to teach any subject matter, for language teachers it is both the medium and the content. Because language (or discourse) is the tool through which representations and meanings are constructed and negotiated, and a primary means through which ideologies are transmitted, language itself is not neutral, but is shot through with meanings, intentions and assumptions. Rather than having learners simply internalize such meanings as normal and right, critical language teachers work with their students to deconstruct language, texts, and discourses, in order to investigate whose interests they serve and what messages are both explicitly and implicitly conveyed (Hawkins & Norton, 2009).

VI. POSTMETHOD AND LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Although postmethodists favor teacher autonomy and say that teachers should decide on their own way of teaching, they do not favor the one-way flow of information inherent in a top-down syllabus, and the lack of interaction and consultation with the learner. Calling them *dishonest ELT*, Rogers (2010) argues that top-down syllabuses, which are written by experts and then distorted and delivered to learners by language teachers, indeed regards learners as passive acceptors of language leading to cultural imposition, teacher: learner dichotomy, and *not enough learning*. In fact, simply the imposition of any type of top-down syllabus exerts an external agenda on learners and does not regard their own interests; in other words, it is external to learners rather internal, as such this kind of syllabus by itself does not serve the postmethod purpose(s).

Furthermore, as Breen and Littlejohn (2000) observed, "a pedagogy that does not directly call upon students' capacities to make decisions conveys to them that either they are not allowed to or that they are incapable of doing so; or it may convey that the more overt struggle to interpret and plan is not part of 'proper' learning" (p. 21). Hence, to do away with a predetermined set of body of knowledge to be covered in a top-down, transmission-based syllabus, postmethod pedagogy allows learners a role in pedagogic decision making by treating them as active and autonomous players too. To fulfill this, postmethod pedagogy takes into account two views of learner autonomy, a narrow view and a broad view (Kumaravadivelu, 2003a). The narrow view seeks to develop in the learner a capacity to learn to learn whereas the broad view goes beyond that to include a capacity to learn to liberate as well. That is why postmethod pedagogy seeks to make the most use of learner investment and learner interest by giving them, to the extent feasible, a meaningful role in pedagogic decision making.

Finally, recalling the third parameter of postmethod pedagogy, i.e. parameter of *possibility*, which is inspired by Freirean critical pedagogy, postmethodologists claim they can achieve this cause through the democratization of the classroom by providing their learners with an appropriate syllabus covering their both linguistic and social needs.

What is interesting about these views in terms of the discussion favored by the authors is that they both reintroduce the learners as key participants in the learning process along with teachers, and provide a theoretical basis for the re-emergence of a learner-centered process syllabus and the negotiated contributions to syllabus development by both teachers and learners as favored by Breen (1987). This means that syllabus in the postmethod pedagogy is much more than a *road map* of a course, given to teachers and delivered to learners. It becomes a social *interaction* involving not only *asking* learners their views and trying to incorporate them, but a whole process of teacher:learner *negotiation* and renegotiation of the syllabus throughout the course of lessons , thus reflecting the ideas promoted by Freire (Hall, 1997). Emphasizing social interaction, the postmethod negotiated syllabus does its best to interconnect the whats and hows of syllabus (What a syllabus is, and how a syllabus should be developed). As a result, the postmethod pedagogy turns into a "pedagogy *with* the learner, not *for* the learner" developed through the syllabus (Hall, 1997).

Such a view of the negotiated syllabus incorporates a solid foundation for both linguistic development and social empowerment. Constructed by the group, it should resolve who does what, with whom, with what resources, when, how, and for what learning purposes (Breen, 1987). However, it remains somewhat theoretical. How can it be put in to practice?

The key party to the implementation of the negotiation process in postmethod syllabus is the language teacher. On the one hand, postmethod teachers should not be seen simply as *deliverers* of a fixed syllabus, but should be valued as reflective professionals who frame and re-frame problems and test out their interpretations and solutions though the process of action research. On the other hand, to come up with the particulars of the new context, they need to conduct needs analysis to defy a high-constraint centralized educational system. However, to further delineate the critical aspect of the postmethod pedagogy, i.e. parameter of *possibility*, they are bound to go beyond a limited notion of student success as fulfilling content class requirements since language teaching/learning exceeds the walls of the classroom. The postmethod language teacher needs to help students to articulate and formalize their resistance, and to participate more democratically as members of an academic community and in the larger society. As such, the postmethod teacher needs to run the alternative to needs analysis, i.e. critical needs analysis, otherwise known as *Rights Analysis*, as an approach to examining target situations since as Benesch (2001, p.58) argues, needs analysis is simply used to study the linguistic and cognitive challenges ESL/EFL students face.

Rights highlight various players exercising power for different ends. Rights, unlike needs, are political and negotiable. Rights analysis does not assume that students are entitled to certain rights or that they should engage in particular types of activities to claim rights but that the possibility for engagement exists. Rather, it assumes that each academic situation offers its own opportunities for negotiation, depending on local conditions and on the current political climate both inside and outside the educational institution (Benesch, 2001, p. 58). In fact, a critical approach to the data would lead to a search for solutions to ESL/EFL students' linguistic, cognitive and social problems.

VII. CONCLUSION

Even though the authors highly favor postmethod pedagogy with its promising revelations, they cannot turn a blind eye to the practicality side of the postmethod coin. It is true that the postmethod argument has academically put an end to method discussions and the search for the good method; however, as Bell (2003) mentions, its practical counterpart, that is, methodology, is still a valid concept and very much alive for many teachers since as Akbari (2008) argues the problems that political ideologies and the academic world could not solve - problems of injustice, marginalization and

representation, voice and inclusion, effective design and delivery of instructional materials - are now assigned to the lone postmethod practitioner.

To conclude, although postmethod pedagogy favors a glocalized learner-centered curriculum, it is, however, highly teacher-dependent since this is the postmethod teacher who can fulfill postmethod promises. How many critical practitioners are already available in each context? How can we render more critical teachers? How much are they going to be paid? Concerning the contextual constraints, either low or high, imposed on postmethod teachers, how much room for maneuverability do such teachers have? In order not to ignore the realities of teaching and language teachers, we do need to make fundamental changes in our teacher education programs, mainly moving them toward critical teacher education programs, to cope with the many demands made by postmethod pedagogy.

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Mehrshad Ahmadian is currently doing his PhD studies in TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Campus, Tehran, Iran. He is a faculty member at Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch, Iran. His main interests are language testing and assessment, critical pedagogy, and syllabus design.

Saeedeh Erfan Rad is currently a PhD candidate at Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch and a member of faculty at Islamic Azad University of Yazd. She also holds a BA in English Literature from University of Tehran and an MA in TEFL from Alzahra University. Her major areas of interest include second language teaching and learning, critical pedagogy, intercultural studies, second language writing and CALL.

Observed Mental Processing Patterns in Good EFL Listeners and Poor EFL Listeners

Ching-ning Chien
Department of Applied Linguistics and Language Studies, Chung Yuan Christian University, Zhongli, Taiwan

Nicholas Van Heyst
National Pingtung University of Science and Technology, Taiwan

Abstract—The purpose of this study aims to gain a better understanding of EFL learners' actual use of learning strategies in listening comprehension. One hundred and sixty-five sampled students from different disciplines participated in the study. They completed the whole process of survey and assessment, which included an MEPT English proficiency test, think-aloud protocol and immediate recall interviews. The study involved two groups which were distinguished based on listening comprehension scores from the MEPT; namely, those who scored greater than 70% and those who scored lower than 50%. By examining apparent differences in the strategies used by each group during the listening interpretation, the study found that even within these differences a common thread could be seen. There were three major commonalities that emerged as students worked to develop meaningful patterns from the listening content. A number of conclusions can be drawn from the data. First, good EFL listeners use more strategies than poor EFL listeners. Secondly, both groups appear to switch strategies at the point in which the one they were using fails to fulfill its purpose; however, the poor listeners gave up trying sooner. Thirdly, both groups appear to be using the available information to develop a discernible pattern. This study suggests that strategy use is not the most important factor that separates good listeners from poor listeners. Rather, failure to recognize audio linguistic clues and cultural scripts seem to be more important causes of comprehension failure.

Index Terms—mental processing, listening comprehension, learner strategy, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

The English language has already become a very important tool for a great number of different cultures throughout the world and thus it is not uncommon for countries or individuals who speak different languages to choose English as their first foreign language (EFL) for acquisition. Taiwan is one such country, and our education institutions, both formal (public and private schools and universities) and informal ('cram schools'), spare no effort in trying to equip students with the English skills they need to use for communicative or research purposes. Unfortunately, despite the fact that Taiwanese students are often capable of learning vast amounts of written vocabulary, and may even be pretty good in written grammatical knowledge, they often show significant difficulty when it comes to listening comprehension in English as their second language (L2).

The ability of the human brain to ascribe different and specific meanings to innumerable distinct, similar and even sometimes identical sounds and tones is a wonder that may perhaps never be fully understood. There are so many different contributing factors that appear to be working (or failing to work) in harmony to allow listeners to create concrete meaning from the abstract sounds that fill their ears. A review of the literature on listening reveals a significant divergence in views about the process which is rooted in different theoretical assumptions of how human beings go about deriving meaning from a string of language signs and of those factors that are considered crucial for achieving comprehension. Approaches to listening comprehension which have been the most widely discussed may be grouped as the linguistic approach, the sociolinguistic approach, and the psycholinguistic approach. Although researchers who are keen on understanding this fascinating process have tried to look at it from all perspectives, there are still many questions that need to be answered. For example, what happens between the top-down and bottom-up processing of listening input to facilitate listening comprehension in EFL learners?

The present study

The purpose of this study is to try and gain a better understanding of what actual listening strategies were used in listening comprehension by EFL listeners. The study looked at two groups of listeners – poor EFL, and good EFL – to try and uncover answers to the questions posed here. These questions are: do good listeners always use more strategies than poor listeners? What effects does working memory have on strategy use? And how much does the cultural difference across the two languages affect listening comprehension?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Listening Comprehension Research: Top-down and Bottom-up Studies

In the past decade, there has been an explosion of research articles describing the effect listening strategies may have on listening comprehension. Despite the fact that much of this research has been observational and argumentative, lacking either adequate controls or robust longitudinal data (Lee, 2010), many studies have still proclaimed the effectiveness and benefits of listening strategy instruction (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). Though it is clear that more proficient listeners use more types of listening strategies, and use them more frequently than less proficient listeners; however, the exact causation of this phenomenon has not be conclusively determined (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010). Furthermore, most studies are oriented towards investigating either higher order, top-down processing (such as prediction, checking for understanding, and inferencing), or lower order, bottom-up processing (such as relying on morphology, syntax, prosody, segmentation, or semantic clues). Only a few studies, such as the one conducted by Lee and Cai (2010), have tried to analyze how these two aspects interact (Field, 2004). Graham et al. (2011), acknowledging that the mixing bowl into which the fruits of top-down processing and bottom-up processing are placed has not been adequately understood. It has been discovered that some learners may actually be at a greater disadvantage because of improper use of higher-order listening strategies when compared to learners that employed no higher-order listening strategies. These uncertainties demonstrate the fact that the mental models which listeners construct to ultimately decode the listening input need to be better understood.

B.   Working Memory Is a Crucial but Neglected Factor in Listening Comprehension

With respect to the cognitive aspect of listening comprehension, Wolff (1983, p. 290) characterized it as "an active cognitive process, making use of linguistic knowledge (procedural), and knowledge of the world (declarative)." He also pointed out that "comprehension is not limited to perceiving sounds and sound patterns" but also includes an "interpretation of the speaker's intentions." Other research explains that cognitive processing represents brain activity in the neural system, in which a large number of neurons (or cells) encode abstract concepts and images as they are 'fired' or activated by the visual or auditory stimuli and bring out a meaningful interpretation (Anderson, 2005; Blakemore & Frith, 2005). Consequently, these processes, by default, have the ability to affect a person's listening comprehension. This can help to explain why, even when a listener has the desire to listen, and is trying to focus, there are certain cognitive processes that can potentially override the efforts of the listener. Thus, this newly developing field of neurolinguistics, borrowing heavily from the mature discipline of cognitive psychology, has shown the clear need to reconceptualize our static and serial models of language decoding, including listening comprehension (Wen, 2012). These "active processes" when in play, will naturally function best when the least amount of strain is applied to them, a fact that could be tied to the notion that higher-order listening strategies potentially hinder listeners, or that familiarity benefits them. However, as the abovementioned quote from Wolff implies, there is a fundamental precondition that linguistic knowledge exists. Listening strategies may help with this process by reducing strain; they may also hinder this process by adding strain. The same might be true for cultural differences/similarities.

C.   Cultural Differences on L2 Listening Comprehension

Cultural differences have the potential to affect a person's listening comprehension ability in a number of ways. For instance, Bouton (1988, 1992) looked at the relationship between culture and the ability for listeners to understand the meaning of a speaker's implications. His studies showed significant differences in understanding between native and nonnative listeners, supporting the idea that cultural familiarity plays an important role in listening competency. More specifically, Min Deok-gi (1996) focused on topic familiarity, and showed that students who had greater familiarity with a topic were able to score higher on questions that focused on explicit items. Wierzbicka (1994) made an argument that understanding different languages often requires knowledge of certain "scripts" that are built into a specific culture; these scripts could be described as a "shared set of subconscious cultural norms that carry meaning." In her study (1994), she made a comparison of common Japanese and American scripts to emphasize the difference in the way that people from one culture may misunderstand a speaker belonging to the other culture despite having adequate linguistic understanding. Cultural differences can also be manifested on the cognitive level as Nisbett, et al. (2001) demonstrated when they showed that cognitive differences between Eastern and Western cultures were based on holistic and analytic approaches respectively. Markham (2000) looked at the religious aspect of culture and showed that both religious background knowledge and captions were able to contribute substantially to ESL student's listening comprehension. And more recently, a study by Hayati (2009) conducted on Iranian EFL students demonstrated that students with increased understanding of the target culture performed better on listening exercises. Based upon this research it is fair to assume that perceived cultural differences, generally speaking, have the ability to affect how competently a listener is able to understand second/foreign language listening content. Of course, such an understanding also leads to a number of avenues that need to be explored to help gain further insight into what can be done to help L2 listeners improve their listening skills.

III.   METHOD

A.   Participants

One hundred and sixty-five Taiwanese students of different majors participated in the study in the academic years 2010 and 2011. 96.1% were freshman students at the time of sampling and came from different majors, including

Applied Linguistics, Chemistry, Electrical Engineering, International Trade, Chemical Engineering, Information Management, and Psychology. The study targeted two groups of students. Group 1 is comprised of students who scored 70% or above correct in listening, grammar and vocabulary on the Michigan English Placement Test (MEPT). Group 2 is made up of students who are good at vocabulary and grammar, but poor at listening comprehension based on scoring 70% or above correct in grammar and vocabulary, but less than 50% correct in listening on the MEPT. Group 1 totaled 69 students and Group 2 totaled 96 students. The academic majors comprising Groups 1 and 2 can be seen in Table 1, below.

TABLE 1.
DISTRIBUTION OF ACADEMIC MAJORS FOR STUDENTS IN GROUPS 1 AND 2.

Groups	Applied Linguistics	Psychology	Chemistry	Intl. Trade	Electrical Engineering	Info. Mgmt.	Others	Total
Group 1+2	19	23	16	39	34	4	30	165
Group 1 (good overall)	12	2	4	11	13	0	27	69
Group 2 (poor listeners)	7	21	12	28	21	4	3	96

B. Data Collection

The data collection was conducted in a language lab classroom which has 64 carrels, each equipped with an audio recording device, earphones, and a microphone (the CYCU language lab is a very well-equipped exam room and has been used as the testing room during the Taiwan General English Proficiency Test for participants who live in the area of Taoyuan County, Taiwan). In the first week of the first semester, the participants were given the Michigan English Placement Test (MEPT); in the second week, after the researcher finished explaining the procedures and completing a practice warm-up, the participants were administered a think-aloud protocol on two listening tasks (one is a conversation and the other is a short news piece). At the completion of each listening task, participants were also asked to recall their thoughts by answering 12 questions. The immediate recall was intended to allow participants to do their self-report retrospectively, and the questions were designed to help elicit their mental processing. The researcher and the research assistant sat at the laboratory control desk, controlling the playback for each listening task and the time allowed answering the recall questions. Although the listening tasks were all in the L2 (English), participants were permitted to complete the think aloud and the recall in their L1 (Chinese). Afterwards, all participant audio recordings were transcribed for analysis.

C. Selected Materials for the Immediate Protocol Recall on the Listening Tasks

Four genres of listening materials, which include story, conversation, lecture and news, were used to elicit students' listening strategies. The language used in the scripts is natural and authentic. The difficulty level in terms of vocabulary and grammar knowledge, topical familiarity and cultural familiarity were taken into consideration (see Table 2). The length of each script is one to three minutes.

TABLE 2.
LISTENING MATERIALS USED IN THE PROJECT.

Genre / Description	Conversation	News	Story	Lecture
Language difficulty level--vocabulary	Intermediate	High- intermediate	Intermediate	High- intermediate
Language difficulty level--grammar	Elementary	High- intermediate	Intermediate	High- intermediate
Topical familiarity	Unfamiliar	Unfamiliar	Unfamiliar	Unfamiliar
Cultural familiarity	Partially unfamiliar	Mostly unfamiliar	Partially unfamiliar	Mostly unfamiliar

The four listening tasks played for each of the participants were intended to cover a range of listening experiences that most English speakers are likely be exposed to from time to time. They included a real life event, a news report, a short story, and a speech. The first listening task that was played for the participants was a dramatization of attempting to return an item that was purchased from a store. The second listening task made use of a news recording from the BBC reporting on the reaction of the Polish people to the tragic plane crash that took the lives of a number of the Polish government officials in 2010. Like with most news broadcasts, the information presented does not deal with typical life events and the rate at which the reporter speaks is faster than normal conversation. Furthermore, the news reporter speaks with a British accent and the interviewees spoke with Polish accents. The third listening task consisted of a children's story. The story was a moral tale centered on a conversation between a father beaver and a son beaver, where the father tries to teach the son the importance of putting work before play. Since this was a children's story, the vocabulary heard in this recording was well within the bounds of what most young children between the ages of 7 and 10 years old would be familiar with. The fourth and final listening task was a recording of a portion of an inspirational speech. The speech given was a typical example of what one can often hear at a graduation ceremony, and had the basic theme of "making the most of one's life". Throughout the speech, a significant number of clichés were used or

referenced. These clichés are ones that most native English speakers growing up in North America would be expected to be familiar with by the time they were in their early teens.

D. Think Aloud Protocols and Immediate Recalls

In order to catch a glimpse into the minds of the subjects who took part in the study, the listeners were asked to report all of their thoughts in real time as they listened to the selected recordings. The real time reporting allowed the researchers to not only assess the listeners' understanding of the listening task, but also helped to provide some insight into the strategies that each of the subjects used to try to develop a full understanding of the recordings that were played for them. The participants were asked to vocalize their thoughts, which were recorded on a recording device to allow for in-depth analysis. In addition to the real-time thought reporting, an immediate recall was also administered whereby subjects were asked a series of 12 questions after each of the listening tasks (Appendix A).

IV. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Two sets of collected data were analyzed: (1) participants' think aloud protocols in the four L2 listening tasks and their self-report on recalls to find their actual use of listening strategies and (2) cultural scripts identified in the testing material.

By generalizing the think aloud and the immediate recall, it is clear that students from both groups made use of listening strategies when listening to the selected recordings. No matter if they were good listeners or poor listeners, a pattern emerged suggesting that in each of the cases the listener would begin the listening task by making use of a strategy that would expend the least amount of mental energy needed to achieve the desired results; in other words, consume the least working memory. In all cases, students began the exercise by "focusing their attention" to the task or "elevating their level of concentration". To highlight the relevance of this strategy, it can be pointed out that at the commencement of casual conversation between friends or family members this increased level of concentration often would not be present; whereas, when listeners are aware that they are listening for a specific purpose or goal they will tend to use more selective attention (Graham et al., 2010). The reason a greater attention was present at the beginning can be explained by the fact that the subjects likely anticipated that because it was a listening comprehension study, they would likely face certain challenges. In the event that they met difficulties they would then move to adopt an alternative listening technique that would hopefully allow them to construct a workable pattern. The most prevalent secondary listening technique was the one in which the cultural aspect could be seen. This technique, generally speaking, could be described as 'inference making.'

A. Observed Patterns from the Think-aloud Protocol and Immediate Recalls: Good EFL Listeners vs. Poor EFL Listeners

The results revealed that an overwhelming majority of both groups had made use of listening strategies during the listening tasks. This section will analyze the trends that were discovered. Somewhat surprisingly there was a very high number of shared listening strategies seen in both groups. However, there was also a number of apparent differences that could be identified.

1. Analysis of similarities between Group 1 and Group 2

Both the good listeners and the poor listeners began by making an effort to concentrate on the listening content. Concentration, of course, is a fundamental factor in listening regardless of the level of the listeners' ability. However, it is worth noting that the poor listeners also made the effort to direct their concentration towards the listening task so that the possibility that their poor comprehension was a result of their failure to focus can be ruled out.

Throughout the listening tasks, both groups also made efforts to associate the audio with the images that were displayed on the computer screen (if they were available) and to pay attention to the tone of the speaker. Students from both groups also located what they determined to be key words and often made notes on a piece of paper. Other common strategies that were used by members of both groups include making inferences based on context, past experiences, and previous knowledge. The use of this strategy is similar in many ways to the strategy of associating the audio with the visual imagery mentioned above.

2. Analysis of differences between Group 1 and Group 2

The results show that the good listeners tended to use more listening strategies than the poor listeners and also changed strategies more frequently. It should be noted that the changing of strategies is more than likely the result of the strategy failing to work; the good listeners keep trying by using another strategy while the poor listeners stop trying early.

Also related to the abovementioned difference, another variation that was noted was that the good listeners focused on the areas they missed and tried to fill in the gaps, while the poor listeners tended to focus more on what they knew and choose not to try and understand more.

2.1. Similarities within the differences
Both groups used what they knew.

By taking a closer look at what appeared to be differences in the strategies that each of the two different groups used during the listening tasks, it became evident that even within these differences a common thread could be seen. The first

commonality was that both groups of listeners made use of what they knew already to try and build greater understanding. That is to say, the listeners both believe (unconsciously, of course) that reaching understanding will depend on whether or not they can connect enough 'dots' together; and once enough dots have been connected a meaning can be formed. 'Pattern seeking' is perhaps an appropriate description of what is taking place, and it is probably safe to say that every interlocutor of any skill level is making use of this method when they try to form meaning based on the information that is provided to them from the other party.

Both groups change strategies when methods strategies fail

The second commonality that was seen was that both groups would switch to another strategy once they felt as though the previous strategy was not satisfying the goal. It is quite easy to recognize that this is very much related to the 'pattern seeking' mentioned above. Simply stated, when no pattern begins to form, the listener finds an alternative means to locate a pattern. Based on considerations of human nature, it is probably a safe guess that the listener will always make use of the 'easiest' method available to attain their goal of determining the pattern. For instance, if the listener cannot determine a pattern simply by "just concentrating," he or she may start feeding on other sources of information and begin the process of making inferences. This was the second commonality witnessed in the study.

Both groups are making inferences

The third commonality was that both groups significantly used the strategy of inference albeit in different ways. One of the differences in the way the groups used inference is how easily they implemented the tactic and the duration for which they used it. This observation may be related to the fact that inferencing demands more of the listener's mental energy and therefore will also result in the more rapid arrival of the moment in which the listener decides to give up on the strategy altogether.

Both groups act out their emotions

The fourth commonality is not so much an intellectual factor, rather, it is more of an emotional one. That is to say, the behavior of both groups appears to be influenced by affections, i.e., something similar to pride or humility. Initially, it appears that all listeners make the effort to try to understand the listening content; they begin with the notion that it is something that they are capable of accomplishing. For those who experience some level of success, their desire to 'tackle' the difficulty will drive them to spend additional energy on hopes of reaching their goal. These participants are humbled by the difficult nature of the task and they are mindful of the amount of effort required to reach their goal. However, those who quickly succumb to the task and accept defeat, appear to act indifferently, make jokes, complain, or sleep as a means of distancing themselves from the activity. In other words, "better" students might humbly think that learning a language is difficult so they keep on trying, knowing that it is not easy, and "worse" students who appear reckless might think that they do not care much for learning a language. It would be interesting to have a deeper understanding of EFL learner/listeners' affective and emotional state during the comprehension process for our future study.

B. Identified Misunderstanding of the Cultural Scripts in the Four Listening Texts

Culture can be defined as the integrated system of learned patterns of behaviors, ideas, and products, which are characteristic of a society. That is, culture is the patterns of living that people have learned from all other persons around them. Cultures can be different from country to country or from place to place; therefore, misinterpretations or misunderstandings can easily take place when people use patterns or assumptions from their home culture to interpret what they are listening or reading in a foreign language.

To identify the cultural scripts, the researchers first chose the words, phrases or sentences related to cultural ideas from the four listening tasks. A calculation was then made on the percentage of misunderstanding for the words, phrases or sentences related to cultural ideas for both the good and poor listeners. The results indicated that poor listeners had a higher misunderstanding percentage (71.2) than good listeners (55.2), shown in Table 3. However, even the good listeners could not catch the ideas up to 55.2% of the time.

TABLE 3.
PERCENTAGE OF MISUNDERSTANDING OR MISINTERPRETATION IN THE CULTURAL SCRIPTS: GOOD LISTENERS AND POOR LISTENERS

Four listening tasks	cultural scripts	Percentage good listeners missed	Percentage poor listeners missed
conversation	restocking fee; policy; dispute charge; credit card company	17.6%	36.6%
news	Easter; Prime Minister	68.3%	82.0%
speech	it is not the things we do in life that we regret on our death bed, it is the things we do not; and that's where my solace comes from	79.6%	94.9%
Total		55.2%	71.2%

V. CONCLUSION

According to the data collected in this study, a number of conclusions may be drawn. First, this study confirms what has been seen in other studies, that good ESL listeners use more strategies than poor ESL listeners. All ESL listeners also appear to switch strategies at the point in which the one they were using fails to fulfill its purpose. However, the poor listeners give up trying earlier.

Based on this study it is evident that good ESL listeners and poor ESL listeners both use the same listening strategies. Both groups appear to be using the available information to develop a discernible pattern. Both groups changed listening strategies when difficulties arose. However, it is not clear what the cause and effect relationship between good listeners and strategy use is.

As mentioned above, both good ESL listeners and poor ESL listeners appear to change strategy at the time in which he or she finds that the previous strategy was not working. A logical conclusion that can be derived from this is that if the listening strategy employed allows the listeners to maintain their desired level of understanding, they will not have to transfer to other strategies. In order to confirm whether or not this is in fact what is taking place, more research must be conducted.

Based on this study, strategy use plays an important part in the listening process and therefore does deserve its fair share of classroom attention, however this study suggests that strategy use is not the most important factor that separates good listeners from poor listeners. Rather, failure to recognize audio linguistic clues and cultural scripts seem to be the two areas that lead to comprehension failure. Many language teachers across the world have not yet had training in listening instruction pedagogy and this may be due to the lack of clear direction within the field (Graham et al., 2010).

APPENDIX A

Post-listening interview questions:
1. What was the first thing that you did in order to make sense of this?
2. Did you do anything else to help you understand at any point in the listening?
3. At any point in the listening did you change your mind as to what this was about, or what to listen for?
4. What can you remember hearing?
5. Can you remember anything else that you heard?
6. Do you remember learning anything new? Any new information?
7. Do you remember hearing anything else?
8. Any new words (unfamiliar words)?
9. On a scale of 1-10, how confident are you that you understood this passage?
10. On a scale of 1-10, how much did you understand this passage?
11. What do you think about the difficulty level of the sentences you heard?
12. Are you familiar with the content of the listening task? How much did you already know about this topic?

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Ching-ning Chien holds M.A. degrees in Special Education from Tennessee Technological University and in English Education from Ohio State University, as well as a Ph.D. degree in Education from the University of Newcastle upon Tyne, England. She is currently an associate professor in Applied Linguistics at Chung Yuan Christian University where she teaches listening, speaking and reading to freshman students. Her research interests include foreign language listening comprehension, foreign language learning and teaching, bilingualism, phonological awareness and second language acquisition.

Nicholas Van Heyst currently works as a translator and part-time English teacher for National Pingtung University of Science and Technology, Taiwan. In 2009 he earned his bachelor's degree in Pacific and Asian Studies from the University of Victoria, Canada and in January 2013 was awarded his Master of Law degree from Chung Yuan Christian University, Taiwan. During his master's studies he worked for Dr. Ching-ning Chien as a research assistant in the field of Applied Linguistics and ESL. He has also worked with the Taiwan Ministry of Education, Elite Study-in-Taiwan Office as a translator and editor.

The English Film Title Translation Strategies

Xuedong Shi

Foreign Language Department, Beijing Information Science & Technology University, Beijing, China

Abstract—Based on the research of characteristics, functions, translation principles and methods of English film titles, this paper discusses the English film title translation and mainly focus on English film titles domestication and foreignization translation. Good English film should be attractive, attracting the audience to watch the film. A good English film title has a value of artistic, aesthetic and commercial. Cultural translation leads to translators' using domestication, foreignization translation methods in the English film title. Domestication translation and foreignization translation in English film translation is both theoretically and practically.

Index Terms—film titles, translation, domestication, foreignization

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the domestic cultural market has been prosperous and more and more popular English films have come from European countries and America. Most of those films have been nominated or even been received several honors at many international film awards. The characteristics of English film title are very extraordinary because they are refined and attractive and have capability to generalize the whole content of films to the audience. So this paper will try to analyze the characteristics of English film titles. Film is an art form, which has artistic quality and commercial quality. The English film title translation can influence audience's interest to the film and promote the films' artistic and aesthetic value. Nowadays, English film title translation has some problems. So, translators should find an effective way to solve those problems and discuss this issue.

Language is a unique signal system and the important thing of language system is semanteme which reflects the function of language. Also, English film title is a proper structure, whose feature is the high degree of summarize to the film's theme or content and to arose audience's desire to watch the film. As we all know, the nomination of English film title has both expression and description function. Language has almost six functions, namely, emotive, informative, imperative, aesthetic, phatic and metalinguistic function. (Newmark, 1988) Good translations should reflect three functions as mentioned above.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

English film title translation does not only involve the equivalent function, but also involves the values and principles between target film titles and source film titles. Some translators prefer using domestication and others prefer foreignization translation. Therefore, this part is an attempt to examine strategies that are concerned with the translation of culture: domestication and foreignization. For purposes of contrast, the terms domestication is used here rather than acculturation, for purposes of foreignization. Literal translation and free translation are not same to domestication and foreignization. Domestication and foreignization are two basic translation techniques which guide linguistic and cultural directions of English film title translation. we know that during the opening-up of domestic cultural market and globalization throughout all over the world, the more effective and practical translation theories are domestication and foreignization. But in what way do they reflect film title's characteristics, functions and principles or which techniques or methods? The most important issue we must have a clear mind is how does domestication translation and foreignization work in English film translation. Following contents will give you the details.

Domestication translation and Foreignization translation are the cardinal methods of English film title translation. Domestication translation and Foreignization translation are the terms pointed by Lawrence Venuti. Domestication means use legible and fluent style to let target language readers understand the foreign text, thus readers in the target culture would be familiar with the foreign culture. Foreignization means to take the audience make them feel the distinction both linguistically and culturally. (Nida, 1993)

The famous representative of domestication translation is Eugene Nida. He points out the communicative function of translation. He suggests that the choice of word should adjust so that it can familiarize different kinds of readers. Also, Lawrence Venuti has pointed out foreignization translation, and he is the representative of foreignization translation. Peter Newmark should also be in the school of foreignization; he emphasizes semantic translation that translation version should be faithful to the original one. (Nida, 1993) Nida's Formal and Functional Equivalences mean that formal equivalence focuses on providing some perception in the lexical, grammatical or structure of original text. Functional equivalence is based on the principle of equivalent effect. Venuti's foreignization tactic is to put forward in the cultural background. some translation theorists also point out their ideas in their book, such as Mayoral Asensio, Roberto, Martin, M, .Gottlieb, Henrik, Gambier, Martine, Catford, John C, Bassnett, Susan, Basil, Hatim & Ian Mason,

etc. (Nida, 1993)

In China, Liu Yingkai' points out the prevalence of domestication and argues that domestication translation misrepresent the original text. Sun Zhili thinks the main task of translation is to deliver the thought and style of the original text. Xu Jianping suggests that foreignization should be used in English-Chinese translation with domestication as much as possible. Also some theorists in China, for instance, Bao Huinan, Deng Yanchang, Feng Qinghua, Hu Zhuanglin, Jin Di, Qian Yuan, Tan Baoquan,Xie Tianzhen, Xie Jun, Zhang Delu and so on. After the introduction of the studies both abroad and China, the next part would discuss the application of domestication translation and foreignization translation respectively.

Advocators of the domestication strategy base their argument the following reasons: Firstly, t is not only unrealistic but also hazardous to try to force linguistic and cultural norms of the source text into the target text. A good translation should conquer the barriers of languages and cultures. Secondly, since translation is an important and indispensable medium of inter-lingual and intercultural communication, the original culture should be embedded into modes of behavior of the target culture in translation. The translator has the responsibility to prevent cultural conflicts that often cause various kinds of misunderstanding. The translator as the communicator should narrow the cultural gaps to facilitate better understanding. Thus, domestication is not only necessary but also unavoidable. Thirdly, it is impractical and dangerous to exert the source language formula with its culture on the target readers. That means the translator should not presume upon an excessive degree of intellect and imagination on the part of the readers, and force them to understand the source culture beyond the range of knowledge and experiences. So translators must overcome the barrier of the language as well as the culture. And target-language-culture-oriented translation can help readers better understand the source text because the content of the source text is conveyed within the scope of the knowledge of the real world of the readers. It is easier for them to understand the translation if the content and form fall within their ability of comprehension. Lastly, one of the requirements of translation is that language of the translated version is supposed to be natural, idiomatic and intelligible for the target readers in order to avoid misunderstanding caused by the linguistic obstacles that impede it. (Nida, 1993)

Supporters of foreignizing strategy base their arguments on the following facts: Cultural communication and transmittal should be regarded as one of the major aims of translation. The authentic representation of the alien cultural color enables the cultural exchange to be significant and valuable. A translation cannot be considered as faithful if it is incapable of transferring the in the source language exchange and culture. It is by means of foreignizing phenomena translation that cultural can fulfill the duty and responsibility of improving development and prosperity of indigenous cultures. By introducing nutritious heterogeneous cultures and foreign expressions and syntax, the native culture can be enriched a lot. An open and receptive attitude towards foreignness can make the culture of a nation energetic and influential. Translation as an important means of cultural exchange can and should shoulder the responsibility of promoting the cultural prosperity in the nation and even in the whole world. (Bassnett, 1998)

III. CHARACTERISTICS OF ENGLISH FILM TITLE

A. Naming Patterns of English Film Title

a. Named after the character of film

This kind of title accounts for a significant proportion of English film title. For example, Iron Man, in the target film title, it be translated as "gang tie xia". Obviously, both source and target film title are directly reflect the character of the film, so translators can use literal translation in this kind of pattern of English film title directly. Most of the English film titles are made by the name of protagonists and this type of naming pattern can consist of two styles. One is the pure people's name. This character will be mentioned in many times as protagonist or his/her name during the development of the story. In addition, this protagonist will be seen through the whole story. For instance, the English film title "The Hobbit". In this film, Hobbit is the protagonist, and it sets out on an unexpected journey, and its translated version "huo bi te ren" is very suitable.

Another style is the name of the people (animal) with this character's (animal) feature (or relative contents). For example, Edward Scissorhands, the film talking about a story that a "man" who created by human beings who named Edward who has scissors as hands. So, to reflect character's feature, the Chinese translated version is being "jian dao shou ai de hua" to match "scissor hands" in the source English film title. For this type of title's translation, the usual tactic is to add some relative descriptive words with the story, aiming to make more information with the unknown character, and let the character to be more attractive.

Moreover, some titles are made by the names of supporting roles, or even by the name of people who did not appear on the scene. This type of naming pattern reflects a theory that the western culture is always people-centered. Moreover, the represented characters of this kind of film could be historical celebrities, and common people. On this point, it is different from Chinese films. As in many Chinese films, there are rare uses of the name of the character as a film title. Still, the people who been named after the film are basically the historical cultural celebrities.

b. Named after the location, environment or the time of the story's development

This type of title is a memorable production, because all of films' stories of this type of titles are developed in limited circumstances. And the bright spot of this type of tile is that through a small thing it reflects a whole story. Also, the audience would have a general acknowledge of what environment, location that the story has happened. Through those

elements, audience can estimate what type of the film is. The Terminal, talking about a man trapped in a terminal at an airport when he is denied entry into the United States and at the same time cannot return to his own country, is a good example. All of the things happened are in the "terminal", so when translated as "xing fu zhong dian zhan", the bright spot is through the terminal to reflect a whole story.

c. Named after the development or the motif of the story

Contrasting with former types of film titles, this type of title provides more information and presents general content of the film so that the audience can decide whether to watch those film or not. Many types of this title may exhibit as a style of sentences or the verb phrases, directly describing the plot of the story. E.g. Alice in Wonderland, a 19-year-old Alice returns to the magical world from her childhood adventure, where she gets together with her old friends and learns of her true destiny: to end the Red Queen's reign of threat. According to the pattern of this kind of English title, aiming totally to reflect the motif of the film, the translated film version being "ai li si man you qi jing".

Still, according to the naming patterns of English film title above, translators should follow some translation principles or tactics, such as functional equivalence, information principle, artistic principle, or other tactics, namely, literal translation, free translation, transliteration, etc. What's more, film title translation, according to the theories of domestication and foreignization translation, translators should obey Nida's formal and functional equivalences study, focus attention on the message itself, in both form and content and aiming at being the same as that between the original English film title and the characteristic of the film title. So translators can avoid the misunderstanding of the wrong English film title translation and make clear of the characteristics of English film title itself. All of them would make the translated titles more attractive to the audience.

B. The Function of English Film Title Translation

a. The informational function

Informational function means through English film title it can deliver the content to audience, and let audience have a better understanding of the film. English film title reflects the film's theme and helps audience to understand the film and acts as straightforward form. For example, The Princess Diaries, just see this title, audience should have an idea that the film is talking about a princess and the things she met. When this title translated as "gong zhu ri ji" would be suitable and reflect the theme directly.

The informational function is the basic function of English film title and it is mainly in its cognitive function and function of commercial advertisement. According to cognitive function, a good English film title should reflect the unique of the film and influence audience's choices. Many English films can be known for much information about the film just through its title, such as protagonist, a place or a location, time, prop, plot or something else. Through the English film title, audience can also know about the type of the film.

b. The advertising function

During the development of English films, it has become an industry. In translation commercial factors must be taken into consideration. At the same time English film title has a commercial value. Except informative form, the title also has a function to lure audience to watch the film. If English film titles can attract audience, then it can create additional market value. So, a unique, unforgettable English film title has a very important significance to a film's commercial value. The translation with suspense and novelty can attract the audience for the first time, and produce their strong desire to watch the film. For instance, Skyfall, as we all know, the series film 007 is famous, and this episode follows the advertising function to meet its commercial factors and lure audience to watch the film. In Chinese, it also uses "007,da po tian ji" to realize this effect. So translators should consider the commercial factor and to realize its commercial value, understand the film's to let an English film title that may be widely accepted and loved by target language audience. If the title is novelty and striking, it can attract a lot of audience.

c. The aesthetic function

English film title is a kind of art; most of them are created from life. So, from the naming of title to the film's content, visual and acoustics are different degrees of art procession. Good English film title has obvious aesthetic quality and can give audience beautiful art enjoyment. The translation of the title of English film need to catch the content of the film in an aesthetic way and the translators should express image, sensibility and language beauty of English film title in their native language and they also should remain beauty in both sound and meaning. Here are the example: Twilight, in Chinese version, it be translated as "mu guang zhi cheng", from this, we can see that translated title is tight in structures and rhythmic in sounds, which can not only express the theme of the film, but also increase the aesthetic effects. Function is a feature of English film title: on the other hand, it leads translators to a right director of English film title translation; moreover, the better theory they can obey is Hans J. Vermeer's study: "aim or purpose" of domestication and foreignization theory which means to produce a text in a target setting for a target purpose. In this way the translated version film title can reflect original film title's function more complete.

IV. FILM TITLE TRANSLATION PRINCIPLES AND STRATEGIES

A. The Artistic Principle

The English film title translation emphasizes the deeper grasp of the aesthetic content of the film. Using art style of target language is to convey the original imagine, emotion and art beauty. The English film title tends to pithy and its

translated film title should be in symmetry, harmony and expressiveness. Just like the translation principle "Elegance", the translation will add humorous language or beautiful and elegant words to the simple phrase, letting film title easy to read. Some Chinese translation theorists have also put forward some points about the artistic principle, such as paying attention to the spirit of English title and keeping the original of the "spirit" and "style" of translation. For example, Waterloo Bridge is the translated in very pithy and sad words to convey the theme of the film—love tragedy.

B. The Cultural Transformation Principle

IThe translation which has cultural characteristic is one of the most difficult translation context models. The target translation words may express a totally different concept that source language would not have and it would be abstract or specific. (Bassnett, 1998) English film title consists many cultural elements and expresses cultural connotation, such as cultural words or phrases. The cultural transformation principle is not just a process of language transformation, but also a social phenomenon between two culture's communications. For example, this title, Dear John, is a usage means a letter, as to a serviceman, requesting a divorce or ending a personal relationship. To correspond this cultural principle, it should be translated as "fen shou xin".

C. The Commercial and Entertainment Principle

English film is an art that combines with cultural and commercial characteristic. So, when translating the English film titles, the translators should pay attention to its commercial element, create titles that audience love to see and hear. The purpose of the commercial English films does not only rely on this art form to fulfill audience's life, but also want make profits. The English film title has its social and commercial benefit. The commercial benefit of society always reflects in the attractive degree to the audience, and influences the box-office directly. For example, The English Patient, telling a story about at the close of World War II, writes a young nurse takes care of a plane crash victim, whose past reveals a love affair. When it translated as "ying lun qing ren", it would reflect the theme of the film and follow it commercial and entrainment principle.

Acting on the principles mentioned above, we can find some translation principles. Literal translation is widely used in English film titles' translation. It remains the content and form of the original as much as possible. It attempts to recreate the precise meaning of the original within the limits of the target language's grammatical structures and to be completely faithful to the intentions of the director. As for English film, literal translation is accessible, if target version corresponds to the original title, then the English film title could use literal translation. It is the most effective method of translation when the source language and target language overlap in function. It is faithful to the original text and proves very simple, practical and feasible; also, the surface structure, the original content and the exotic flavor of the original are retained to a large extent, the audience who like foreign films will be attracted by the foreign elements in the title. Great numbers of English film titles are translated in this way, for example, Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs, almost every audience knows the plot and just translate as "bai xue gong zhu he qi ge xiao ai ren" and that is enough.

Free translation is a strategy that seeks to convey the meaning and the spirit of the original title without sticking to the form mechanically; this method is frequently applied when literal translation is not suitable. Free translation reproduces the matter without keeping the manner, or keeping the content without taking the form of the original. (Newmark, 1988) Free translated version succeeds in exerting the functions of film titles and attracting the audience. It focuses on the target audience and serves the purposes of better communication. Thanks for the distinction between English and Chinese culture, audience have a better understanding of English film's theme, and realize its informative, aesthetic value. In this way free translation is very effective. Free translation consist some techniques, such as addition, omission, and so on. Look at examples: The Bridges of Madison County, this version sounds beautiful and elegant, translated as "lang qiao yi meng" conveying the meaning and the spirit of the original title without sticking to the form mechanically. Based on the original meaning of the title, translators could do some appropriate adjustments to the translation in terms of the film content and style. Sometimes, translators should cast aside unromantic original English film title and use a language style which audience love to see and hear.

Transliteration tries to use a one-to-one correspondence so that an informed reader should be able to reconstruct the original spelling of unknown transliterated words. Transliteration can reserve the sounds of the original to the largest extent, keeping its rhythm and drawing the audience's attention with strong exotic flavor. The main aspects of transliteration are names of people, places, especially, some exotic name, proper noun, historic events. For example, Harry Potter, for a decade, this series film was one of popular film over the world. And harry potter is so familiar to audience from the world. So in China, just translating this kind of film as "ha li bo te" is enough to reserve the sounds of the original to the largest extent, keeping its rhythm and draw the audiences' attention. According to the circumstance, whether keeping the similar original film title will decide to adopt transliteration or free translation or not. Then try transliteration and add some suitable words to express the theme of the English film title. Translators can add some further information about the film to express the complete meaning and also attract the audience, especially the films named after person's names, places and things. Moreover, meeting audience acceptance and cultural expectations of the target language in the form and content is another method. For Shrek, using transliteration as "shi lai ke" is good and pluses free translation as "guai wu" can reflect its figure "monster" and add some further information about the film to express the complete meaning when they are translated literally and also attract the audience. There are some other translation variations: increase or decrease on the number of words. The aim is to let the original English film title be

accustomed to the target English film title so that audience can have better understanding of the film, such as, Life of Pie.

V. CONCLUSION

At present, foreignization translation strategies in the translation of film titles occupy the position of the mainstream. But in the film title translation, foreignization translation and domestication are meant to coexist in a very long period of time. Foreignization has been regarded as positive qualities although the translation standard is keep changing. Anyway, the research of English film title translation should combine with the reality. To have fantabulous English film translation, translators should know the characteristics of English film titles. English film title translation has to consider many factors, such as the content of film, the psychology of target audience, and so on. Good English film translation should be pithy, attracting. It should obey functional equivalence, information principle, artistic principle, or some tactics, literal translation, free translation, transliteration and so on. It also uses some basic methods: literal translation, free translation, transliteration.

Moreover, foreignization translation is based on those primary methods, the advantages of foreignization is that it would be more practical combing with English film title's commercial and aesthetic effects. Besides it is more appropriate to different English film title translation and translators do a better job when translating English film titles following the method. During the use of foreignization translation, audience has began to accept the foreignization translation strategy for its' convenience of audience's understanding. At the same time it caters the taste of audience and reflects culture of source film title's countries. The use of foreignization translation will increase of commercial value and enhance the cultural exchange between the nations. In short, the use of foreignization depends on the need of translation practice. Under foreignization translation strategy, the English film title translation's works would be more felicitous and they can reflect the values of English film titles though the domestication method will still be coexistent.

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Xuedong Shi was born in Huhhot, Inner Mongolia, China in 1974. He received his MA degree in translation in Middlesex University, Britain, in 2004. He is currently a lecturer in the Foreign Language Department, Beijing Information Science University, Beijing, China. His academic research mainly focuses on translation and applied linguistics.

A Comparative Study of the Use of Conjunctions and References in Electronic Mails vs. Paper-based Letters

Nader Assadi Aidinlou
Department of ELT, Ahar Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ahar, Iran

Elnaz Reshadi (corresponding author)
Department of ELT, Ahar Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ahar, Iran

Abstract—The present study set out to compare the use of conjunctions and references in electronic mails and paper-based letters produced by Iranian EFL learners. Based on this purpose, the researchers used a mixed methods research and selected a sample of 54 university students majoring in English Language Translation. All the participants were asked to write a letter in a paper-based method. After two weeks, the same participants produced letters in the form of electronic mails. After data collection sessions, the researchers compared the two sets of data on the basis of the use of three types of conjunctions, i.e. coordinating, correlative and transitional conjunctions and also three types of references, i.e., anaphoric, exophoric and cataphoric. Actually, the researchers used Paired-samples t-test to estimate the amount of conjunctions used in electronic emails and paper-based letters. They, further, used the same statistical test to analyze the use of references in the two mediums of letter writing. In contrast to the use of conjunctions which presented a statistically significant difference, the use of references was not significantly different in electronic mails and paper-based letters. The research findings have several implications for language instructors and university students.

Index Terms—electronic mails, conjunctions, references, paper-based letters

I. INTRODUCTION

In ordinary contexts of language use, language can be considered as a written or spoken discourse and can be used as a means of communication. Recently, such communication took several forms one of which was computer-mediated communication (CMC). Warschauer (1996) believes that CMC involves the use of the computer as a tool, rather than as a deliverer of instructional material. He claims that this writing type provides a less threatening means of communication. Such explanations highlight the issue that computer assisted writing involves some levels of communication and doing something with the language. According to Danet (2002) electronic mail is one of the most popular applications of online digital technologies and as a new means of communication become truly widespread. This widespread use of emails was in contrast with the letters that were written using a pen and paper.

Whatever the mood of writing, either electronic or paper-based, writers need to attend to a series of steps while producing a written text. According to Seow (1995), there are a number steps responsible for process writing. He calls the first step planning and assumes it as a step in which the learners are asked to generate and brain storm ideas about the topic. As mentioned by Seow (1995), the second step is drafting and it is responsible for motivating learners to start writing. This step requires the learners to make an attempt to put their ideas on paper. After drafting, the writers need to revise their written text by focusing on detailed organization of the ideas. This stage is of great importance to this paper since it is at this stage which learners are able to use their cohesive ties more effectively. Cohesive ties, as stated by Nunan (1993), are devices that distinguish a text from random sentences. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify such grammatical and lexical connection into five categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical ties. Learners' knowledge of cohesive ties can boost their ability to revise what they have written. The last step is to edit the text for grammar, spelling and punctuation (Seow, 1995).

The complexity of any discourse including discourse of emails and paper-based letters has been the subject of discussion during the last decades (McCarthy 199). According to Crystal (1992, cited in Nunan, 1993) discourse is a continuous stretch of language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a joke or narrative. One way of establishing such a relationship is using cohesive ties and creating cohesion.

As pointed earlier, there are five types of cohesive ties. Richards et al (1992) consider references as words or phrases which relate an utterance to a time, place or person in a direct way. In English, reference items involve pronouns, demonstrative, the article *the* and the items like *such a* (McCarthy, 1991). McCarthy (1991), further, classifies references as anaphoric reference, exophoric reference and cataphoric reference. Substitution is the second set of

cohesive ties. According to Salkie (1995), substitutions are special words which can contribute to cohesion by replacing words in the text with some other words such as *one*, *do*, and *so* that have already been used.

According to Nunan (1999), conjunctions link the elements of one or more sentences together and are of three types: coordinating, correlative and transitional. Also conjunctions are defined by Er (1993) as semantic connection between clauses.

Ellipsis is the other type of cohesive tie and refers to a structural element that is omitted from a text (Nunan, 1993). The last cohesive tie is lexical ties or relations and as stated by Eggins (1994) are concerned with how the writer or speaker uses lexical items such as nouns, verbs, adjectives or adverbs and also chain of clauses to relate the text consistently to its area of focus.

Several studies have been conducted to investigate the relationship between electronic texts in general and writing performance as well as the elements involved in written texts (Slutsky & Sardegna, 2010; Sattar and Nahrkhalaji, 2012; Lightfoot, 2006; Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth, 2001; Biesenbach-Lucas et al 2000).

Slutsky and Sardegna (2010) studied how web-based writing materials could promote non-native business students' autonomous learning. Their paper described the collaborative development of a web-based business writing handbook designed to address the specific needs of international business students. The handbook provided the students with an opportunity to gain awareness of common ESL business writing errors and gave them strategies for finding and correcting those errors. This study revealed a self-directed language learning strategies investment.

Also, the relationship between emails and writing progress has been studied in EFL context. In a study, Sattar and Nahrkhalaji (2012) studied the role of email activities in EFL writing classes. After requiring the learners to complete a number of writing assignment in the form of emails, the researchers examined the effect of such activates on learners' writing performance. They reported that the participants in this group did the same as learners in the conventional writing class.

Furthermore, in a comprehensive study, Lightfoot (2006) compared elements of e-mails and face to face communication in an educational environment. They administered a survey with 596 undergraduates and reported that students usually care more about email communication with the instructor and groups of peers than they do for equivalent face-to-face communication. Moreover, students tend to put about the same amount of thought into e-mail compared to verbal communication while working with individual peers.

Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2001) studied the effect of medium, i.e. email and word-processing, on the message. The researchers examined the written messages of some intermediate non-native students for differences in use of cohesive features, length of text produced in each medium, and differences in text-initial contextualization. In the case of the use of cohesive ties, the two mediums showed no difference. However, results indicated a difference in the case of length of the text and text-initial contextualization. In a rather related study, Biesenbach-Lucas et al (2000) studied the use of cohesive features in ESL students' email and word-processed texts. The results showed that both cohesive features and text length differentiated email and word-processed writing.

Since most Iranian EFL contexts do not posses Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), it seems that the learners may face some difficulties in producing coherent texts while using computers as a medium of communication. The difficulty may even become much crucial when the learners are asked to write emails. In this case, they are interacting with a real audience and this may cause some barriers in using cohesive ties in their emails. The major challenge of the present paper was to investigate the use of two types of cohesive ties used in electronic mails versus paper-based letters in advanced university students. That is, the researchers tried to examine the frequency and type of use of conjunctions and references in emails and paper-based letters produced by English Language Translation students. In other words, the researchers' main concern was to compare the use of three types of conjunctions including coordinating, correlative and transitional conjunctions as well as three types of references, i.e., anaphoric, exophoric and cataphoric in electronic mails versus paper-based letters. For this purpose, the following research questions were posed:

1. Is the amount of conjunctions different in electronic mails and paper-based letters?
2. Is the amount of references different in electronic mails and paper-based letters?
3. Which conjunctions are common in electronic mails?
4. Which conjunctions are common in paper-based letters?
5. Which references are common in electronic mails?
6. Which references are common in paper-based letters?

II. METHOD OF THE STUDY

Design

In order to address the research questions of this study, the researcher used a mixed method research. The reason for choosing a mixed method research was the need for quantifying the amount of cohesive ties at data analysis stage and also investing the type of three types of conjunctions, i.e. coordinating, correlative and transitional conjunctions and three types of references i.e., anaphoric, exophoric and cataphoric in electronic mails and paper-based letters.

Participants

This study was an attempt to examine Iranian EFL learners' use of two types of cohesive ties, i.e. conjunctions and references in electronic mails and paper-based letters. As the participants were aimed at producing letters, it was a good

idea to choose those who were taking letter writing course. For this reason, 59 English Language Translation students from Payam-Noor University of Iran participated in this study. The age range of the participants was 18- 42 (mean 30) and they were 41 female and 18 male participants. Five of the participants were eliminated from the study because they did not complete the letter writing tasks as they were required.

Instruments

This study required the use of a two-fold instrument. In other words, the researchers used two distinct mediums of writing letters. The first medium was writing letters using paper and pencil. In contrast, the second medium involved the use of computers for writing letters in the form of emails.

Procedures

The researchers of this paper collected data from a group of English Language Translation students who were attending a letter writing course in Payam-Noor University of Iran. It is important to note that the participants were learning letter writing in a conventional rather than CALL context. The researcher decided that it would be best not to inform the participants of the fact that they were taking part in a research to prevent the probable influences on the participants' performance.

The first step in data collection procedure was to ask the participants to write a letter to their teachers. At this stage, the participants wrote a paper-based complaint letter titled "complain about a mistake by the bank". After two weeks, the second step in data collection started by requesting the participants to write an email to their instructor. The title of this electronic based letter was not same but was parallel to paper-based letter's title to avoid the probable practice effect. As a result the researchers selected "complain about damaged merchandise" as the title of this electronic letter (electronic mail). Meanwhile, it is important to restate that five participants were omitted from the study for their incomplete participation.

After collecting the second group of data, the researchers compared the two sets of data on the basis of the use of three types of conjunctions and references. For the purpose of comparison, they made use of Halliday and Hassan's (1976) classification of conjunctions and references. Moreover, they adopted a method of anticipating the cohesive ties density proposed by Halliday and Hassan (1976). According to this method, the researchers needed to count the mean number of cohesive ties per T-unit. Finally, the researchers used Paired-samples t-test to estimate the amount of conjunctions used in paper-based letters and electronic emails. They, further, used the same statistical test to analyze the use of references in the two types of letters.

III. RESULTS

As mentioned before, the researchers used Halliday and Hassan' (1976) classification to estimate the number of conjunctions and references produced by the participants both in electronic mails and paper-based letters. In order to estimate the significance of the differences of the two sets of means, the researchers made use of Paired-samples t-test.

In Table 1, we can see that conjunctions present a lower mean score for electronic mails than paper-based letters (1.07 < 1.32). Moreover, this table displays lower degree of mean in the use of references for electronic mails. In fact, the mean score for the use of references in electronic mails is 1.13 which is lower than the mean score for paper-based letters which is 1.24. The major questions of this research were whether these differences were significant or not.

TABLE 1.
STATISTICS FOR THE USE OF CONJUNCTIONS AND REFERENCES IN ELECTRONIC MAILS AND PAPER-BASED LETTERS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Conjunctions in electronic mails	1.0778	54	.66038	.08987
	Conjunctions in paper-based letters	1.3278	54	.33332	.04536
Pair 2	References in electronic mails	1.1370	54	.56076	.07631
	References in paper-based letters	1.2444	54	.41694	.05674

The researchers have carried out a paired-samples t-test to compare two sets of scores (number of conjunctions and references in electronic mails and paper-based letters) obtained from the same group (N= 54). It is important to note that this statistical test has been conducted for both conjunctions and references. For the use of conjunctions, there was a significant difference in scores for electronic mails (M=1.07, SD= .66) and paper-based letters (M=1.32, SD=.33), t (54) = -2.50, p <0.05. The magnitude of the difference in the means was moderate (eta square = .04) and type of writing had only 4 percent of variance in the use of conjunctions.

Moreover, this test has been conducted for the use of references in electronic mails and paper-based letters. The significance of difference reported for the use of references in electronic mails (M=1.13, SD= .56) and paper-based letters (M=1.24, SD=.41) was t (54) = -1.11, p > 0.05. The magnitude of the difference in the means was small (eta square = .01) and type of writing had only 1 percent of variance in the use of references. The results are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
PAIRED-SAMPLE T-TEST FOR THE USE OF CONJUNCTIONS AND REFERENCES IN ELECTRONIC MAILS AND PAPER-BASED LETTERS

		Paired Differences							
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	Conjunctions in electronic mails – Conjunctions in paper-based letters	-.25000	.73401	.09989	-.45035	-.04965	-2.503	53	.015
Pair 2	References in electronic mails - References in paper-based letters	-.10741	.70627	.09611	-.30018	.08537	-1.118	53	.269

Moreover, the researchers analyzed and compared the frequency of the use of different types of conjunctions, i.e. coordinating, correlative and transitional conjunctions and references i.e. anaphoric, exophoric and cataphoric. Table 3 tabulates the frequency of the use of three types of conjunctions in electronic mails and paper-based letters. As it is evident from this table, coordinating conjunctions are the most common conjunctions in both types of letters irrespective of their mood of presentation. In other words, 56% of conjunctions in electronic mails and 55% of them in paper-based letters are considered as coordinating conjunctions.

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCY OF THE USE OF DIFFERENT CONJUNCTIONS IN ELECTRONIC MAILS AND PAPER-BASE LETTERS

Types of conjunctions	Electronic mails	Paper-based letters
Coordinating	56%	55%
Correlative	13%	21%
Transitional	31%	24%
Total	**100%**	**100%**

Besides, the researchers investigated the type of references with regard to their frequency in both types of writings. As it is indicated in Table 4, anaphoric references are the most common references in electronic mails and paper-based letters. That is, respectively, 73% and 42 % of the references are allocated to anaphoric references which show a high frequency of this reference type in both sorts of writing.

TABLE 4.
FREQUENCY OF THE USE OF DIFFERENT REFERENCES IN ELECTRONIC MAILS AND PAPER-BASE LETTERS

Types of references	Electronic mails	Paper-based letters
Anaphoric	73%	42%
Exophoric	12%	23%
Cataphoric	15%	35%
Total	**100%**	**100%**

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Significant achievements in the application of CALL motivate teachers all around the world to use computers and electronic devices in the field of language learning. However, it is not an easy task to substitute this technology based learning and more specifically writing, with the conventional methods. The primary issue in this study was to compare electronic mails and paper-based letters in terms of the frequency of use of conjunction.

Conjunctions bring unity to the task of writing; it is a good idea to investigate such cohesive markers in the two mediums of writing. As the result shows there was a significant difference in the use of conjunctions in both groups; it was shown that the mean score for the use of conjunctions in paper-based letters were higher than the number of such cohesive ties in electronic mails. This may indicate a need to motivate learners to use more connectors to get better cohesion in the electronic texts. In other words, teachers are responsible to aware their learners of the use of conjunctions in electronic mails.

Besides, the same mean relationship has been achieved for the use of references in the two mediums. It was presented that the mean number of references were lower in electronic mails. Although there was a mean variation, the difference was not significant in the use of references.

With regard to the type of conjunctions, the participants' writings (both electronic and paper-based) presented similarities. The same results have been obtained for the use of references. That is to say, the 54 participants' letters showed similar rankings for the use of references. In the two medium, anaphoric references were used more than cataphoric references. Also, exospheric references were the least frequent references in the electronic mails and paper-based letters. These findings are motivating since it shows that the learners may use similar processes in the use of conjunctions in both electronic mails and paper-based letters.

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Nader Assadi Aidinlou holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics from University Sains Malaysia and his MA. and BA. in Teaching English as a Foreign Language from Islamic Azad University, Tabriz Branch. As an academic member at the Department of English Language and Literature, Islamic Azad University, he is the Research Vice-chancellor and Head of the Graduate Department of English Language and Literature at Islamic Azad University, Ahar Branch. He has widely published and presented papers in different international journals and conferences and published the book "The ABC's of Functional Grammar" by Oxford Fajar. He is also an authorized translator for the Islamic Republic of Iran's Administration of Justice.

Elnaz Reshadi is a Ph.D. candidate in TEFL at Islamic Azad University, Ahar Branch in Iran. She has been an instructor at Payam-Noor University since 2009. Her major research interests include learner differences, academic writing, cooperative assessment and critical discourse analysis.

The Effectiveness of Using the Cooperative Language Learning Approach to Enhance EFL Writing Skills among Saudi University Students

Montasser Mohamed AbdelWahab Mahmoud

College of Languages and Translation, Al-Imam University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—Cooperative language learning (CLL) approach was used to encourage second-year university students at the college of languages and translation, at Al-Imam University to learn from their peers so that they could develop their writing skills. Students in CLL-based groups were trained to be more responsible for their learning through developing their personal interaction as well as their linguistic competence in a more relaxed social context. This treatment included sophomore students enrolled in EN 211 course in the second semester of 2013 academic year. Two instruments were used in this study; a pre-post writing test, and an attitude questionnaire. The pre- and post- scores from the test were calculated for descriptive statistics and compared using a Wilcoxon Test. The process of evaluating students' writings focused mainly on analyzing their mistakes with regard to spelling, using of vocabulary, grammar, punctuation as well as coherence. The findings revealed that the students' scores in writing were higher for the post-test than the pre-test at the significance level of .001 after being subject to this kind of treatment. However, it must be stated that the degree of improvement was not extremely high as students still made some mistakes with regard to the previously mentioned points. As for the attitude scale, the results obtained proved that the students developed positive attitudes towards using the cooperative learning approach to develop language skills in general and to develop their writing skills in particular.

Index Terms—CLL approach, CLL-based groups, EFL writing, attitude

I. INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that Cooperative Learning can be used as an effective approach to encourage students to work together as one team inside the class. According to Hirst and Slavik (2003) active participation in discussing various viewpoints on a certain topic could be activated through the use of cooperative learning approach inside the classroom. Lee (203) also asserted that students' participation in hand-on activities can be enhanced through the use of small group activities. Furthermore, assisting peers to learn through explaining subject content to one another has been positively correlated with academic achievement (Depaz & Moni, 2008). In fact, the spirit of competitiveness and the domination of individualism may be reduced and lessened through adopting the approach of cooperative learning that provides a supportive learning environment for students in which they can acquire and exchange ideas, information and knowledge. In writing class, small groups can be used to create communication, interpersonal and team skills as members of each group do not have the same background or ability in EFL writing. This sort of variety helps students within each group support their peers as they can complement each other's strengths and weaknesses in EFL writing; some of them may have strong background in vocabulary or grammar while other students may have good background about the topic they are discussing. Following this way, low level students can benefit from their strong-level peers' feedback with regard to their grammatical, vocabulary, punctuation and spelling mistakes, and at the same time good students will feel satisfied and proud that they had a significant role in helping their low level classmates. By using the cooperative language learning (CLL) approach, students could discuss, share ideas, and see how their peers think and react. Therefore, a more relaxing environment of learning can be rendered and more opportunities for students to produce better EFL writing can be provided.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In cooperative learning, students are generally divided into groups. In each group, three to five students share ideas, study and work together and negotiate meaning to develop a shared knowledge and achieve a certain objective or find a solution to a specific learning problem instead of working alone and competing with each other individually. The same issue was adopted by John (1997) who asserted that learners need to work together on a topic and help one another so that all could reach mutual success. According to Kagan (1994), cooperative learning would encourage learners to have higher achievement than competitive or individualistic learning as it offers learners opportunities that enable them to increase their self-esteem and to become more intrinsically motivated. Astin (1993) also highlighted the importance of using cooperative learning as an approach of learning that could play a vital role in increasing interaction among members of each group on one side and among the divided groups on the other side. Budd (2004) also stated that

exercises used in cooperative learning, among small groups, could provide an adequate chance for students to analyze deeply the topic they discuss Similarly, White and Caminero (1995) pinpointed that cooperative learning helped students learn from each other. On the same hand, Biggs (1999) contended that the increasing number and diversity of the university population had a negative impact on the usefulness of the traditional lecture and tutorial. Therefore, Brookfield (1999 suggested using active learning strategies [such as cooperative learning] to increase the benefit for students and improve their chances for success. Herreid (2006) called for incorporating discussion activities such as Think/Pair/Share and Case Studies so as to help students develop their understanding and improve their overall attitudes. Hayashi (2005) asserted the importance of practicing writing among peers as an effective means to improve their writing skills.

Many pieces of research have supported the effectiveness of using cooperative learning approach in EFL classes so far. While some of these researches indicated that this approach could help students develop their English language skills, other studies focused on the effectiveness of using cooperative learning approach in developing their writing skills in particular(Cole, 2012, Elola and Oskoz, 2010, Wong et al. 2009, Mason, 2006; Chen, 2004; Atkinson, 2003, Mariam, 2004; Chandrika, 2001). The findings obtained from the previously stated studies enabled the researcher to build a strong and sound theoretical background about the use of the cooperative learning approach to develop and enhance students' writing skills. However, these studies have been mostly confined to writing in the secondary school setting within ESL writing classrooms. Undoubtedly, some of the previous studies focused on the use of CLL within tertiary writing classrooms, but more insights are still needed to show how this approach could be used in specific academic settings with respect to the concerns highlighted previously. In other words, while empirical evidence advocated the use of the CLL approach with various subject areas and different age groups, less is still known regarding the effectiveness of such an approach with regard to EFL not only ESL university level learners. Therefore, the focus of this study was on EFL writing within tertiary writing classrooms as English in Saudi Arabia is taught and used as a foreign language not as a second language.

The review of the literature revealed that the CLL approach could be used as a significant strategy in developing student's EFL writing skills and their attitudes towards using it. Atkinson (2003) stated that the use of the CLL approach to enhance EFL writing inside classroom is based on the argument that writing instruction in an EFL classroom is not only getting students to put pen to paper, but it also involves facilitating personal interaction among students as well as developing students' responses towards texts. Kim and Kim (2005) also highlighted the necessity of following the CLL approach instruction when students learn to write in this way so that students would be expected to generate, organize, and share their ideas in addition to taking care of the main components of the writing process such as vocabulary, spelling, purpose, target audience, and mechanics. All these components were put into consideration when selecting the small group activities inside the class. Second-year university students suffer from a lot of problems with regard to their writing skills especially in the five previously mentioned points. They need more active and interesting atmosphere in which they could enjoy more personal interaction rather than personal cognitive competence to be able to write effectively. It is supposed that working together in small groups could be a motivating factor to share ideas and get feedback by which they could correct themselves and achieve their purpose of writing effectively.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In tertiary EFL writing classrooms, students face a lot of problems when trying to write an essay. These problems represent a great challenge that researchers should do their best to find a solution to them. It is commonly known that using traditional approaches to develop writing skills focuses mainly on accuracy and ignores to a great extent the process of writing itself. Therefore, the present study suggested that such problems can be solved if EFL writing is taught using the CLL approach as group writing discussions develop students' interpersonal and communication skills and help them decide on their purpose while writing. Moreover, the use of this approach ensures applying the steps of writing as students will be given adequate opportunities to brainstorm, share ideas, write a first draft, plan, organize, revise, and edit. Hence, there was a need to investigate the impact of the CLL approach on developing students' writing skills.

The need to conduct such a study arose from the researcher's work as an assistant professor at Al-Imam University, college of Languages and Translation. The researcher has been teaching writing courses to university students since 2010 and has found that essay writing needs a lot to be done effectively especially among Saudi University students who could not write well even after eleven years of learning English. The students' inability to write effectively may be due to three main factors, namely, their cognitive background which reflected their inability to develop interesting and thoughtful ideas, their linguistic deficiency which was represented in their errors with regard to spelling, capitalization, vocabulary and structure, and academic writing problems in designing and planning paragraphs cohesively. Such basic deficiencies were often detected during the researcher's teaching of writing courses. It has therefore been suggested that the CLL approach could be an effective method to overcome these problems. From the researcher's point of view, the cooperative learning approach could serve as an effective method to fulfill the needs of university learners as it could develop cooperation among students within each group and promote respect for their varied experiences and backgrounds. It could also provide students with adequate opportunities to think and talk together, and consequently they could share ideas about the writing requirements. Such a less-anxiety producing environment let students write

with no fear of being subject to critical situation and it might create an interesting atmosphere in which the writing process would become less burdensome and less boring.

This study focused on the impact of using the CLL approach on developing EFL writing skills inside an EFL classroom. More specifically, the study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent was the CLL approach effective in developing second-year university students' writing skills?

2. What is the general attitude of the second-year university students towards the use of the CLL approach to enhance their EFL writing skills?

IV. Objectives of the Research

1. To investigate the effectiveness of using the CLL approach in developing the writing skills of second-year university students enrolled in EN 211 course in the second semester of 2013 academic year at Al Imam University, college of languages and translation.

2. To examine the students' attitude towards using the CLL approach to enhance the writing skills of second-year university students enrolled in EN 211 course in the second semester of 2013 academic year at Al Imam University, college of languages and translation.

V. Research Methodology

The current study adopted the one group pre-test, post-test design as the researcher had no chance to apply his study on other sections. Therefore the data were collected from one section (No.143) which contained 20 students (only fifteen students who completed to the end of the course) enrolled in a required EN 211 course of three credits in the second semester of 2013 academic year. The sample might seem small but it could give more specific and accurate results as there is a single selected group, which is section No.134, under observation, with a careful measurement being done before applying the treatment (the CLL approach) and then measuring after. This design has minimal internal validity, controlling only for selection of subject and experimental mortality but it has no external validity. The researcher did his best to overcome all kinds of threats to its internal validity.

A. Instruments

Two instruments were used to determine the effectiveness of using the CLL approach to develop students' writing skills. The first one was a pre-post writing test. The total score was 45 points. Time allotted for the writing test was 100 minutes. The validity of the test items were ensured by three TEFL experts. The contents for testing students included eight parts:

1) Write about a piece of clothing that is special to you.

2) Read the following paragraph and correct the three fragments and two run-on errors.

3) Write two supporting sentences for each of the following topic sentences.

4) Read the following paragraph below and cross out the sentences that do not support the topic sentence.

5) Write a thesis statement, describing the three categories for each of these topics.

6) To what extent does your college provide these opportunities? Write a three-paragraph essay expressing your opinion.

7) Read the following paragraph and answer the questions below it.

8) Read the following sentences, then number them in the order you think they occurred.

The second instrument was a 34 item questionnaire. It was developed based on the literature review conducted by the researcher. Some of the items were adopted from Brown's study (2008) and Farrah's study (2011) and then adapted to suit the current study. The researcher developed a questionnaire that could be used for examining students' attitudes towards using the CLL approach to enhance their EFL writing skills. The questionnaire consisted of 34 statements with a 3 point Likert scale, (agree, neutral and disagree). The 34-item questionnaire was distributed at the end of the second semester of the academic year 2012/2013 to the subjects of the study. The reliability coefficient of the questionnaire was tabulated. The Cronbach Alpha Coefficient of the questionnaire was ($r = 0.88$) that refers to a very high degree of internal consistency, and therefore it could offer a considerably reliable instrument.

B. Samples and Locations

The samples for the study included one group of EFL second-year students (20 students) from Al-Imam University, College of Languages and Translation. It was unavailable for the researcher to select other sections as he was responsible for teaching only one section.

C. The Treatment

From past experience in teaching writing courses, some students seemed to develop a negative attitude towards studying EFL writing so they used to cut the class as they were not able to catch up with others in class. To solve this problem, the CLL approach was of interest to the researcher due to its positive outcomes as mentioned earlier. The study was therefore conducted to see if this approach was effective in producing higher achievement with regard to writing or not. The students were divided into five groups consisting of four students per group who were asked to write

essays together throughout the second semester of the academic year 2012/2013. Students were given general guidelines for the major points to be covered in their essay writings. In order to make sure that the students work effectively on such cooperative writing activities, the researcher explained to his students what is meant by co-operative writing and how they could make full use of this approach to enhance their writing skills. The students were given the right to choose their own group as well as a leader for each group. The group leader was responsible for managing and organizing the writing activities. Each group was given a letter (A, B, C, D, E) to judge the performance of each group concerning the writing activities. The numbers of the students inside each group reduced to be three instead of four as some students were not able to attend all classes. In some lectures, the students were asked to brainstorm ideas either by writing them in a list, a cluster or a two column design, and write the outline of their essays individually, and then work together in their own groups and compare their writing with that of the other students in the group. In other lectures, the students were asked to organize ideas, write the first draft, revise and give each other feedback. Students were encouraged to read aloud their writing outcome to other groups so that the five groups could benefit from each other. Students were given several topics to write about such as "Introducing Yourself to a Future Employer", "The Death Penalty", "Coed and Single-Sex Schools", "The Best Time to be Alive". Such topics were given to students to urge them to think and talk together. At the same time, they could share and exchange ideas with their group members. Problems in writing such as punctuation marks, spelling mistakes, grammatical structures were given much attention from the students as well as from the researcher. Furthermore, students were encouraged to give their comments and feedback to each other. Following the final completion of the writing tasks, the students were asked to fill out a questionnaire about their attitude towards the use of the CLL approach to enhance EFL writing skills to see whether or not the process improved their writing and their attitudes towards the cooperative writing activities.

An average of 15 students attended regularly a three-hour lecture session per week while the other five used to cut some of the classes so the researcher avoided referring to their results. The treatment was made in the following way:

1. The first one-hour lecture was devoted for explaining the way students were going to use the CLL approach inside the classroom. The pre-test was also given to students during the second two-hour lecture of the same week. The two lectures were on the second week of the semester as students were engaged in the process of registration on the first week.

2. Four weeks (eight lectures' sessions) were devoted to developing support skills for writing one paragraph essay (indentation, capitalization, quotation marks, formulating an outline)

3. Four weeks (eight lectures' sessions) were devoted for organizing and writing a three paragraph essay (An Introduction that includes a thesis statement, a body paragraph that includes either explanations, examples, statistics or facts, and a conclusion)

4. Four weeks (eight lectures' sessions) were devoted for dealing with a specific writing technique (comparing and contrasting data, Classification, Comparison and Contrast).

2. In week fourteen, students were given the post-test in the two-hour lecture and they were asked to complete an attitude questionnaire in the other one-hour lecture of the same week.

The Lecture Format

For the lecture format, the researcher used a combination of hand-outs and CLL activities that depended on the drills and activities included in their writing course, Reasons to Write. The treatment had been conducted over a period of 14 weeks. The groups within this section had been taught by the researcher. Each group was expected to complete an essay writing every week. They used to start with brain storming with its different forms, sharing ideas, drawing an outline, organizing ideas, making the first draft, revising, editing, and writing the final draft. They were also asked to read aloud their essays to the whole class and then given a score depending on the degree of accuracy they reached in their writing. In this way, they were highly stimulated and encouraged as the researcher observed that this motivating environment had a vital role in making the students enjoy doing writing tasks as they worked cooperatively to achieve a certain purpose. In this study, the researcher did his best to provide a relaxing environment and appropriate tasks for giving students equal opportunities. This was also accompanied by writing assignments which were in a class with the topics included in their writing course as well as their language level. These assignments were given to students to be done individually or in a group, and then marked by the researcher. Along these lines, students were given the chance to compare their current scores to the previous given ones so that they could check the improvement of the writing level during the treatment.

Data Collection

The obtained scores from the post-test were compared with the pre-test scores to show how students' writing skills improved. To learn how the students felt towards learning with this approach, an attitude questionnaire was distributed to students. The treatment was used with twenty students but five of them were not able to attend all classes or complete the course so all their degrees and grades were excluded from the final result. However, most students who regularly attended classes (15 students) appeared to be motivated and encouraged to complete the writing course and take the post test and the questionnaire.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the tests were analyzed quantitatively using SPSS Program through descriptive and dependent Wilcoxon Test statistics. Also, the data from the attitude scale were analyzed and presented.

VI. RESEARCH RESULTS

a) As for the first question of the study, a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test was used to compare the mean scores of the students' answers on the pre/post- test. The test was used to find out the effectiveness of using the CLL approach to enhance students' EFL writing Skills. The following table compares the pre/posttest means for students concerning the writing test.

TABLE 1:
A WILCOXON TEST RESULTS COMPARING THE PRE- TEST VS. POST-TEST MEANS FOR THE STUDENTS IN THE WRITING TEST

	N	Mini.	Maxi.	Mean	Std.Deviation	Z	Sig.
Pre- test	15	11	33	21.80	6.516	-3.415	.001
Post-test	15	20	42	33.33	6.543		

The results showed that the mean score of the post-test was higher than that of the pre-test. As evidenced by the significant difference at the level of .001, it clearly illustrated that the CLL approach used inside the classroom proved rather effective. The maximum score of students rose from 33 in the pre-test to be 42 in the post-test. To investigate accurately how the treatment was effective in developing students' writing skills, the following table compares the number and the percentage of students in the pre-posttest in detail.

TABLE 2:
A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE NUMBER AND THE PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN THE PRE-POST WRITING TEST

	No.	Failed		Passed		From 50% to 59%		From 60% to 69%		From 70% to 79%		From 80% to 89%		From 90% to 100%	
		No.	Per.	No.	Per.	No.	Per.	No.	Per.	No.	Per.	No.	Per.	No.	Per.
Pre	15	9	60%	6	40%	2	13.3	2	13.3	2	13.3	0	0	0	0
Post	15	1	6.2%	14	93.8	1	6.6	3	20	4	26.6	3	20	3	20

The results stated in the previous table showed clearly how the CLL approach was effective in developing students' writing skills. The total number of students who passed the pre-test was six but it rose to 14 in the posttest. The total percentage of successful students reached 93.8% as there was only one student who was not able to pass the writing test. This result reflected the effectiveness of using CLL approach to enhance students' EFL writing skills especially if it was compared to the percentage in the pretest which was 40%. Examining the results included in the previous table showed that no student could get a mark over 79% while six students were able to get over 80%. It was also noted that there was not a big change in the number or percentage of students who got from 50% to 69% in the pre-posttest. Such a result reflected that the CLL approach was not of a great value to them as their levels remained the same. This might have been due to their inability to mix effectively with their group or their lack of desire to share seriously in the small-based groups. As for those who got higher percentage in the posttest than the pre-test, it must be said that they appreciated the use of the CLL approach and found it effective as well as interesting. This was obvious in their care about every step and their interest in asking about every small details related to the application of this approach inside the classroom.

b) As for the second question of the study, the means and standard deviation was measured for all items included in the attitude questionnaire to know exactly how students felt about using the CLL approach to enhance their EFL writing skills. The following table showed the results obtained from distributing the attitude questionnaire on the students.

TABLE 3:
MEANS AND STANDARD FOR ALL ITEMS IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

No	Statement	No.	M	SD
1	The CLL approach develops students' awareness of writing skills	15	1.53	.743
2	The CLL approach improves interpersonal and team skills	15	1.87	.352
3	The CLL approach develops critical thinking skills	15	1.27	.799
4	The CLL approach provides chances to express ideas freely.	15	1.80	.414
5	The CLL approach provides more opportunities for students to participate in hands-on activities	15	1.33	.816
6	The CLL approach develops students' responsibility not only for learning what is being taught, but also for helping team mates learn.	15	1.53	.640
7	The CLL approach assists peers to learn through explaining subject content to one another	15	1.67	.617
8	The CLL approach saves time	15	1.07	.884
9	The CLL approach is a very worthwhile experience.	15	1.40	.910
10	The CLL approach can be used to stimulate students to acquire more knowledge.	15	1.40	.737
11	The CLL approach fosters exchange of ideas, information and experience.	15	1.80	.414
12	The CLL approach enhances performance in designing and organizing an essay.	15	1.47	.834
13	The CLL approach should be used in teaching all language skills.	15	1.33	.816
14	The CLL approach decreases competitiveness and individualism.	15	1.60	.737
15	The CLL approach increases students' self-esteem.	15	1.13	.834
16	The CLL approach offers students opportunities to become more intrinsically motivated.	15	1.13	.915
17	The CLL approach develops the spirit of confidence.	15	1.47	.834
18	The CLL approach is effective in brainstorming different ideas about writing topics.	15	1.87	.352
19	The CLL approach could help low level students develop their writing skills.	15	1.60	.632
20	The CLL approach enhances spelling.	15	1.60	.737
21	The CLL approach enhances punctuation.	15	1.67	.724
22	The CLL approach enhances grammar.	15	1.40	.828
23	The CLL approach enhances the narrative technique in writing	15	1.33	.816
24	The CLL approach gives a very good chance to get useful feedback.	15	1.80	.414
25	The CLL approach creates more supporting ideas in writing an essay.	15	1.60	.632
26	The CLL approach develops problem-solving technique.	15	1.20	.862
27	The CLL approach makes writing more enjoyable.	15	1.40	.828
28	The CLL approach helps in doing more than one task.	15	1.00	.926
29	The CLL approach develops revision as well as checking skills	15	1.33	.816
30	The CLL approach develops the skill of paragraph planning.	15	1.33	.900
31	The CLL approach makes writing easier.	15	1.53	.743
32	The CLL approach creates an atmosphere of achievement.	15	1.47	.743
33	The CLL approach creates a friendly atmosphere of learning.	15	1.87	.352
34	The CLL approach makes writing more funny and interesting.	15	1.67	.724
The General Mean		1.48		

The previous results showed that the participants in the current study agreed on the items included in the attitude questionnaire with a mean equal to 1.48 out of 2.00. This percentage belongs to the third category in the three-level Likert scale. It referred to the students' acceptance of using the CLL approach to enhance their writing skills. The rate of acceptance ranged from 1.00 to 1.87. This rate belongs to the second and the third category of the three-level Likert scale (which refers to agree or neutral) respectively. In general, item 28 (The CLL approach helps in doing more than one task.) came last in the order of acceptance as the mean of its acceptance reached 1.00 out of 2.00 while item 18 (The CLL approach is effective in brainstorming different ideas about writing topics.) came first with 1.87 mean of acceptance out of 2.00. Such previous results highlighted the close relationship between the CLL approach and brainstorming as students had more freedom to brainstorm new ideas through working together within one group. Each one of them felt responsible for achieving their purpose of getting enough ideas that could help them write an essay successfully so that they could be classified as the best group inside the class. As for Item 28 which came last, it was obvious that students did not want to achieve their tasks quickly. They wanted to take their full time to produce an effective academic writing. They also stated that working together did not allow them to do more than one task as they spent some time discussing and talking. The results also showed that students were impressed and happy because of the supportive environment provided through working with peers in a group. The English writing class became more interesting as most students could work with more relaxation and fun. Although the students were worried about their low writing skills at the start of the treatment, they gradually became more confident and didn't fear making mistakes because they considered the activities encouraging and motivating. However, students still made mistakes in their writing especially in spelling and grammar. The researcher had to intervene when students wanted to be sure about their spelling or structures so that they could benefit from such feedback to develop their spelling and grammatical skills. The selected activities included in the CLL approach helped students benefit from their participation in the small groups and they found them valuable and useful to enhance their writing skills and develop positive attitudes towards using it inside the class.

VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The findings of the study supported the use of the CLL approach to enhance students' EFL writing skills. The reason why their score in the post-test increased was probably due to the opportunities provided by this approach for students of different levels to support, encourage, and give feedback to each other. The use of this approach creates more interesting, comfortable, and funny learning environment in which students could share and exchange ideas to achieve their intended purpose. The significant improvement on the students' EFL writing skills might have resulted from the processes that students experience while working together in small groups. These processes included brainstorming, discussing, thinking, planning, drawing an outline, and finding solutions to certain problems in a group instead of doing such processes individually or in a whole class context. The findings related to the effectiveness of using the CLL approach to improve students' writing skills were supported by other studies. (Lapsopa, 2005; and Al-Najjar, 2012). The findings related to the need for providing a more relaxed learning atmosphere to students fostered the findings of Mariam's (2004) Adams' (2000) and Ahmed's (2012) that called for concurrent improvement of communication skills.

It is worthwhile mentioning here that the CLL approach provided opportunities for students to share responsibility with regard to writing. Everyone inside each group felt responsible and did his best to fulfill his duty. It can be said that the CLL approach was to some extent effective in developing the social communication between the students as it allowed them to talk and work together. Moreover, it was found that the CLL approach developed the students' ability of giving feedback concerning the mistakes they made in their writing, whether they were in spelling, punctuation, grammar, or organization.

When using the CLL approach inside writing classroom, students felt that they became more responsible for their work as creators of ideas and builders of meaning and knowledge. They worked together, discussed and exchanged ideas in a more interactive and learner-centered environment. They felt they became autonomous learners as they found themselves engaged in doing different types of writing tasks without much help from the lecturer. These findings were in line with a number of studies that were carried out in the same field. (Astin, 1993; Ellison & Boykin, 1994; Elola & Oskoz, 2010; Barkley et al. 2005) Moreover, the students had positive attitudes towards using the CLL approach to enhance their communication skills, critical thinking skills, and motivation. Using the CLL approach made writing enjoyable, meaningful, motivating, relevant, and reduces anxiety as students interact with each other in interesting groups. Such findings went with others obtained in similar areas. (Millis, B. J., & Cottell, P. G., 1998, Barkley et al., 2005; Nor & Abd. Samad, 2003).

As for the problems and the challenges that the researcher faced while applying this study, it was noted at the start of the application of the CLL approach that some students did not appreciate the use of it at the start of the treatment. The lack of motivation to work in small groups might due to two main reasons; one of them was related to the weak level students who felt that they might be negatively absorbed in group activities and also feared of making mistakes in front of their friends, the second reason was related to good level students who felt that they were much more competent than low level ones and working in groups would make them out of focus. Some of them expressed their refusal to work in groups but they gradually changed their opinions when the steps of the procedures were explained to them by the researcher in the first lecture. However, it must be stated that some students complained that members in their groups were somewhat inactive as well as indifferent when one of the group wanted to do the whole task or when members of the group found that a good chance to them to do nothing. Another problem arose when the students lacked ideas about the topic they were going to write about. The researcher took the role of a facilitator and tried to help them by suggesting some helpful points that might help them brainstorm more ideas and decide on the main outline of their writing. Sometimes the absence of one member of any of the five groups made a kind of disturbance to the whole work, but the researcher tried to overcome this problem by giving this group less work or work with this group as a group member not as a lecturer.

In sum, the findings of this study confirmed that the use of the CLL approach had a positive impact on developing students' writing skills but more attention should be paid to conduct the activities in an effective planned and designed way. Needless to say, then, while using the CLL approach, the number of students in each group ought to be limited to three four or five. From the researcher's point of view, each group should be allowed to choose their partners in the group as well as their leader so that they could avoid unnecessary talk and time wasting. They could also work effectively together so as to develop and enhance their EFL writing skills.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on these results, the current study recommended using the CLL approach as an essential component in any university writing course. Lecturers should offer students more stimulating and enjoyable learning environment through providing them with interesting co-operative learning activities that are challenging and attractive to all of them. The benefits and drawbacks of using the CLL approach to enhance EFL writing skills need to be assessed and evaluated with a large number of students so that more comprehensive details could be provided.

APPENDIX A. WRITING TEST

(1) Yung Sheen has special memories and feelings about his wedding suit (Kimono). Write about a piece of clothing that is special to you. (5 marks)

What does it look like?	How did you get it?
Why is it important to you?	How does it make you feel?

(2) Read the following paragraph and correct the three fragments and two run-on errors. Do not forget to use appropriate punctuation and capitalization. (5 marks)

My father's nephew owned a factory, and I worked there as a young man. I enjoyed this work very much. Saw a large number of people. One time a new worker came to work with us in the factory. He a son, he was my age. We met often and talked about our work. I invited him to meet my family. He told us about his life in Qatar. We enjoyed our time. Suddenly, my dad told him something unforgettable. He said, "I know that you want to marry again." My father an intelligent man, he was right. The man came to this place not to look for work but to work for a wife.

(3) Write two supporting sentences for each of the following topic sentences. (8 marks)

1. Computers are useful in many ways.
2. There are certain characteristics that I always look for in a good hotel.
3. When I want to look nice for a party, I follow a few simple steps.
4. There are many ways to show respect for older people.

(4) Read the following paragraph below on "Buying a Sofa", cross out the sentences that do not support the topic sentence. (5 marks)

My aunt acquired a new sofa in an unusual way. She was walking to the train station, and she saw a yard sale. A family was selling a beautiful but old blue sofa at a very good price. She examined it and found it in a good state. She decided to buy it but there was a problem. She did not have a truck and her apartment was far from this place. Suddenly, she saw my father in his truck and asked him to help her. He was always helpful. He was tall with a long bear and glasses. She paid for the sofa and my father carried it and put it in the truck. It was a heavy truck. Its color was red with white lines. He bought it last year. One of his friends helped him to get it. My aunt and my father took the sofa home. On the way, they drank some coffee and ate sandwiches. They were delicious.

(5) Write a thesis statement, describing the three categories for each of these topics. Use the classification expressions below. (6 marks)

1. Topic: Teachers   friendly, unfriendly, indifferent
2. Topic: Friends   childhood friends, friends from school, friends from work

(6) A good college should allow students to develop in many ways: academically, socially, and culturally. Do you agree or disagree? To what extent does your college provide these opportunities? Write a three-paragraph essay expressing your opinion. (8 marks)

(7) Read the following paragraph and answer the questions below it. (4 marks)

Ethanol can be produced from the fermentation of some crops that contain starch, wheat, sugar cane, and, in Indonesia, sweet potatoes and especially, cassava. In the process of converting cassava to ethanol, the first step is milling, the reduction of the size of the particles. Next, the particles are cooled; the cassava is hydrated, and its starch gelatinized. Following that way, the starch is converted by enzymic hydrolysis into sugars, and then the ethanol from the sugars, including limited dextrin conversion, is fermented. In the final step, the ethanol is recovered through distillation, and the cassava residues are recovered by evaporation and waste treatment.

1. Why is passive voice used?
2. Change the passive voice in each sentence to active voice, what changes in tone and audience results?
3. Who is the audience for this paragraph? How do you know?
4. Write the chronological connectors?

(8) Read the following sentences. Then number them in the order you think they occurred. Use the sequence words and phrases as clues. (4 marks)

1. A few years ago, my two older brothers and I went trekking in the mountains.
2. Finally, I found the muddy trail, and we made it back to our base camp.
3. Soon we were hiking through thick pine forests.
4. We set out from our base camp on a bright winter morning.
5. After that experience, I realized it is very important to be careful when hiking in the mountains.
6. A little while later, we stopped to eat, and my older brother said we should turn around because we were losing the trail in the snow.
7. Eventually, it began to snow, and visibility became poor.
8. Going back down the mountain was harder because it was very icy and slippery, and we could not find the way. We became tired, cold and thirsty.

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is designed to measure the students" attitudes towards using the *CLL approach* to enhance the *writing skills of second-year students enrolled in EN 211 course in the second semester of 2013 academic year at Al Imam University, College of Languages and Translation.* The questionnaire is divided into two parts that you must read carefully, check and respond to the items included in each one of them.

Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and anonymous.

Part One

Please, tick the appropriate box.

A. Current GPA: below 60   60 – 69   70 – 79   80-89   90 and above
B. Writing is an easy skill to learn.   1. Yes   2- No
C. I prefer to write alone rather than in a group.   1. Yes   2- No
D. When I study alone, I understand better and learn better.   1- Yes   2- No
E. Age: below 20   21   22   23   24

Part Two

Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your views about using the *CLL approach* to enhance the *writing skills of sophomore students* by putting a tick (√) in the appropriate box using the scale given below.

Disagree 0   Neutral 1   Agree 2

No.	Statement	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
1	*The CLL approach* develops students' awareness of writing skills			
2	*The CLL approach* improves interpersonal and team skills			
3	*The CLL approach* develops critical thinking skills			
4	*The CLL approach* gives chances to express ideas freely.			
5	*The CLL approach* provides more opportunities for students to participate in hands-on activities			
6	*The CLL approach* develops students' responsibility not only for learning what is being taught, but also for helping teammates learn.			
7	*The CLL approach* assists peers to learn through explaining subject content to one another			
8	*The CLL approach* saves time			
9	*The CLL approach is a* very worthwhile experience.			
10	*The CLL approach* can be used to stimulate students to acquire the knowledge			
11	*The CLL approach* fosters exchange of ideas, information and experience.			
12	*The CLL approach* enhances performance in designing and organizing an essay.			
13	*The CLL approach* should be used in teaching all language skills.			
14	*The CLL approach* decreases competitiveness and individualism.			
15	*The CLL approach* increases students' self-esteem.			
16	*The CLL approach* offers students opportunities to become more intrinsically motivated.			
17	*The CLL approach develops* the spirit of confidence.			
18	*The CLL approach is* effective in brainstorming different ideas about writing topics.			
19	*The CLL approach could* help low level students develop their writing skills.			
20	*The CLL approach enhances* spelling.			
21	*The CLL approach* enhances punctuation.			
22	*The CLL approach* enhances grammar.			
23	*The CLL approach* enhances narrative technique in writing			
24	*The CLL approach* gives a very good chance to get useful feedback.			
25	*The CLL approach* creates more supporting ideas in writing an essay.			
26	*The CLL approach* develops problem-solving technique.			
27	*The CLL approach* makes writing more enjoyable.			
28	*The CLL approach* helps in doing more than one task.			
29	*The CLL approach* develops revision as well as checking skills			
30	*The CLL approach* develops the skill of paragraph planning.			
31	*The CLL approach* develops comprehension skills.			
32	*The CLL approach* makes writing easier.			
33	*The CLL approach* creates an atmosphere of achievement.			
34	*The CLL approach* creates a friendly atmosphere of learning.			
35	*The CLL approach* makes writing more funny and interesting.			

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Montasser Mohamed AbdelWahab Mahmoud, PhD in TEFL; An Assistant Professor at Al-Imam University, College of Languages and Translation, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia; A Lecturer at Al-M'aref Higher Institute of Languages and Translation, Cairo, Egypt; A Member of Al-Harmain Translation Team Project. A Reviewer at the International Education Studies, Canadian Centre of Science and Education; A reviewer at the BERJ British Educational Research Journal; A Reviewer at the IOSR Journal of Research & Method in Education (IOSR-JRME).

Translation of Cosmetics Trademarks from the Perspective of Translation Aesthetics

Shuai Wang

School of Translation Studies, Qufu Normal University, China

Abstract—This thesis presents the process of cosmetics trademarks translation from the perspective of artistic conception of translation aesthetics. The source name and target name of a cosmetics trademark are born in different cultural context. The two artistic conceptions created by the two names are connected by translation subjects' aesthetic experience and humane attainments based on the exchange of two languages. It studies successfully-translated cosmetics trademarks in Chinese market as examples to explain how artistic conceptions are created and connected.

Index Terms—trademark translation, cosmetics, artistic conception

Since the reform and opening up policy, more and more foreign brands have entered and been stationed in China. Simultaneously, many Chinese brands have been seeking the way to walk out. As a result, the quality of cosmetics trademarks translation plays an important role in the success of enterprise in the target market. The statistical data from China E-business Research Center shows China's cosmetics sales has broken through RMB 200 billion in 2012 and cosmetics expenditure has ranked second in the whole world only after US.[1] Cosmetics industry has been another high-growth market after real estate, communication, automobiles and tourism industry. Therefore, study on the cosmetics trademarks translation is of great significance to numerous foreign brands' marching in and Chinese brands' walking out.

I. LITERATURE REVIEW

Studies on trademarks and translations in west countries are confined to the business perspectives—marketing and brand management strategy, and cultural perspectives. What's more, studies mainly include trademarks of west countries. Since 1990s, trademarks in Asia market has drawn the attention of the academic world (Chan, 1990; McDonald and Roberts, 1990; Robinson, 1995; Johansson and Hirano, 1999; Blair, 2000) with the sharp rise of emerged markets. For example, Chan and Huang (1997; 1999; 2001) focused on the naming characteristics of Chinese trademarks and analyzed the law of naming for different trademarks from the perspective of linguistics. It is also pointed out that a successful trademark should be of positive connotation apart from pleasant-to-listen, readability and conciseness.

"Cosmetics trademarks translation""cosmetics brands translation" and "cosmetics brandnames translation" being keyword respectively with no time span, the writer has searched on CNKI and found that the sum of articles is 63, including six dissertations for Master Degree after deleting uncorrelated articles. Among all the articles, eight of them are written from the perspective of aesthetics, taking up 12.7%. Studies on cosmetics trademarks translation from the perspective of aesthetics starts late but is on rise. Many scholars such as Xu Shanwen (2007), Yu Junying (2008), Zhang Jing (2009), Zhao Ping (2011) and Ge Shuyi (2012) have summarized translation methods of cosmetics trademarks from the perspective of aesthetics and emphasized the nonnegligible status of subjects (translators and readers) in aesthetics. Starting from the perspective of cultural aesthetics, Lin Hua put forward in 2008 that cosmetics trademarks translation should conform to the general acceptance and aesthetic standard of target readers and purchasing psychology and customs of consumers in the target language community, as well as product properties and function. Chen Min surveyed semantic loss in the process of cosmetics trademarks translation from the perspective of aesthetics and emphasized the beauty of Chinese characters in 2012. However, discussions on aesthetics in the above mentioned articles are all restricted to some aesthetic elements such as beauty in sound, word and rhyme. Ye Hui interpreted aesthetic principle to beauty of simplicity, of image, of artistic conception and of originality in 2010. He also pointed out that a successful translated cosmetics trademark should not only convey the connotation of the source trademark but also reach a realm of beauty by reinforcement and sublimation. However, he did not study further or deeper on beauty of artistic conception and on how to realize beauty of artistic conception in the process of translation.

Putting trademarks, aesthetics of translation and cosmetics in corresponding cultural context, this thesis discusses in-depth how to realize beauty of artistic conception in the translation process of cosmetics trademarks.

II. AESTHETICS IN COSMETICS TRADEMARKS TRANSLATION

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[1] http://cz.ce.cn/xwzx/201305/21/t20130521_884767.shtml (accessed 28/5/2013).

The word aesthetic is derived from the Greek αἰσθητικός (aisthetikos, meaning "esthetic, sensitive, sentient"), which in turn was derived from αἰσθάνομαι (aisthanomai, meaning "I perceive, feel, sense"). The term "aesthetics" was appropriated and coined with new meaning in the German form Æsthetik(modern spelling Ästhetik) by Alexander Baumgarten in 1734. It is also derived from the French word "esthétique", both German and French words come from the Greek aisthetikos "sensitive, perceptive". Aesthetics is a branch of philosophy dealing with the nature of art, beauty, and taste, with the creation and appreciation of beauty. It is more scientifically defined as the study of sensory or sensori-emotional values, sometimes called judgments of sentiment and taste. More broadly, scholars in the field define aesthetics as "critical reflection on art, culture and nature." More specific aesthetic theory, often with practical implications, relating to a particular branch of the arts is divided into areas of aesthetics such as art theory, literary theory, film theory and music theory. Confucius emphasized the role of the arts and humanities (especially music and poetry) in broadening human nature and aiding li (etiquette, the rites) in bringing us back to what is essential about humanity. As well as being applied to art, aesthetics can also be applied to cultural objects such as crucifix or tools. Aesthetic coupling between art-objects and medical topics was made by speakers working for the US Information Agency. This coupling was made to reinforce the learning paradigm when English-language speakers used translators to address audiences in their own country. These audiences were generally not fluent in the English language.[2]

According to its origination, Aesthetics includes two aspects: subject and object. For the objects, aethetics are showed or expressed by their images or appearances or sounds. For subjects, aethetics comes from psychological reflection on objects, which is called "aesthetic feeling". Aesthetic felling is a kind of direct or indirect physical pleasure induced by beauty in nature, only which is elevated into a cultural, reasonable and mental level to fill human's physical experience with cultural and mental beauty, can people walk towards a harmonious and beautiful world thanks to the pursuit to beauty.

Trademark, aesthetics of translation and cosmetics are all products of social development to a certain historical period. Trademark can be dated back to the title of an ancient Greek writer's work. In China, image-text trademarks have appeared in North Song Dynasty time. Trademark has become a part of product and tends to be common in the modern market economy, which is not only a mark to distinguish products, but also a tool to compete in the market economy. According to Chan and Huang (1999, 2001), trademarks must bear three elements: language elements, market elements and legal elements. When name a product, first of all, the name must avoid "taboo" in the target context. It should be pleasure to hear, and have a good connotation. Second, The name should be marketable, which means it is suitable for the product, its positioning, its promotion and advertising. Last but not least, when the name is given, it must be applied to the Trademark Office of The State Administration For Industry & Commerce of the People's Republic of China[3] before it is commercially used. On the basis of "avoiding to be the same with other brandnames" and "avoiding taboos", it could be registered officially, and then it can be called a trademark. As a result, a successful translated trademark must bear the three elements as well. When can be used legally, it can not only produce a beautiful connection in the mind of consumers but also reach the effect of brand recognition.

Commonly provided with pleasing aroma, cosmetics can help people make clean and tidy appearance, benefiting both physical and psychological health. Aesthetics of translation can bring beauty and pleasure to people as well. Consequently, translated cosmetics trademarks become the indispensable subject to bear and deliver this kind of aesthetic feeling. The highest state of aesthetics of translation is to reach the beauty of artistic conception, which is a kind of endogenous aesthetic feeling produced by aesthetic subjects when looking at the aesthetic objects. Aesthetic subjects can feel themselves in a beautiful artistic conception by a kind of connection based on experience or memory. Translation aesthetics aims to help people enjoy the artistic beauty by language transformation (Mao, 2005). Its objects of study are aesthetic objects (source texts and target texts), aesthetic subjects (translators and readers), aesthetic activity, aesthetic judgment, aesthetic appreciation, aesthetical standard and the creative aesthetic representation in the translation process.

III. BEAUTY OF ARTISTIC CONCEPTION IN COSMETICS TRADEMARKS TRANSLATION

The word of "artistic conception" is derived from China's ancient poetry, which could also be called "realm" or "ambit". Chinese theory of art has begun to explore "realm" from Tang Dynasty. Wang Changling mentioned in his *Poetic Styles* that a poem has three conceptions—object-conception, feeling-conception and artistic-conception (Liu and Zhang, 2011). Thus it can be seen that artistic conception is based on "thing" and "feeling". Artistic conception in ancient poetry means a kind of artistic state formed by combining poet's feelings with the described life picture. *Jen-Chien TZ'u-hua* by Wang Guowei pointed out "It is much more to the point to speak of ching-chieh than of vital force and substance (ch'i-chih) or spirit and tone (shen-yun). To have ching-chieh is basic while the others are secondary. If a poem has ching-chieh the other elements will follow along." The creation of artistic conception is the tidemark for a poet so that the priority to deliver artistic conceptions of literary works is to express the "emotions" or "feelings" of the author or characters (Sun, 2000). Famous poet Bai Juyi wrote in his *Letter Written to Yuan Jiu* that what can touch one's heart most should be emotions. As a result, artistic conception is the product of interactions

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[2] http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aesthetics (accessed 20/5/2013).
[3] http://www.ctmo.gov.cn/sbsq/ (accessed 20/5/2013).

between translation subjects and objects and of harmony and unity between subjectivity and objectivity. It always appears in the manner of fusion of feelings with the nature setting, which is the so called "The (poetic) state is not limited to scenery and objects alone. Pleasure and anger, sorrow and joy are also a sort of ching-chieh in men's hearts. Therefore those poems which can describe true scenery and objects, true emotions and feelings, can be said to possess ching-chieh. Otherwise they may be said to lack ching-chieh." (Wang, 1998, p.2)

A translator's highest level in translation is his interpretation to the source trademark and creation of artistic conception. Many successful translated Chinese trademarks are derived from China's ancient poetry. For example, Revlon, its translated brandname is Lu Hua Nong in Chinese which comes from Li Bai's "Her robe is a cloud, her face a flower. Her balcony, glimmering with the bright spring dew." The former sentence describes Lady Yang[4]'s appearance as a flower and the latter one represents the beauty of a flower with dewdrops on it by Revlon's Chinese pronunciation—Lu Hua Nong. The beautiful peony becomes more gorgeous by the moistening of glittering dew, which means taken care by Emperor Xuanzong, Lady Yang becomes so in fine fettle that she looks like a Heaven fairy descending to the world. This kind of artistic conception comes from China's cultural context so that Lu Hua Nong is highly attractive to customers who are familiar with Lady Yang. On the other hand, for those who are not grown up in China's cultural context, Lu Hua Nong is only three simple Chinese characters with no relation. Therefore, in the opinion of the writer, attention should be given to translation process, translation subjects, objects and the existing context from a macro level to create the beauty of artistic conception of cosmetics trademarks. The whole translation process includes the following five steps:

a. Translated trademarks (source names) are born from original trademarks (target names), while existing in different cultural contexts. Reproduction or creation of artistic conceptions is based on cultural context which is the source of experience and memory. It conforms to the first characteristic of artistic conception —— situationalized image in art (Liu and Zhang, 2011). Placed in the designated scene, atmosphere and environment built by the artist, readers will feel staying in a critical state between real and illusion without pictures and languages.

b. A successful trademark can bring beauty of artistic conception to readers in its original context. This kind of beauty comes from people's experience or memory in the context. Similarly, a successful translated trademark can also bring beauty of artistic conception to readers in its target cultural context. This kind of beauty comes from people's experience or memory in the target cultural context. It conforms to the second characteristic of artistic conception —— individualized experience in art. That means "Realm is the same while the hearts to feel it could be different". Artistic conception possesses unique aesthetic characteristics and aesthetic experience (Liu and Zhang, 2011).

c. Trademark translation is a process of understanding and expression. Translation skills can realize the transformation of designative meaning from the semiotic level, which could be called language transformation. Yang Chengshu (2008) put forward the conception of words and expressions relating to cultural context and the technique of correspondence on the basis of corresponding relationships between two languages. According to the closeness degree to source language, it could be ranked in the following order:

i. Replacement

Replacement means to replace the vocabulary conception in the source language with that in the target language. For example, "Maybelline" should be pronounced to "Mei Bai Ao Lan" in Chinese. However, it is translated to "Mei Bao Lian"[5] in Chinese so as to make it fit people's acceptance habit to cosmetics trademarks in the Chinese context much better.

ii. Duplication

Duplication means to move all or part of the lexical morphology in the source language to target language. For example, "Head & Shoulders" was translated into "Hai Xian Du Fei Si" when it first landed on China, which was hard to be memorized due to length and pronunciation. What's worse, it had nothing to do with the beauty of artistic conception, which worsened the situation of being popular among Chinese consumers in a relatively long period. It was translated into "Hai Fei Si"[6] afterwards, which is both concise and readable. Besides, the refreshing and graceful artistic conception built by "Hai Fei Si" conforms to the product positioning of shampoo in an extreme way.

iii. Supplement

Supplement means to add contents or mend morph above the meaning of source language. For example, "Impress" was translated into "Yin Xiang" directly at first, which provided a low product identification and no artistic conception. Afterwards, it was translated into "Yin Xiang Zhi Mei" which means "The beauty of impression" in Chinese, indicating its position of cosmetic. "Zhi Mei" comes up to the psychology of woman to leave a nice impression to others, building a beautiful artistic conception.

iv. Paraphrase

Paraphrase means to reorganize morph or word order according to grammar of target language or pragmatic principles. For example, "ORCHIDEE IMPERIALE" from France is translated into "Yu Ting Lan Hua", which adopts

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[4] Lady Yang, an ancient beauty and imperial concubine of Emperor Xuanzong
[5] "Mei" means beautiful, "Bao" means rarity, "Lian" is the name of Lotus flower in Chinese. "Mei Bao Lian" means as beautiful as a lotus flower and as rare as treasure.
[6] "Hai" means sea, "Fei" means fly, "Si" is used to describ hair in acient China. "Hai Fei Si" brings Chinese people a scene that a young lady is standing facing to the sea with her long and beautiful hair blown and caressed by the sea wind.

word inversion, conforming to Chinese's reading habit. What's more, the use of "Yu" and "Ting" [7] brings noble flavor to readers. From its translated trademark to its spokeswomen who are mainly female CEO or female artist, it is easy to find its high-end brand position of dignity, elegance and power. As a result, it achieves the support of various consumers of high-level, high-grade and high-consumption, which fits for it slogan —— Orchidee Imperiale, Great Party Together. It accords with women's psychology of being ambitious of success and brings strong sense of beauty by building an artistic conception of standing out and accomplishing both success and fame.

　　v. Modulation

　　Modulation means to change opinion, perspective and insights. For example, "Clinique" is translated into "Qian Bi"[8] in Chinese, which gives up transliteration and literal translation but displays cosmetics' function of making people's appearance beautiful and clean. It constructs the wonderful artistic conception of a beautiful lady with fine, smooth and shiny skin.

　　d. In trademarks translation, connection between artistic conception of the original culture and target culture depends more on the mutual communication and transplantation between two kinds of culture so that readers in two different contexts could feel similar beauty of artistic conception. Therefore, it is suggested to comprehend the social history and cultural background of the source language and various elements of the target language such as national culture, codes of language, aesthetic taste, consumer psychology and value orientation in a macroscopic view. Cultural context was put forward for the first time by Malinowski, a British anthropologist, which means the socio-cultural background, mode of thinking, values, emotions and social mentality where language is used. As environment of the whole language system, cultural context plays a decisive role in the whole language system. Labov, an American sociologist once said that language should be studied in its social environment. Language is a part of culture and also the reflection of culture. Language cannot exist without culture which is the soil where language live and develop. Consequently, languages rooted in different cultures carry with the brand of their culture inevitably. In the process of translation, translators should take into consideration not only beauty in sound and vocabulary but also beauty of meaning in the context of target language, which is the foundation of building an artistic conception. For example, the Chinese meaning of "Dove" is "pigeon", a kind of birds. However, "pigeon" is hard to be accepted as the name of bath products such as toilet soap for consumers in the Chinese context. "Duo Fen"[9], the translated trademark emphasizes the lasting of fragrance which makes it possible to smell it earlier than seeing it. A refreshing artistic conception arises spontaneously.

　　e. In fact, it is an aesthetic process from language transformation to connection between different artistic conceptions. By his own judgment and experience, translator realized aesthetic reproduction and sublimation of trademarks in a creative way so as to make artistic conception be applicable to both trademarks and translated trademarks born in two different cultural contexts, reaching the effects of advertising products and stimulating buying inclination. It conforms to the third characteristic of artistic conception —— synthetic presentation of artistic effect. Artistic conception is not a kind of art with single-level, single-dimension and single-element. On the contrary, it is a synthetic presentation of artistic effect (Liu and Zhang, 2011).

IV. CONCLUSION

　　"Literal translation", "faithfulness", "similarity in spirit" and "perfection/sublimation" are all important constituent parts of China's traditional translation theories. Combining various images together, artistic conception aims to imply other than explain or reproduce, which is an important components of translation value (Zhou, 2010). Starting from the perspective of artistic conception of translation aesthetics, this thesis presents the process of cosmetics trademarks translation in a much broader way. A successful translation depends more on the connection between two different cultural contexts than the beauty of pronunciation, vocabulary and rhyme. And translator is the messenger to connect two kinds of cultural contexts. In the process of trademarks translation, translator should also analyze the thought, art and culture of the source text apart from language and reconstruct the artistic conception of the source text in the target language context based on analysis and aesthetic experience. The construction of artistic conception relies on the live-action in the cultural context while the sublimation of artistic conception proposes much higher requirements to translation subjects. In especial, translator should possess high aesthetic appreciation and perfect themselves in humanity knowledge. When translating foreign trademarks, mastering and utilizing skillfully Chinese traditional culture will yield twice the result with half the effort.

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Shuai Wang was born in Jinan, China in 1981. She received her Master Degree from Shandong University.
She is currently a lecturer in the School of Translation Studies, Qufu Normal Univeristy, Rizhao, China. Her research interests include translation studies and English for specific purposes.

The Effect of Grammatical Collocation Instruction on Understanding ESP Texts for Undergraduate Computer Engineering Students

Zeinab Abedi
Garmsar Branch, Islamic Azad University (IAU), Iran

Mohsen Mobaraki
Birjand univercity, Iran

Abstract—The researcher administered a Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) to 80 learners and then according to their grades limited them to 60.The subjects were divided into two homogenous groups (30 subjects in control group and 30 subjects in experimental). Then a pretest was administered to both groups. The subjects who played the role of the control group kept pace with the teacher who taught the book named "English for Computer Science". It should be noted that this group were taught the mentioned book without instructing grammatical collocations (just through a curriculum book). The experimental group was taught the same book through instructing grammatical collocations. Both groups had instruction for sixty- minute periods for ten sessions. To be sure of the effect of the treatment, the researcher tested both groups by using a posttest. The scores on the result of pre and posttest showed the efficiency of the two methods. Finally, a T-test was conducted to examine the differences of the mean test scores of the two groups. The results of the pre and posttest showed a t-value greater than the t-critical. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected and we came to this conclusion that grammatical collocation instruction had significant effect on understanding ESP texts for undergraduate computer engineering students.

Index Terms—collocation, grammatical collocation, ESP

I. INTRODUCTION

We believe that for the study of languages for specific purposes has had a long and interesting history going back, some would say, as far as the Roman and Greek Empires. Since the 1960s, English for specific purposes (ESP) has become a vital and innovative activity within the teaching of English as a foreign or second language (TEFL/TESL) movement (Howatt, 1984, as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998). ESP emerged as an approach to teaching foreign students in courses other than General English (GE) in order to prepare the students to deal with the specific-purpose-written-texts and oral discourse that are of frequent and immediate use for the students of, e.g., Physics, computer engineering, etc. Some of its teaching, ESP has developed its own methodology, and its research clearly draws on research from various disciplines in addition to applied linguistics. This openness to the insights of other disciplines is a key distinguishing feature of ESP (as cited in as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998).

While linguists have pointed out the importance of recurrent word combinations or more specifically of collocations (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983, pp.55-56; Benson, 1989), few investigate the effects of collocation instruction. Even when teachers deal with lexis in classes, they cover a limited aspect of lexis. It seems that teachers have only dealt with semantics of separate words, and have not sufficiently treated fixed expressions, collocations, and patterns which are considered to be of importance for acquiring language (Sinclair, 1991; Hunston, Francis and Manning, 1997,as cited in Kasuya,2000).). Regardless of their mother tongues, university students are often required to read textbooks in English, mainly because of the paucity of materials in their first language. These textbooks include numerous collocations and formulaic languages. Without sufficient collocation competence, university students would have difficulty studying ESP courses. Lewis' proposal of collocation instruction is supported by many language teaching experts, such as McCarthy & O'Dell (2005), Nattinger & DeCarrico (1992), Nesselhauf (2003), and Nation (2001). These scholars believe that learning collocations could expand vocabulary repertoire and enhance reading speed and fluency. What is more, sufficient collocation competence could help readers make accurate predictions and improve reading comprehension. Despite the theoretical support, few empirical studies investigate how to teach collocations and what effects collocation instruction would bring to the development of the students' reading proficiency.

II. DEFINITIONS OF COLLOCATION

Poulsen (1995, p.14) presents five definitions of 'collocation', which all have some form of co-occurrence as a central

element:

(a) The tendency for lexical items to co-occur in a text, or in a text corpus, whether or not they form a syntactic pattern.

(b) The co-occurrence of lexical items in a syntactic pattern, only restricted by general selection restrictions (also referred to as 'free/open collocation').

(c) The tendency for lexical items to co-occur in a syntactic pattern restricted not only by general selection restrictions, but also by usage restrictions on one element (often referred to as 'restricted collocation').

(d) The co-occurrence of lexical items in an unexpected, creative way that conflicts with general selection restrictions and/or usage restrictions.

(e) The tendency for the lexical item to co-occur with a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause.

Lewis (1994) defines collocation as a subcategory of multi-word items, made up of individual words that habitually co-occur and can be found within the free-fixed collocational continuum. Celce-Murcia (1991) defines collocation as a co-occurrence of lexical items in combinations, which can differ in frequency or acceptability (as cited in Małgorzata Martyńska, 2004).

A. A Note on the History of the Term 'Collocation'

Collocation has been investigated using three major approaches. The oldest, the lexical approach, goes back to Firth (1951), who holds that meaning by collocation is an "abstraction at the syntagmatic level" and is not directly linked to the "conceptual or idea approach to the meaning of words" (p. 196). Later, this framework was adapted by Halliday (1966) and Sinclair (1991). Another approach, the semantic approach, transcends observation and tries to determine the specific shape collocations take, why words collocate with certain other words, and how the meaning of a word is reduced to its ultimate contrastive elements resulting in the atomization of meaning (Katz & Fodor, 1963, p. 175, as cited in Shokouhi, 2010). In this approach, particular lexical areas can be identified in which each term helps to delimit its neighbors and is delimited by them (Ullmann, 1962, p. 30, as cited in Shokouhi, 2010). Semantic analysis adopts componential analysis on the basis of semantic opposition or dimensions of contrast. The third approach, which is the concern of this study, is a structural one. This approach takes collocation to be determined by its structural patterns. This grammatical perspective contrasts somewhat with the previous two approaches in that its concentration is chiefly grammatical and lexical (Gitsaki, 1996, p. 17, as cited in Shokouhi, 2010). Lexis cannot be separated from grammar, because the two are distinctive but related aspects of one phenomenon (Bahns, 1993, p. 57, as cited in Shokouhi, 2010). With respect to grammar and lexis, Kjellmer (1990), in establishing the extent to which an individual word class is collocational or non-collocational, shows that articles, prepositions, singular and mass nouns, as well as the base form of verbs are collocational in nature. In contrast, adjectives, singular proper nouns, and adverbs are not. Kjellmer then concludes that English words are scattered across a continuum that extends from those items whose contextual company is entirely predictable to those whose contextual company is completely unpredictable. Gitsaki (1996), by the analysis of a vast number of collocations, distinguished 37 categories of collocation overall: 8 lexical and 29 grammatical. Lewis and Hill (1997) reduced this number to five main categories: adjective/noun, verb/noun, noun/verb, adverb/adjective, and verb/adverb. (as cited in Shokouhi, 2010).

B. Lexical Collocations

Lexical collocations do not contain grammatical elements, but are combinations of nouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs (Bahns, 1993). Benson has described lexical collocations as usually consisting of two equal lexical components. It consists of various combinations of content words; it does not contain prepositions, infinitives, and relative clauses.

C. Grammatical Collocations

Grammatical collocations consist of a noun, or an adjective or a verb, plus a particle (a preposition, an adverb or a grammatical structure such as an infinitive, a gerund, or clause) (Bahns, 1993:57, as cited in Shokouhi, 2010). The followings are the examples: *at night*, *extend to*, *good at*, *fall for*, *to be afraid that*. These examples are grammatical collocations which are lexicalized as single units whose meanings are formulaic and whose co-occurence are highly likely. They are sometimes idiomatic, because their meanings do not reflect the meanings of the elements, such as *run out of* (to reach an end of stock, supplies) or *put up with* (tolerate). However, there are similar grammatical combinations which do not have such a strong sense of belonging together.

D. Types of Grammatical Collocations

According to Benson, Benson and Ilson (1986), English grammatical collocations fall into the following combinations: noun+preposition, noun+to- infinitive, noun+that-clause, preposition + noun, adjective+ preposition, predicate adjective+ to-infinitive, adjective+ that-clause, and the English 19 verb patterns, (as cited in Małgorzata Martyńska, 2004).

1. Noun + preposition combinations

Not all noun + preposition combinations can be considered as collocations due to the highly predictable meaning of

some prepositions, such as *of* and *by*. So, noun + of / by combinations are considered free combinations. The following phrases are examples of noun + preposition collocations: *blockade against, apathy towards.*

2. Noun + to + infinitive

There are five syntactic patterns in which noun + to + infinitive construction is most frequently encountered, (as cited in Moehkardi, R. R. D. 2002):

a. It *was a pleasure (a problem, a struggle) to do it.*

b. *They had the foresight (instructions, an obligation, a permission) to do it.*

c. *They felt a compulsion (an impulse, a need) to do it*

d. *They made an attempt (an effort, a promise, and a vow) to do it.*

e. *He was a fool (a genius, an idiot) to do it.*

3. Noun + that-clause

The **noun + that-clause** combinations that are considered collocational are those using subject pronouns,(as cited in Moehkardi,R. R. D. 2002): For example:

We reached an agreement that she would represent us in court.

He took an oath that he would do his duty.

However, when the 'that-clause' can be replaced by 'which-clause' as that in relative clauses, such a **noun + that-clause construction** is not considered as collocational. For example:

We reached into an agreement that/ which would go into effect in a month.

4. Preposition + noun combinations

Any combinations of preposition and noun can fall into this category, however, the choice of preposition with certain noun is not at random. For example: *by accident, in advance, in agony, etc.*

5. Adjective + preposition combinations

Some adjectives are followed by a prepositional phrase. The adjective+ preposition combination that is considered collocational is the one that occurs in the predicate (verbless clause). However, past participial adjective followed by preposition *by* is not considered collocational because this construction is regular and predictable. For example:

*They are **angry at** the children,*

*They are **hungry for** news,*

*The ship was abandoned (by its crew) is not considered collocational.

6. Predicate adjective + to + infinitive

These adjectives occur in two basic constructions with infinitives.

a. adjectives with dummy subject "it" such as *it was necessary to work*; also possible *it was necessary **for him** to work* (the insertion of prepositional phrase).

b. adjectives with real and animate subject, such as: ***She is ready to go;*** or with inanimate subject, such as: *It (the bomb) is designed to explode at certain temperatures;* or with either animate or inanimate subject: ***She** was bound to find out* or ***It** (the accident) was bound to happen.*

7. Adjective + that clause

Some adjectives can be followed by that- clause, for example:

She was afraid that she would fail her examination.

Several adjectives followed by present subjunctive in formal English are collocational, such as: *It was imperative that we be there.*

8. Collocational verb patterns

English verb patterns have 19 types, (as cited in Moehkardi,R. R. D. 2002) as follows:

a.Shift of an indirect object to a position before the direct object of transitive verbs is allowed, for example:

He sent the book to his brother –

He sent his brother the book

He sent the book to him - He sent him the book

If both objects are pronouns the common pattern is:

He sent it to him.

b. Shift of an indirect object to a position before the direct object by deleting *to* is not allowed, for example:

They described the book to her; but not ** they described her the book.*

Other common verbs that fit this category are *mention, return, scream, etc.*

c. Transitive verb with preposition *for* allows the deletion of *for* and the shift of the indirect object to a position before the direct object. For example:

She bought a shirt for her husband; also possible*: She bought her*

husband a shirt, or *She bought a shirt for him*, or *She bought him a shirt.*

d. The verb forms a collocation with a specific preposition and an object, for example:

They based their conclusions on the available facts

We adhered to the plan.

However, the following similar constructions are not collocations, but free combinations of verb + preposition

denoting 'location' or 'means' or 'instrument'

We walked in the park

They came by train

e. Verbs are followed by infinitive, for example:

They began to speak

She continued to write.

However, verbs + to infinitive meaning "purpose" are not included as collocational combination, for example:

He was running (in order) to catch the bus.

She stopped (in order) to chat.

f. Verbs are followed by bare infinitive

These verbs, except *dare, help,* and *need,* are called modals. The verbal phrases *had better* and *would rather* also fit this pattern. For example:

They must work.

We had better go now.

g. Verbs are followed by second verb in – ing form, for example:

They kept talking.

We enjoyed watching television.

Some verbs in this category may be synonymous:

He began reading or *He began to read* are similar in meaning.

And some other verbs of this category may have different construction and meaning, for example:

He remembered telling him the story and *He remembered to tell him the story* are different in meaning.

h. Transitive verbs are followed by an object and to + infinitive, for example:

They asked the students to participate in discussion.

They permitted the children to watch television.

Many of the verbs in this pattern can be followed by infinitive to be, for example, *she asked me to be punctual.* Furthermore, most of the verbs in this construction can be passivized.

i. Transitive verbs are followed by a direct object and an infinitive without *to.*

Most I-pattern verbs cannot be passivized, for example:

We let them use the car.

We saw them leave the house.

j. Verbs are followed by an object and a verb in –ing form, for example:

I caught him smoking in his bedroom.

We found the children sleeping on the floor.

Some verbs in this category (especially verbs of perception, like *see, hear, feel*) may have similar constructions with that of construction in I-pattern. *We saw him smoke the cigaret*te beside *We saw him smoking.* J-pattern verbs usually can be passivized.

k. Verbs can be followed by a noun or pronoun and gerund, for example:

This fact justifies Bill's coming late.

They love his clowning.

I cannot imagine their stealing apples.

Please excuse my waking you so early.

However, possessive constructions are often considered awkward, more common expressions for the same meaning will use the following alternative:

I cannot imagine them stealing apples.

This fact justifies Bill for coming late.

Please excuse me for waking you so early.

l. Verbs are followed by a noun clause beginning with conjunction that, for example:

They admitted that they were wrong.

We hoped that the weather would be nice.

Some verbs always take an object noun or pronoun before that-clause, for example:

*She assured **me** that she would arrive on time.*

*They convinced **us** that we should invest our money.*

Some verbs in this category allow the insertion of the fact.

For example:

*He acknowledged (admitted/confirmed/ etc) the **fact** that he was guilty.*

m. Transitive verb can be followed by a direct object, an infinitive to be and adjective / past participle/ noun/pronoun, for example:

We considered her to be very capable / well-trained / a competent engineer.

n. Transitive verbs are followed by a direct object and adjective/ past participle or noun/pronoun, for example:

She dyed her hair red.
He found them interesting.
Some verbs in this category may also be used with M-verb pattern, for example:
We considered her very capable.
o. Transitive verbs are followed by two objects, for example:
The teacher asked the students questions.
The police fined them fifty pounds.
p. Intransitive /reflexive / transitive verbs must be followed by an adverbial (an adverb/a prepositional phrase/a noun phrase/a clause), for example:
He carried himself with dignity; but not * *He carried himself.*
The meeting will last two hours; but not *The meeting will last.*
Other verbs in this category are: *come, sneak, weigh, etc.* However some of these verbs may have senses that do not require an adverbial, for example: *They are coming*, in addition to *They are coming home.*
q. Verb can be followed by an interrogative word, such as *how, what, when, etc,* for example:
He always wants what I want.
She knows when to keep quiet.
However, some verbs in this construction need an object, such as:
*They told **us** what to do.*
*She asked **me** why she had come.*
r. Dummy 'it' is followed by transitive verbs (often expressing emotions), infinitive, that + clause, or by either, for example:
It puzzled me that he never answered the telephones. It surprised me to learn of her decision.
S. SVC (adjective or noun)
Here some transitive verbs are followed by a predicate noun or a predicate adjective.
She became an engineer.
She looks fine.

III. DEFINITIONS OF ESP

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) see ESP as an approach rather than a product, by which they mean that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology. They suggest that ESP is based on this simple question: Why does a learner need to learn a foreign language? The answer to this question relates to the learners, the language required, and the learning context; and thus establishes the primacy of need in ESP. Need is defined as the reasons for which the student is learning English, which will vary from study purposes such as following a postgraduate course in an English speaking country to work purposes such as participating in business meetings or taking hotel bookings. These purposes are the starting points which determine the language to be taught.

Strevens' (1988) definition of ESP makes a distinction between four *absolute characteristics* and two *variable characteristics*. The absolute characteristics are that ESP consists of English language teaching which is:
designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
• related in content (that is in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations, and activities;
• centred on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, and so on, as well as in analysis of the discourse;
• may not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.
The variable characteristics are that ESP
• may be restricted to the learning skills to be learned (for example reading only);
• not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.
Robinson (1991) also accepts the primacy of needs analysis in defining ESP. Her definition is based on two key defining criteria and a number of characteristics that are generally found to be true of ESP. Her key criteria are that ESP is normally goal-directed, and that ESP courses develop from a needs analysis, which aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English (Robinson, 1991:3, as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998).

A. The Origins of ESP

As with most developments in human activity, ESP was not a planned and coherent movement, but rather a phenomenon that grew out of a number of converging trends. These trends have operated in a variety of ways around the world, but we can identify three main reasons common to the emergence of all ESP, (as cited in Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).
1. The demands of a brave new world
The end of the Second World War in 1945 heralded an age of enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific,

technical, and economic activity on an international scale. This expansion created a world unified and dominated by two forces- technology and commerce- which in their relentless progress soon generated a demand for an international language. For various reasons, most notably the economic power of the United States in the post-war world, this role fell to English (as cited in Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

2. A revolution in linguistics

At the same time as the demand was growing for English courses tailored to specific needs, influential new ideas began to emerge in the study of language. Traditionally the aim of linguistics had been to describe the rules of English usage, that is, the grammar. However, the new studies shifted attention away from defining the formal features of language usage to discovering the ways in which language is actually used in real communication (Widdowson, 1978, as cited in Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

3. Focus on the learner

New developments in educational psychology also contributed to the rise of ESP, by emphasizing the central importance of the learners and their attitudes to learning (e.g. Rodgers, 1969). Learners were seen to have different needs and interests, which would have an important influence on their motivation to learn and, therefore, on the effectiveness of their learning. This lent support to the development of courses in which 'relevance' to the learners' needs and interests was paramount,(as cited in Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

B.   Classification of ESP

In this section we introduce and explain the many abbreviations that have been used in describing ESP, terms such as English for academic purposes (EAP), English for occupational purposes (EOP), English for science and technology (EST) and English for business purposes (EBP), (Dudley-Evans and St John). ESP has traditionally been divided into two main areas: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). The classification is generally presented in a tree diagram as in Figure 1. (taken from Robinson, 1991:3-4, as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998).
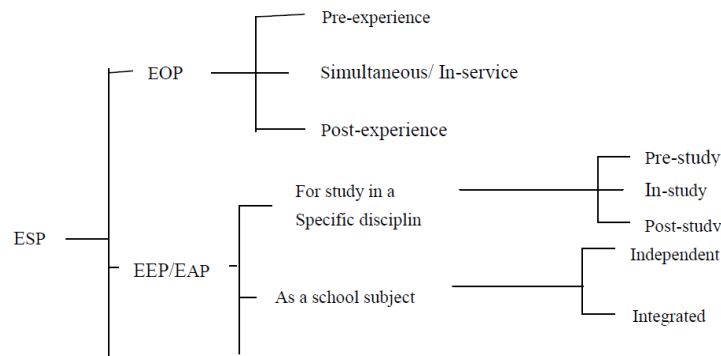
The diagram has, as well as the division into EAP and EOP, a useful division of courses according to when they take place. These distinctions are very important as they will affect the degree of specificity that is appropriate to the course. A pre-experience or pre-study course will probably rule out any specific work related to the actual discipline or work as students will not yet have the required familiarity with the content, while courses that run parallel to follow the course of study in the educational institution or workplace will provide the opportunity for specific or integrated work.Another typical tree diagram for ESP, which divides EAP and EOP according to discipline or professional area, is shown in figure 2,(, as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998).
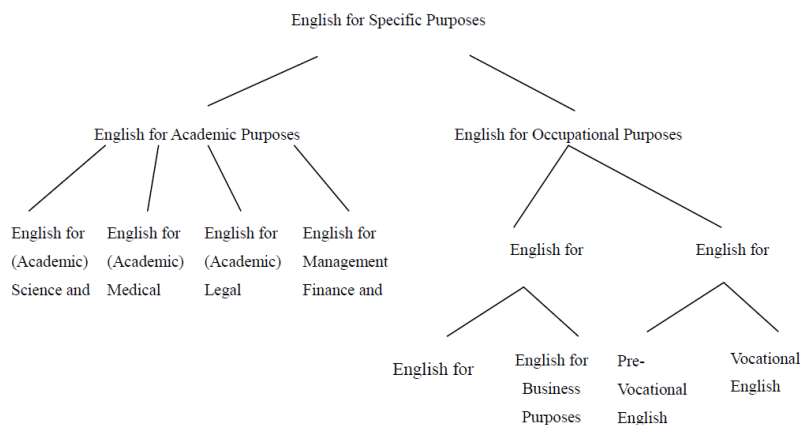
In EAP, EST has been the main area, but English for Medical Purposes (EMP) and English for legal purposes (ELP) have always had their places. Recently, the academic study of business, finance, banking, economics and accounting has become increasingly important, especially on Masters in Business Administration (MBA) courses, but, as yet, no specific acronym has been established for such courses.

The term EOP refers to English that is not for academic purposes; it includes professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations, (as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998). Thus, there is a distinction between studying the language and discourse of, for example, medicine for academic purposes, which is designed for medical students, and studying for occupational (professional) purposes, which is designed for practicing doctors.

This classification places English for Business purposes (EBP) as a category within EOP. EBP is sometimes seen as separate from EOP as it involves a lot of General English as well as specific purpose English,   and also because it is such a large and important category. A business purpose is, however, an occupational purpose, so it is logical to see it as part of EOP.

Within English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) there are two subsections: Vocational English, which is concerned with the language of training for specific trades or occupations, and Pre-Vocational English, which is concerned with finding a job and interview skills. It also deals with succeeding in a job through an understanding of employer expectations and policies (Anne Lomperis, personal communication, as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998).

A distinction should also be made between common-core English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) (Blue, 1988a). An awareness of the distinction between EGAP and ESAP is crucial to a full understanding of EAP (Blue, 1988a). EGAP refers to the teaching of the skills and language that are common to all disciplines; ESAP refers to the teaching of the features that distinguish one discipline from others, (as cited in, as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998, page.41).

English for General Academic Purposes isolates the skills associated with study activities such as listening to lectures; participating in supervisions, seminars, and tutorials; carrying out practicals (largely in science or engineering courses); reading textbooks, articles and other reading material; and writing essays, examinations answers, dissertations and reports (Blue, 1993). There are particular skills associated with each of these, so that, to take one example, reading almost any textbook involves understanding the main ideas, distinguishing the main ideas and the supporting detail, making notes on the main ideas, evaluating the writer's point of view, and, where necessary, skimming to understand the gist of the argument or scanning to find specific information. The detailed focus on reading skills, such as establishing main points or inferring meaning from context that form a major part of EAP courses, can just as validly be taught as part of an intermediate to advanced General English course,(as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998, page.41).

English for Specific Academic purposes integrates the skills work of EGAP with help for students in their actual subject tasks. It adopts a developmental role (Turner, 1996) by showing how students can transfer the skills they have learnt in the EGAP classes to the understanding of their actual lectures or reading texts. This kind of work generally involves some cooperation with the actual subject department. Such contacts with the department and the possibilities for research into disciplinary communication often raise the status of the EAP lectures in the eyes of subject departments, (as cited in Dudley – Evans and ST Jhon, 1998, page.41).

IV. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

With changing view in teaching vocabulary, the concept of collocation has recently become a research focus in second language learning. Lewis (1997) argued that the real definition of a word is a combination of its referential meaning and its collocation field (p.97). Bahns (1993) further reported the notion of collocation as a negatively ignored element in regular syllabus design, which resulted in learners' deficiency of collocation knowledge. Collocations are rarely learned and experienced, and most of the times ignored in language classes in Iran. The startling fact here is that just a low percentage of learners will ever pay attention to collocations. The results whatsoever, whether young teachers are not aware of collocation important role or the students unconsciously ignore learning them, lead to incomplete English learning, (as cited by Fahim, Motallebzadeh, and Sazegar, 2011).

Therefore, collocations should be focused in classroom teaching and teachers must earnestly raise awareness of collocations among students. EFL or ESL teachers should make students aware of collocations and encourage them to store collocations in their memory. They should help learners notice collocations (as cited in Karoly, 2005). The aim of the current study is to examine the effect of teaching grammatical collocations on understanding ESP texts for undergraduate computer engineering students in Iran; it also aims to investigate the effect of explicit grammatical collocation teaching on the development of reading proficiency of computer engineering students. Collocation errors can be traced to the neglect of conscious teaching of collocations in L2 classrooms.

V. SIGNIFICANCE AND JUSTIFICATION OF THE STUDY

In ESP contexts, language of the selected texts to be worked on is very professional. Therefore a great care should be taken in order to create an interaction with such texts. Students as potential agents of change and political and

ideological beings may become aware of power of language through reciprocal understanding and mutual transformation of worlds behind words (Freire, 1972). ESP, due to its multi-disciplinary nature, has got great significance in our educational setting where English is foreign language and students need it for their academic or professional trends. Scholars (Hutchinson 1987, Dudley 1998, widdowson 1978) worked a lot on how to see language in ESP classes and focused on language description, learning theories, and needs analysis in these contexts. But it's very crucial how to analyze these issues to make students aware of the way they convey their ideas in foreign language.

An understanding of collocation is imperative for all learners, and for those on advanced level courses, it is essential that they are not only aware of the variety of this feature of the language but that they actively acquire more and more collocations both within and outside the formal teaching situation (as cited in Nesselhauf, 2003). Taking the aforementioned issues in consideration, this study aims at answering the following research questions.

VI. RESEARCH QUESTION:

Does teaching grammatical collocation have any effect on understanding ESP texts for undergraduate computer engineering students?

VII. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

To obtain logical answer to research question the following null hypothesis was formulated:
"Teaching grammatical collocation has no effect on understanding ESP texts for undergraduate computer engineering students".

VIII. METHOD

A. Participants

Participants involved in the study are 80 (both sexes) sophomore Iranian students majoring at computer engineering at Islamic Azad university of AzadShahr. All the students included in the study are between 18-25 years old. They are both female and male with diverse social background; it has been assumed that those variables do not have any impact on this study.

At first, a Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) is given to all subjects to determine their English language proficiency level. This being the case, 20 students who have extreme scores, were not qualified to be included in this study. They have, therefore, been excluded. All in all, a total of 20 students were excluded from the study reducing the number of subjects to 60.

B. Instrumentation

In order to gather the data needed to test the hypothesis of this research, two sets of tests were used:

1. A Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT) was administered to 80 students. This is a standardized test which is used to evaluate the English proficiency of those whose native language is not English. It is a test of grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension.

2. A teacher-made grammatical collocation test was administered as both pretest and posttest (Appendix C). It consisted of 40 multiple choice questions. In this section the reliability (Cronbakh's Alpha) is calculated for grammatical collocation test. The result shows that Alpha is .620 and it can be acceptable. Since this number is large enough and it is near to one, the grammatical collocation test is reliable. As for the validity of this test, content validity was the best criterion. Therefore, the grammatical collocation test was checked by some experts in the field of TEFL (the supervisor and some MA graduates in TEFL). At last, 40 multiple choice questions were chosen out of 58.

TABLE 1.
RELIABILITY OF TEACHER-MADE GRAMMATICAL COLLOCATION TEST
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbakh's Alpha	N of Items
.620	40

C. Procedure

At the initial stage, students in the experimental group were introduced to the concept of grammatical collocation by providing some exercises to be completed as class work to raise their awareness of grammatical collocations.

The experimental group received explicit and systematic grammatical collocation instruction. Explicit information is learnt consciously. 9 ESP texts are selected to teach the participants the grammatical collocations throughout 8 weeks. Explanation was provided in students' mother tongue. The focus was mainly on grammatical collocations, because the comprehension of grammatical collocations is said to be more difficult than that of lexical collocations. Cobb (2000) claims that all collocations are of an arbitrary nature and there is no logic underlying them. He maintains that this arbitrariness, which is more noticeable in the case of grammatical collocations, certainly creates problem for those who

are not native speakers of English. A further source of difficulty is the unfamiliarity of subjects with English collocations due to insufficient exposure. Tajalli (1994) maintains that exposure or lack of exposure to a certain type of collocation influences the learning of that kind of collocation, (as cited in Shokouhi, 2010).

But the procedure in the control group was characterized by absence of any sort of explicit teaching of grammatical collocations.

D.   Design

The current study adopts the intact group design. The reason for choosing this design rested upon the fact that it was impossible for the researcher to assign the students randomly to the language classes.

E.   Data Analysis

In order to test the hypothesis in this study, there would be a T-test, which is a quantitative procedure for determining the statistical significance of the difference between means on two sets of scores. According to Hatch and Farhadi (1981 p.119), the T-test is an excellent statistical procedure to use in comparing two means. All researchers should keep the following cautions in mind: a) Each S must be assigned to one (and only one) group in the experiment if you wish to use the regular t-test formula. b) The scores on the independent variable should be measured on an interval scale. c) You must not do multiple t-tests, comparing mean 1 with mean 2 and mean 1 with mean 3 and mean 2 with mean 3, etc. If you wish to make cross-companies, you must use the ANOVA (analysis of variance) procedure. d) The variances of scores in the population are assumed to be equal and scores are assumed to be normally distributed.

F.   Result Concerning the Pretest

An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the pre-test before conducting the study. The t-observed value was -.14.

TABLE 2.
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	
pretest	Equal variances assumed	.252	.617	-.145	58	.885	-.16667	1.14759	-2.46383	2.13049
	Equal variances not assumed			-.145	57.551	.885	-.16667	1.14759	-2.46421	2.13087

Since the t-observed value of -.14 did not exceed its critical value it can be claimed that prior to the treatment, there is not any noticeable difference between the two groups' mean scores of grammatical collocation.

The descriptive statistics displayed in Table 3. indicate that the mean scores for the experimental and control groups are 14.53 and 14.70.

TABLE 3.
PRETEST: CONTROL GROUP AND THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP
GROUP STATISTICS

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error mean
Experimental	30	14.5333	4.63669	.84654
Control	30	14.7000	4.24386	.77482

Based on these results it can be concluded that the experimental and control groups were homogenous in terms of their ability on grammatical collocation.

G.   Result Concerning the Post-test

After the treatment, An independent t-test was done to compare the two groups' mean scores to probe the effect of grammatical collocation instruction on understanding ESP texts. The t-observed value was 6.76 (table 4).This amount of t-value was higher than the critical value of 2 at 58 degrees of freedom.

TABLE 4.
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	
posttest	Equal variances assumed	8.384	.005	6.766	58	.000	10.56667	1.56177	7.44045	13.69288
	Equal variances not assumed			6.766	46.755	.000	10.56667	1.56177	7.42436	13.70897

Since the t-observed value of 6.76 was more extreme than its critical value it can be claimed that there was a noticeable difference between the two groups' mean scores on the post-test of grammatical collocation.

TABLE 5.
GROUP STATISTICS

		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest	Experimental group	30	26.2333	7.38444	1.34821
	Control group	30	15.6667	4.31783	.78832

H. Result Concerning the Hypothesis of the Study

As displayed in table 5. The descriptive statistics indicated that the mean scores for the experimental and control groups on the grammatical collocation were 26.23 and 15.66.

The t- test also showed that the mean difference of two groups was significant. The significance was 000, and P = 000 < 0.05.

Since the t-observed value of 6.76 was more extreme than its critical value it can be claimed that after the treatment, there was a noticeable difference between the experimental and control groups' mean scores of the grammatical collocation. Accordingly, we can reject the Null-hypothesis at the 0.05 level of significance .That is to say; grammatical collocation instruction increased the mean score of the experimental group significantly.

IX. CONCLUSION

It is confirmed that the application of the treatment has been effective because the results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group. Mean scores of the control and experimental groups on the posttest indicated that language learners' mean score in the experimental group was significantly higher than language learners' mean score in the control group. This means that grammatical collocation instruction was effective in understanding ESP texts for undergraduate computer engineering students.

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Zeinab Abedi has recently completed an M.A. in Teaching English, i.e. TEFL/TESL on the subject of grammatical collocation instruction, University of Garmsar, Islamic Azad University (IAU), Iran. She is currently teaching at different English institutes and universities of Gonbad, Iran.

Mohsen Mobaraki is a PhD in Applied linguistics (child L2 acquisition) from Durham University, UK. He has got his BA and MA. from Allameh Tabatabaei University, Iran. He is currently working as an assistant professor of English in the department of Translation Studies and Linguistics at University of Birjand, Iran. His interests include teaching English as a second language, translation evaluation, sociology of translation, and Interpreting Studies. His published works are:
Mobaraki, M. (2011). *Interpretation*. Tehran: Rahnama Publication.
Mobaraki, M. (2011). *Journalism and Newspapers*. Tehran: Rahnama Publication.

An Interlanguage Pragmatic Study on Chinese EFL Learners' Refusal: Perception and Performance

Ming-Fang Lin
National Kaohsiung Normal University, Taiwan

Abstract—**Refusals have been widely examined across languages in the literature. However, few attempts have been made to elicit both perception and performance data for method-triangulation. In addition, Chinese EFL learners' refusals are relatively less investigated. The present study aims to bridge this gap and has two major purposes. One is to examine the cross-cultural differences between Chinese and English refusals. The other is to study how Chinese EFL learners perceive and perform the speech act of refusal. The data were recruited from three participant groups: 30 native speakers of Mandarin Chinese in Taiwan (NSC), 30 Chinese EFL learners in Taiwan (EFL), and 30 native speakers of American English in America (NSE). The research instrument was a questionnaire with two major parts: Scaled Response Questionnaire (SRQ) and Discourse Completion Task (DCT). Elicited data were analyzed in terms of three perspectives: perception of face-threat, overall strategy use, and strategy patterns. The results showed the similarities and differences between Chinese and English refusals. As for EFL learners, they tended to perceive the face-threat greater, and used more strategies and softening devices than Chinese and Americans. In addition, some L2 native expressions were never used by learners. Further instructions are needed to help learners refuse others appropriately.**

Index Terms—**speech act, interlanguage refusal, Chinese-English, cross-cultural**

I. INTRODUCTION

Communicative competence plays an important part in interpersonal and intercultural communication (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980). When people do not have sufficient competence, they are likely to encounter pragmatic failure (Thomas, 1983) or communicative breakdown (Jia, 2007).

Chinese and Americans are frequently considered to exhibit different communication styles (Chen, Chen, & Chang, 2011; Guo, 2012; Hong, 2011; Triandis, 1995; Yu, 2011; Zheng & Huang, 2010). Chinese, deeply influenced by the legacy of Confucian political philosophy and the tradition of feudal hierarchy and order, prefer to use the indirect mode of communication to maintain the harmonious interpersonal relationship. Thus, Chinese culture is collectivism oriented and focuses on positive politeness. On the other hand, Americans favor "outcome-oriented communication to actualize independence and self-fulfillment in communication and thus emphasize the direct communication mode" (Hong, 2011, p. 133).

Chinese culture differs greatly from that of Americans. When Chinese EFL learners interact with English native speakers, most learners not with sufficient pragmatic knowledge of the target language often transfer their L1 norms of speaking into L2. Previous studies have shown Chinese EFL/ESL learners pragmatic transfer in the speech act of refusals (e.g., Chang, 2009, 2011), correction (e.g., Lin, 2008), compliment (e.g., Yu, 2004, 2005, 2011; Chen & Rau, 2011), compliment responses (e.g., An, 2013; Cheng, 2011; Chen & Rau, 2011), complaint (e.g., Chen, Chen, & Chang, 2010), request (e.g., Lee, 2011), apology (e.g., Chang, 2010; Su, 2012), suggestion (e.g., Bu, 2011), and others. Among them, refusals often receive researchers' attentions for they usually result in great face-threat. However, Chinese EFL learners' refusals are relatively less investigated. In addition, most previous studies often employ a single instrument to elicit learners' perception or performance. Few attempts have been made to elicit both perception and performance data for method-triangulation. To fill this gap, the present study aims to explore how the speech act of refusal is perceived and performed by Chinese and Americans, with a focus on Chinese EFL learners' performance.

To be more specific, the research questions in this study are as follows. First, *what are the similarities and differences between Chinese and American refusals in terms of perception of face-threat, overall strategy use, and strategy patterns?* Second, *how do Chinese EFL learners in Taiwan perceive and perform the speech act of refusal in terms of perception of face-threat, overall strategy use, and strategy patterns?*

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Speech act theory was initiated by Austin (1962), who suggested that people use languages not only to say things but also to do things. He differentiated three kinds of acts when one produces an utterance: locutionary act (i.e., act of saying), illocutionary act (i.e., act in saying), and perlocutionary act (i.e., act by saying). Based on Austin's work, Searle

(1969) divided speech acts into five major categories: representatives (e.g., assertion, reports), directives (e.g., request, suggestion, correction), expressives (e.g., complaints, thanking, refusal, apology), commissives (e.g., promise) and declaratives (e.g., naming). Furthermore, Searle (1975) proposed the notion of indirectness in speech acts. An indirect speech act is performed whereby "the speaker communicates to the hearer more than he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared background information, both linguistic and non-linguistic, together with the general powers of rationality and inference on the part of the hearer" (Searle, 1975, p.60-61).

A. The Speech Act of Refusal

A refusal is a speech act by which a speaker refuses "to engage in an action proposed by the interlocutor" (Chen, Ye, & Zhang, 1995, p.121). Facing the threat of refusing, a person would compute the weightness of the offense based on three criteria: social distance (D), relative power (P), and the rank of imposition (R) (Brown & Levinson, 1987). However, people of different cultural backgrounds perceive the face-threat differently, and then may use different strategies to refuse others. As Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) pointed out, the speech act of refusal is "a major cross-cultural 'sticking point' for many nonnative speakers, and for that reason they are important for second language educators and others involved in cross-cultural communication" (p. 56). Thus, the study of refusal plays an important role in interlanguage and cross-cultural pragmatics.

B. Refusals across Languages

Many studies have been conducted on refusals across languages, e.g., Mexican Spanish and American English (Félix-Brasdefer, 2003, 2004, 2008, 2010), Egyptian Arabic and American English (Nelson, Carson, Al Batal & El Bakary, 2002), Jordanian EFL learners (Al-Issa, 2003), Japanese and American English (Beebe et al., 1990; Gass & Houck, 1999), and Thai and American English (Wannaruk, 2008). Among them, Beebe et al.'s work (1990) is often cited and replicated. The main purpose of Beebe et al. (1990) was to provide the preliminary evidence for Japanese ESL learners' pragmatic transfer. A discourse completion task (hereafter, DCT) was utilize to elicit participants' refusals to 12 scenarios of four stimulus types, i.e., request, invitation, offer, and suggestion. Elicited data were coded according to a coding scheme and analyzed in terms of the order of semantic formula, frequency of formula, and content of formula. The result exhibited Japanese ESL learners' pragmatic transfer. Despite the limited size of participants, Beebe et al.'s study provides the analytic tools, direction of data analyses, and a DCT for further studies on cross-cultural comparisons. This well-designed methodological part may be the reason why it is often cited and replicated in interlanguage and cross-cultural pragmatics.

C. Refusals between Chinese and American English

Compared with studies between English and other languages, studies on refusals between Mandarin Chinese and American English are relatively less investigated. Previous studies have shown that Americans tended to use more direct refusal strategies than Chinese (Chang, 2001, 2009, 2011; Guo, 2012; Hong, 2011; Liao, 1995; Liao & Bresnahan, 1996; Lin, 2006). In addition, Chinese used fewer refusal tokens than Americans due to the politeness theory of *dian-dao-wei-zhi* (point-to-is-end—marginally touch the point) (Liao & Bresnahan, 1996). As for content of excuses, Chinese tended to provide more reasons/excuses with specific and important details than Americans (Chang, 2009, 2011; Liao & Bresnahan, 1996). When Chinese EFL learners performed the speech act of refusals, they tended to transfer their L1 norms into L2 refusals (Chang, 2001, 2009, 2011; Lin, 2006).

Among the above studies, most of them elicited participants' refusals from a single source, i.e., DCT, except for the oral DCT and metapragmatic assessment questionnaire in Chang (2011). However, scanty studies use scaled response questionnaire (hereafter, SRQ) to investigate how participants perceive the face-threat of the DCT scenarios, and then relate the perception to participants' realizations of refusals. To fill this gap, the present study aims to explore the speech act of refusals between Mandarin Chinese and American English by collecting both performance and perception data for method-triangulation.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

There were three participant groups in the study: 30 native speakers of Mandarin Chinese in Taiwan (NSC), 30 Chinese EFL learners in Taiwan (EFL), and 30 native speakers of American English in the United States (NSE). The two groups of native speakers, NSC and NSE, provided the baseline data for cross-cultural and interlanguage comparisons. In order to make the baseline data representative, the study recruited participants from those with less exposure to foreign language learning (Chen, 2007; Cook, 2003). NSC group consisted of 30 college freshmen of non-English majors from a northern university in Taiwan. NSE group was composed of 30 native speakers of American college students who were not eastern language majors. To avoid the effect of length of residence (Félix-Brasdefer, 2004; Lin, 2006; Matsumura, 2001), American natives who had stayed in Chinese speaking countries over three months were excluded. EFL learners were undergraduates and graduates of English majors who had passed tests of B2 level of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEF), within the preceding three years by the time of our experiment. The ratios of male to female in the participant groups were: 16: 14

(NSC), 15: 15 (EFL), and 15: 15 (NSE). The mean age of the three participant groups was 20.4 (NSC), 23.9 (EFL-H), and 23.9 (NSE). The grouping of participants can be summarized in Table 1.

TABLE 1
GROUPING OF PARTICIPANTS IN THE PRESENT STUDY

Group	Participants	Gender (M: F)	Mean age	N
NSC	Chinese college freshmen of non-English majors in Taiwan	16: 14	20.4	30
EFL	Graduates and undergraduates of English majors (B2 level of CEF) in Taiwan	15: 15	23.9	30
NSE	American college students of non-eastern language majors in America	15: 15	23.9	30

B. Instruments

The instrument used in the present study was a questionnaire with two major parts: DCT, and SRQ (cf. Appendix A). The reason to include the two instrument is for method triangulation (Chang, 2009, 2011; Chen et al., 2010; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2013; Lee, 2011; Yu, 2011).

A DCT is an instrument widely employed in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics. Although DCTs are criticized for not eliciting on-line spoken production data and not allowing for negotiation between interlocutors (Chen, 2007; Yuan, 2001), previous studies have indicated that the data elicited through DCTs, open-ended role play, and field notes of naturally occurring expressions are similar and yield the same words and expressions (Bodman & Eisenstein, 1988; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989). In addition, DCTs are effective ways of collecting plenty of data within a short period of time (Chang, 2009; Chen, 2007; Lee, 2011; Tang & Zhang, 2009) and variables of situations in DCTs can be easily controlled for the comparisons among different languages (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper., 1989; Chen, 2007; Cenoz, 2003). Thus, DCT was chosen as one of the research instrument. The DCT in the present study included three situations of refusals. The design of DCT situations was based on the contextual factor of social status, which is a vital factor governing variation in speech acts (e.g., Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987; Chen et al., 2011; Lee, 2011). A detailed distribution of the contextual factor and a brief description of each situation were given in Table 2.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTION OF THE DCT SITUATIONS

situation	brief description	status
1	A professor refuses a student's request for dismissing the class earlier.	H→L
2	A person refuses a friend's request for borrowing a new car.	equal
3	An employee refuses a boss's invitation to a party.	L→H

As for SRQ, it can be an additional resource to obtain participants' sociopragmatic values which influence their speech act performance, and the results can help researchers interpret participants' choice of strategy use (Chen, 2006; Chen, 2007). Thus, SRQ was also employed in the present study and was embedded in each DCT situation. The perception of degree of face-threat was based on Likert's five point scale: number one is the least face-threatening and number five is the most face-threatening.

C. Procedure

Two versions of DCT were created: English version and Chinese version. The Chinese version was translated from the English version. To ensure the equivalence of the illocutionary force in the two versions, they were discussed, modified, and confirmed by three bilingual experts in applied linguistics. Before participants' filling in the questionnaire, they were asked to fill out a consent form for participation in this study and were required to read the instruction and an example of the questionnaire. NSE and EFL groups filled out the English DCT in English, and NSC filled out the Chinese version in Chinese. The Chinese baseline data and the interlanguage data were collected by the researcher, and the English baseline data were collected by a research assistant in America. All participants were required to finish the questionnaire within 30 minutes.

D. Coding

The coding of the present study was based on a coding scheme (see Appendix B), which was first developed by Beebe et al. (1990) and then was modified according to the corpora of the study. The modifications of the scheme were discussed as follows. First, the direct strategy *performative* in Beebe et al. was deleted because it was not used by our participants. Second, *the statement of principle* and *the statement of philosophy* were used to explain why the participants refused the interlocutor, and then they were integrated into *the strategy of excuse, reason, and explanation* (Chang, 2009, 2011). Third, *the strategy of compensation*, e.g., "Let me treat you a meal on another day" in refusing the boss' invitation, was used by our participants to compensate for their refusal and then was added in the coding scheme. This coding scheme included three macro strategies (i.e., direct strategies, indirect strategies, and adjuncts) and 15 micro strategies. Twenty percent of the data were randomly selected and coded by a second researcher (Cohen, 1960; Yu,

2005, 2006, 2011). The interrater reliability was 96% agreement for macro strategies and 92% for micro strategies.

E. Data Analyses

The present study aimed to investigate the speech act of refusal by Chinese, Americans, and EFL learners in terms of perception of face-threat, overall strategy use, and strategy patterns. As for the perception in SRQ, one-way ANOVA was used to examine the means among groups. If significant differences were detected, post-hoc comparisons of Scheffé tests were employed to examine the differences between each pair of groups. As for the overall strategy use, the non-parametric Chi-square test was used to examine the frequency of participant groups' strategy use. In addition, further in-depth qualitative analyses were conducted to examine the content and linguistic forms of strategy use. As for the strategy pattern, the frequency of order of refusal strategies was examined.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Perception of Face-threat from SRQ

The overall means of perception of face-threat from SRQ by the three groups were shown in Table 3. The results from one-way ANOVA showed that there were significant differences among groups (F=10.563, df=2, p=.000***). Post-hoc comparisons of Scheffé tests revealed that EFL learners scaled the face-threat significantly higher than NSC (p=.01**) and NSE (p=.000***). However, the means of NSC did not differ significantly from NSE (p=.365). That is, both Chinese and Americans had similar perception of face-threat toward refusals. Therefore, the two baseline groups were predicted to use refusal strategies of similar directness level. On the other hand, EFL learners, scaling the face-threat significantly higher than the two baseline groups, were predicted to use less direct strategies and more adjuncts to downtone the face-threat.

TABLE 3
OVERALL MEANS OF PERCEPTION OF FACE-THREAT FROM SRQ

NSC		EFL		NSE		*F (p)* & post-hoc comparisons
M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	
2.11	.89	2.76	.82	1.81	.73	$F = 10.563$, df=2, p = **.000*** NSC & NSE (.365) EFL & NSC (**.01****) EFL & NSE (**.000*****)

Note. ***p <.001

B. Overall Strategy Use

The results of overall strategy use by the three groups were shown in Table 4. All the three groups used indirect strategies most, direct strategies second, and adjuncts least. This indicated the three participant groups' payoff consideration (Chen et al., 2011; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993). That is, facing an offense, a speaker can choose not to perform the speech act (i.e., adjuncts) or to perform the act (i.e., direct and indirect strategies). When s/he chooses not to perform the act, s/he would remain frustrated by the offense. On the other hand, refusing the interlocutor, s/he can express the censure clearly but may destroy the interpersonal relationship. Thus, they tried to strike the balance and performed the act indirectly by using indirect strategies more frequently.

TABLE 4
OVERALL STRATEGY USE BY THE THREE GROUPS

group \ strategy	NSC	EFL	NSE	χ^2, df, p
Direct	27 (17%)	29 (14%)	27 (16%)	$\chi^2 = .333$, $df = 2$, $p = .564$
Indirect	133 (81%)	152 (75%)	128 (78%)	$\chi^2 = 2.329$, $df = 2$, $p = .312$
Adjunct	4 (2%)	**23 (11%)**	10 (6%)	$\chi^2 = 15.297$, $df = 2$, $p = .000***$
Total	164 (100%)	204 (100%)	165 (100%)	

As predicted by their perception of face-threat from SRQ, NSC and NSE preferred to use refusal strategies of similar directness level. They chose indirect strategies most to refuse others, and there were no major differences in their overall strategy use. This contradicted the results of previous studies which suggested that Americans tended to use more direct refusal strategies than Chinese (Chang, 2001, 2009, 2011; Guo, 2012; Hong, 2011; Liao, 1995; Liao & Bresnahan, 1996; Lin, 2006). The discrepancy may be due to the effect of social change that western culture through mass media and language contact influenced the language use of Chinese younger generation (Chen & Yang, 2010; Cheng, 2011).

As for EFL learners, they used more refusal strategies to a marginally significant extent than the two baseline groups (NSC: 164, EFL: 204, NSE: 165, $\chi^2 = 5.857$, $df = 2$, p= .053). Learners' verbose behavior demonstrated their interlanguage development, the waffle phenomenon, which is defined as "excessive use of linguistic forms to fill a specific discourse 'slot' or 'move', i.e., to achieve a specific pragmatic goal" (Edmondson & House, 1991, p.273-274). Learners' waffling may be due to the fact that they felt insecure in using an unfamiliar language and perceived the

face-threat greater than native speakers, as shown in the result of SRQ in Section 4.1. Thus, they used more strategies to ensure that their illocutionary meaning was successfully gotten across (Bataller, 2010; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Bu, 2011; Chen, 2007; Lin, 2006, 2008; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993; Yu, 2011). However, learners' saying too much than required can be a kind of pragmatic failure (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Bu, 2011). Instructions are needed to help learners refuse other appropriately.

The results of each individual strategy by the three groups were shown in Table 5. Further analyses of direct strategies, indirect strategies, and adjuncts were discussed in Section 4.2.1 to Section 4.2.3.

TABLE 5
INDIVIDUAL STRATEGY USE BY THE THREE GROUPS

group ＼ Strategy	NSC	EFL	NSE
DIRECT	27 (17%)	29 (14%)	27 (16%)
"No"	5 (3%)	0 (0%)	7 (4%)
Negative willingness/ability	22 (13%)	29 (14%)	20 (12%)
INDIRECT	133 (81%)	152 (75%)	128 (78%)
regret	27 (17%)	42 (21%)	44 (27%)
wish	0 (0%)	2 (1%)	0 (0%)
excuse, reason, explanation	**63 (38%)**	**79 (39%)**	**54 (33%)**
alternative	3 (2%)	9 (4%)	1 (1%)
condition	8 (5%)	5 (3%)	7 (4%)
dissuade	17 (10%)	10 (5%)	16 (10%)
accept	6 (4%)	2 (1%)	3 (2%)
compensation	1 (1%)	2 (1%)	1 (1%)
avoidance	8 (5%)	1 (1%)	2 (1%)
ADJUNCT	4 (2%)	**23 (11%)**	10 (6%)
Positive opinion/ feeling or agreement	1 (1%)	**15 (7%)**	3 (2%)
empathy	2 (1%)	3 (2%)	1 (1%)
Pause fillers	0 (0%)	1 (1%)	1 (1%)
appreciate	1 (1%)	4 (2%)	5 (3%)
Total	164 (100%)	204 (100%)	165 (100%)

1. Direct strategies

There were no significant differences in the use of direct strategies among groups (cf. Table 4, NSC: 27, EFL: 29, NSE: 27, $\chi^2 = .333$, $df = 2$, $p = .564$). As shown in Table 5, participants tended to use more strategies of negative willingness/ability than "No". This tendency was more prominent in EFL learners' sole use of negative willingness/ability. Participants' preference in the use of negative willingness/ability rather than "No" in direct strategies may be due to the fact that "No" is more face-threatening than negative willingness/ability (Chang, 2009). Thus, participants tended to avoid using "No."

In spite of the tendency in the use of negative willingness/ability, the three groups used different softening devices for mitigation. NSC favored the use of modal 可能 'may' (e.g., 可能沒辦法去了 'I may not be able to go' in situation 3;

可能不方便借你 'It may be inconvenient for me to lend you (my car)' in situation 2) . Americans tended to use modals (e.g., *I won't make it* in situation 3) and subjectivizers (e.g., *I don't think I can make it* in situation 3, *I don't feel comfortable lending my car to you* and *I don't feel comfortable having you drive my car!* in situation 3). EFL learners, similar to Americans, also preferred to use modals (e.g., *I might not be able to attend the party* in situation 3) and subjectivizers (e.g., *I'm afraid I can't go to your party* in situation 3, and *I am afraid I cannot lend the car to you* in situation 2). However, it is interesting to note that NSE's frequent use of the subjectivizer '*I don't feel comfortable*' was never used by learners. This finding confirms Chang's (2011) claim that American native speakers had a wider range of expressions to convey negative willingness/ability than Chinese EFL learners. Thus, authentic examples should be given to learners to expand their repertoire of refusal strategies.

2. Indirect strategies

There were no significant differences among groups in the use of indirect strategies (cf. Table 4, NSC: 133, EFL: 152, NSE: 128, $\chi^2 = 2.329$, $df = 2$, $p = .312$). As shown in Table 5, participant groups used the strategy of excuse/reason/explanation most among the 15 strategies. This implies that Chinese and Americans regarded the strategy of excuse/reason/explanation as the most useful one in refusing others. Further analyses of the content of excuses would be insightful.

The content of excuses can be divided into two types: specified excuses and unspecified excuses (Chang, 2009, 2011). Specified excuses refer to the excuses in which the speaker explicitly points out the exact date, person, engagement or plan to refuse the interlocutor; unspecified excuses are the excuses that the speaker does not mention the details. The distribution of excuse types by the three groups was shown in Table 6. NSC and NSE tended to provide unspecified excuses, whereas EFL learners had similar preference in the use of both types of excuses. This seems to contradict the

results of previous studies which suggested that Chinese and Chinese EFL learners provided more specified excuses than Americans (Chang, 2009, 2011; Liao & Bresnahan, 1996). However, an in-depth analysis revealed that participants' use of specified excuses was influenced by the factor of social status (Chang, 2009, 2011; Lin, 2006). As shown in Table 7, 82% of Chinese specified excuses were used in refusing a boss' invitation. This indicates that Chinese concerned the relationship with people of higher social status most and perceived the need to provide specified excuses to convince the interlocutor. On the other hand, EFL learners, similar to Americans, tended to provide specified excuses not only in refusing a boss' invitation but also in refusing a friend's request. This suggests that Americans and EFL learners concerned their relationship with people of equal and higher social status. Thus, the three groups' use of specified excuses exhibits the cross-cultural differences between Chinese and Americans. Chinese emphasis on the relationship with people of higher social status may be due to the fact that "the hierarchical nature of the Chinese society predisposes a complex social network of unique hierarchical interpersonal relationships." (Jia, 2007, p. 40). Nevertheless, Americans, influenced by their value of equal rights, also attended to their relationship with peers.

TABLE 6
EXCUSE TYPES BY THE THREE GROUPS

Excuses group	NSC	EFL	NSE
Specified	11 (17%)	40 (51%)	18 (33%)
Unspecified	52 (83%)	39 (49%)	36 (67%)
Total	63 (100%)	79 (100%)	54 (100%)

TABLE 7
SPECIFIED EXCUSES BY SPEAKERS OF DIFFERENT SOCIAL STATUS AMONG GROUPS

situation	NSC	EFL	NSE
Refusing a student's request (High to Low)	0 (0%)	2 (5%)	3 (17%)
Refusing a friend's request (Equal status)	2 (18%)	**20 (50%)**	**8 (44%)**
Refusing a boss' invitation (Low to High)	**9 (82%)**	**18 (45%)**	7 (39%)
Total	11 (100%)	40 (100%)	18 (100%)

Although EFL learners' use of specified excuses showed similar tendency to that of Americans, the content of EFL's specified excuses was influenced by their L1 culture. To be more specific, both NSC and EFL preferred to use the excuses of family matters (e.g., 那天是我老婆的預產期 'That day will be the estimated date of my wife's delivery' by NSC in situation 3; *My girlfriend just feels uncomfortable recently, I'm afraid she is pregnant. I need to take care of her*.; *I have to take care of my mother that day* by EFL in situation 3) or problems of health (e.g., 我不太舒服 'I feel sick' by NSC in situation 3; *I feel uncomfortable* by EFL in situation 3). Only an American offered this kind of excuse (e.g., *My mom is sick* by NSE in situation 3). This finding is in accordance with previous studies which suggested that excuses of family matters and health problems are considered most persuasive in Chinese (Chang, 2009; Lin, 2006).

Aside from the content of excuses, there were some expressions of indirect strategies that were never used by EFL learners. For example, in refusing a student's request, Americans would express their attempts to dissuade the interlocutors by saying "*Two words: Time management*", "*You need to proiritize*", "*As the army rangers say, 'sleep shows a lack of motivation'*", and "*Learn to manage your time*". In refusing a friend's request for borrowing a new car, Americans set the condition for future acceptance by saying "*not unless you give me the cost in collateral*." American expressions, like *time management*, *prioritize*, and *the cost in collateral*, demonstrate their concise use of language, which is the part that EFL learners have to master.

3. Adjuncts

Adjuncts are the supportive moves (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989) or positive remarks (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993) used to mitigate the offense of head acts. The results of the overall use of adjuncts showed that there were significant differences among groups (cf. Table 4, NSC: 4, EFL: 23, NSE: 10, χ^2 = 15.297, df = 2, p = .000***). EFL group used more adjuncts to a significant extent than the two baseline groups. This may be due to the fact that EFL group perceived the offense most face-threatening and also used more refusal strategies. Thus, they noticed the need to employ more adjuncts to downtone the impositions.

Among the use of each individual adjunct, as shown in Table 5, EFL groups preferred to use statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement for mitigation (e.g., **I'd love to,** but I really can't in situation 3, **I'd love to,** but I need to visit a client later in situation 2, and **I'd really like to go**, but I have to take care of my mother that day. in situation 3). EFL learners seemed to have no problems in the use of adjuncts for they had similar expressions to NSE in the statement of empathy (eg., **I understand that you were up preparing for another exam;** however, this is going to effect my teaching schedule if I let class out early today. by NSE in situation 1; **I know you are tired**, but I have to keep going. by EFL in situation 1), the use of pause fillers (e.g, **Yeah right.** Two words: Time management. by NSE in situation 1; **Well**, but I am going to use it in another hour. by EFL in situation 2), and the use of gratitidue (e.g., **Thank you**, but I

won't be able to make it. by NSE in situation 3; **Thank you for your invitation,** *but I have to take care of my mom on that day.* by EFL in situation 3).

As for the distribution of adjuncts in relation to other strategies, Table 8 shows that 78% of adjuncts were expressed before direct or indirect strategies. This finding was in accordance with previous studies which suggested that adjuncts or positive remarks tended to be used before head acts to downtone the upcoming offense (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993; Lin, 2008). Further discussions of the patterns of adjuncts were presented in Section 4.3.

TABLE 8
DISTRIBUTION OF ADJUNCTS BY THE THREE GROUPS

pattern	NSC	EFL	NSE	Total
Adjunct + D/ID	2 (50%)	21 (91%)	6 (60)	**29 (78%)**
D/ID + Adjunct	1 (25%)	1 (4.5%)	3 (30%)	5 (14%)
D/ID + Adjunct + D/ID	1 (25%)	1 (4.5%)	1 (10%)	3 (8%)
Total	4 (100%)	23 (100%)	10 (100%)	37 (100%)

Note. D is for direct strategies, and ID for indirect strategies.

C.   Strategy Patterns

The dirstribution of strategy patterns by the three groups was shown in Table 9. Only 27% of participants used one-strategy patterns to refuse others. Most participants tended to use multi-strategy patterns to realize the act. Thus, an analysis of the preceding two strategies of multi-strategy patterns would be insightful for our understanding of participants' refusals. The results of patterns of the starting two strategies among groups, as shown in Table 10, indicated that participants tended to start the multi-strategy patterns with adjuncts or indirect strategies for they were less face-threatening than direct strategies.

TABLE 9
DISTRIBUTION OF STRATEGY PATTERNS BY THE THREE GROUPS

Pattern group	NSC	EFL	NSE	Total
One-strategy pattern	33 (37%)	14 (16%)	27 (30%)	74 (27%)
Two-strategy pattern	38 (42%)	33 (37%)	40 (44%)	111 (41%)
Three-strategy pattern	16 (18%)	34 (38%)	19 (21%)	69 (26%)
Four-strategy pattern	3 (3%)	7 (8%)	3 (3%)	13 (5%)
Five-strategy pattern	0 (0%)	2 (2%)	1 (1%)	3 (1%)
Total	90 (100%)	90 (100%)	90 (100%)	270 (100%)

TABLE 10
PATTERNS OF THE STARTING TWO STRATEGIES BY THE THREE GROUPS

Pattern group	NSC	EFL	NSE
AD-but-D(negative)	0 (0%)	4 (5%)	1 (2%)
AD-but-ID(excuse)	2 (4%)	**16 (21%)**	2 (3%)
AD-ID(dissuade)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (3%)
AD-ID(excuse)	0 (0%)	1 (1%)	0 (0%)
D-excuse/other	4 (7%)	4 (5%)	9 (5%)
ID(accept)-ID(dissuade)	3 (5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
ID(condition)-others	2 (4%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
ID(dissuade)-others	8 (14%)	5 (7%)	2 (3%)
ID(excuse)-negative/regret/others	**22 (39%)**	6 (8%)	7 (11%)
ID(regret)-AD	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
ID(regret)-ID(excuse)	15 (26%)	**30 (40%)**	**31 (49%)**
ID(regret)-negative/others	0 (0%)	10 (13%)	9 (14%)
Total	57 (100%)	76 (100%)	63 (100%)

Note. D is for direct strategies, ID for indirect strategies, and AD for adjuncts.

Summarizing Table 10, we can have a clearer picture of the typical pattern of each group illustrated in Table 11. NSC tended to express their excuses before the statement of negative unwillingness/ability (e.g., 我另有其他事要做, 無空前往 'I have something important to do. Thus I have no time to go there.' in situation 3) or before the statement of regret (e.g., 我等會需要用車, 不好意思喔! 'I will use my car later. Sorry' in situation 2). On the other hand, NSE tended to provide statement of regret before their excuses (e.g., *Sorry, I have a lot to cover today!* in situation 1; *Sorry, there's another engagement I must attend to.* in situation 3) or statement of negative willingness/ability (e.g., *Sorry, I don't feel comfortable lending my car to you.* in situation 2; *I'm so sorry, I will not be able to attend.* In situation 3). As for EFL group, their pattern was similar to that of Americans. They also expressed their regret before their explanation (e.g., *Sorry, I still have to finish all of the lessons today.* in situation 1) or statement of negative willingness/ability (e.g., *Sorry, I'm afraid I cannot come.* in situation 3).

An interesting finding was that the pattern of "Adjunct + but + Direct/Indirect" was used more frequently by EFL

group (e.g., *I know you are tired, but I have to keep going.* in situation 1; *I really want to help you on this, but I have to use it in a minute.* in situation 2; *Thanks for your inviting, but I have already had another appointment.* in situation 3) than by Americans (e.g., *I would love to go, but I have other plans.* in situation 3) or Chinese (e.g., 我知道考試期間大家都很忙,但是我的課程進度已經落後很多,所以可能沒辦法 'I know you are busy during mid-term week, but the schedule has been delayed. Therefore, I can't make it.' in situation 1). Although previous studies (e.g., Chang, 2011; Lin, 2008; Pomerantz, 1984) have indicated that Americans tended to provide a positive move followed by the contrastive marker *but* before their realization of a face-threatening act, i.e., "positive opinion + but + head act", EFL group seemed to overuse this pattern (NSC: 4%, EFL: 26%, NSE: 5%). EFL group's overuse of this pattern may be due to the fact that they were advanced learners and knew how to employ this acquired formulaic expression to downtone the face-threat when refusing others.

TABLE 11
TYPICAL PATTERN BY THE THREE GROUPS

Group	Typical pattern	Count (%)
NSC	ID(excuse)-negative/regret/others	22/57 (39%)
EFL	ID(regret)-excuse/negative/others	40/76 (53%)
NSE	ID(regret)-excuse/negative/others	40/63 (64%)

Note. ID is for indirect strategies.

V. GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present study aimed to examine Chinese and American refusals with a focus on Chinese EFL learners' interlanguage performance. Three groups participated in this study. The research instrument was a questionnaire with two major parts: SRQ and DCT. Collected data were coded according to a revised coding scheme, and were analyzed in terms of perception of face-threat, overall strategy use, and the strategy patterns. The results were shown as follows.

As for participants' perception from SRQ, EFL learners perceived the face-threat significantly greater than the two baseline groups. Thus learners were predicted to use more indirect strategies and adjuncts for downtoning the offense.

As for the overall strategy use, all participants tended to use indirect strategies most for the payoff consideration (Chen et al., 2011; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993). An insightful finding is that EFL learners exhibited the waffling phenomenon, using more strategies than the two baseline groups (Bataller, 2010; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Bu, 2011; Chen, 2007; Lin, 2006, 2008; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1993; Yu, 2011). "The seemingly verbose behavior appears to serve a metalingual or metacommunicative function to help learners clarify their intended pragmatic or semantic meaning" (Yu, 2011, p.1143). However, this verbose behavior can be a pragmatic failure (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Bu, 2011). In the use of direct strategies, Chinese and Americans tended to use direct strategies least. This seemed to contradict the claim that Americans were more direct than Chinese (Chang, 2001, 2009, 2011; Guo, 2012; Hong, 2011; Liao, 1995; Lia & Bresnahan, 1996; Lin, 2006). This discrepancy may be due to social change (Chen & Yang, 2010; Cheng, 2011), and further studies are needed to verify this claim. In the use of indirect strategies, EFL learners seemed to approximate American norm. Nevertheless, the indepth analyses revealed that EFL learners were influenced by their L1 culture in their content of excuses. Besides, there were some native expressions that were never used by learners. In the use of adjuncts, learners tended to overuse adjuncts to a significant extent. Thus, further instructions are needed to help learners to refuse others more concisely with native formulaic expressions.

As for the refusal patterns, Chinese often provided their excuses before the expression of regret or negative willingness, whereas Americans tended to express their regret and then uttered their excuses or negative willingness. EFL learners appeared to have no problems in the use of most refusal patterns except for their overuse of the acquired formulaic expression "adjunct + but + head act."

There are some limitations in the study. First, there are only three situations of refusal based on the variable of social status. Future studies can incorporate other variables (e.g., social distance, rank of imposition, and gender) into the design of DCT scenarios. Second, the present study only recruited interlanguage data from learners of intermediate-high level. Further studies can include more levels (e.g., basic, intermediate, and advanced levels) to depict the whole picture of interlanguage development in the speech act of refusal. Third, future studies can use other research methods for triangulation, e.g., oral DCT (Chang, 2011; Wei, 2012), role play (Cheng, 2011; Félix-Brasdefer, 2003, 2004, 2008; Nguyen, 2013), metapragmatic judgement task questionnaire (Chang, 2011), field observation of naturally occuring data (Economidou-Kogetsidis 2013; Razmjoo, Barabadi, & Arfa, 2013; Yu, 2011), retrospective verbal report (Cheng, 2011; Félix-Brasdefer, 2003, 2004, 2008; Woodfield, 2010), and cognitive sociolinguistic approaches (Chen, Li, & Rau, 2013).

Despite the above limitations, the present study has filled the gap of previous studies by collecting both perception and production data to examine the less investigated Chinese and American refusals. The results have contributed to our understanding of EFL learners' interlanguage performance and the debate of language universality and specificity.

APPENDIX A.   QUESTIONNAIRE

Situation 1

You are a professor at a university. Today most students are tired because they prepared for the examination of another subject and stayed up last night. Thus a student asks you to dismiss your class earlier. However, you have to carry on for the delayed schedule.

In this situation, if you refuse the student, how seriously would it embarrass the student? Please circle a number.

very slightly…………………………..very seriously

                        1   2   3   4   5

If you are the teacher, what would you say to the student? (Please choose 1 or 2.)

1. (   ) I would say, "_____"

2. (   ) I would say nothing because _____

Situation 2

Your friend wants to borrow your new car to take his girl friend for outing. However, you are afraid that your friend will not use your new car carefully and you will also use it in an hour.

In this situation, if you refuse your friend, how seriously would it embarrass him? Please circle a number.

very slightly …………………………..very seriously

                        1   2   3   4   5

If your friend wants to borrow your new car in this situation, what would you say to him? (Please choose 1 or 2.)

1. (   ) I would say, "_____"

2. (   ) I would say nothing because _____

Situation 3

Your boss is inviting you to his party at his home. However, you found that one of your colleagues who is your ex-lover will attend the party as well. To avoid embarrassment, you do not like to go to the party.

In this situation, if you refuse your boss, how seriously would it embarrass him? Please circle a number.

very slightly …………………………..very seriously

                        1   2   3   4   5

If you are being invited in this situation, what would you say to the boss? (Please choose 1 or 2.)

1. (   ) I would say, "_____"

2. (   ) I would say nothing because _____

APPENDIX B.   CODING SCHEME

Strategy	English examples	Chinese examples
I. DIRECT		
1 Nonperformative statement		
1.1. "No"	"No." by NSE in S1; "Not tonight" by NSE in S2	"沒辦法" in S1 "不行!" in S1
1.2. Negative willingness/ability	"I can't make it." by NSE in S3; "I won't be able to make it." by NSE in S3	"我不想去" in S3
II. INDIRECT		
2.1 Statement of regret	"I'm sorry" by NSE in S2	"不好意思" in S2
2.2 Wish	"I hope you don't mind." by EFL in S3. "I hope I can" by EFL in S1.	NA
2.3 Excuse, reason, explanation	"I have other plans." by NSE in S3.	"我自己要用" in S2. "老闆我有隱情阿,有苦難說" in S3.
2.4 Statement of alternative	"You'll have to try someone else." in S2	"你可以考慮和別人借" in S2.
2.5 Set condition for past/future acceptance	"Maybe next time." by NSE in S3; "You can borrow it tomorrow" by NSE in S2	"如果你能一小時內回來 ,我很樂意借你" in S2
2.6 Attempt to dissuade interlocutor		
a. Threat or Statement of negative consequences to the requester	"If you break it, you buy it." by NSE in S2.	"不如我們下禮拜也來考試吧", "如果今天提早下課,下次就會更晚下課" in S1
b. Criticize the request/requester (statement of negative feeling or opinion; insult/attack)	"You're not the teacher" by NSE in S1. "You need to prioritize." by NSE in S1.	"平時就要燒香,不要考前熬夜抱佛腳" in S1
c. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request	"Learn to manage your time." by NSE in S1.	"要考的部份沒上到課的地方要自己回去讀" in S1.
d. Let interlocutor off the hook	"Sit down and learn something." by NSE in S1.	"同學我們還是照樣上課吧" in S1
e. Self-defense	NA	(e.g., "我盡量吧" in S1)
2.7 Acceptance that functions as a refusal		
a. Unspecific or indefinite reply	"Go ahead" in S1	"不需介意" in S3.
b. Lack of enthusiasm	"I won't make you stay" in S1)	"這位同學你先走沒關係" in S1.
2.8 Compensation for the refusal	"Let me treat you a meal on another day." in S3	"不必對同學有太多要求" in S1.
2.9 Avoidance a.Nonverbal b.Verbal (topic switch, joke, repetition of part of request, postponement, hedging)	participants' choice of opting out	participants' choice of opting out
III. ADJUNCTS		
3.1 Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement	"I would love to go" by NSE in S3.	"我很想參加" in S1
3.2 Statement of empathy	"I understand that you were up preparing for another exam" by NSE in S1.	"我知道考試期間大家都很忙" in S1
3.3 Pause fillers	"uhh"; "well"; "yeah"; "uhm"	NA
3.4 Gratitude/appreciation	"I appreciate you asking" by NSE in S1 "Thank you" by NSE in S3	"謝謝你的邀請" in S3

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Ming-Fang Lin was born in Kaohsiung, Taiwan, in 1983. He got his B.A. from Department of English Language, Literature and Linguistics, Providence University, Taiwan, and M.A. in TEFL from Department of English, National Taiwan Normal University, Taiwan. Now, he is a PhD student in the program of Applied Linguistics & Language Teaching, Department of English, National Kaohsiung Normal University, Taiwan.

He works as an English teacher and chief of curriculum and equipment section in Kaohsiung Municipal Sanlin Junior High School. He has presented his studies in many international conferences and got his research published in *TELL Journal: Teaching of Languages, Linguistics, and Literature*. His research interests are English Teaching, cross-cultural communication, and interlanguage pragmatics.

Mr. Lin is an honorable member of the Phi Tau Phi Scholastic Honor Society of the Republic of China and a member of International Association of Chinese Linguistics (IACL).

Conducting Web-based Formative Assessment Reform for ODL Students: A Case Study

Jingzheng Wang

School of International Exchange, Yunnan Open University, China

Yuanbing Duan

School of International Exchange, Yunnan Open University, China

Abstract—Modern open and distance education is characterized by web-based instruction, web-based assessment and research. The significance and necessity on formative assessment have been well acknowledged in the educational field. This paper firstly introduces the formative assessment innovation project conducted by China Central Radio & Television University (CCRTVU). Based on the "web-based formative assessment for English II (1)", a required course for the non-English majors following B. A. programmes at Yunnan Radio and TV University (YNTVU, now renamed Yunnan Open University), it will mainly discuss whether it is feasible and effective to put the formative assessment online from the following three aspects: a thorough data analysis of the pilot project results; the strengths of web-based formative assessment compared with the paper-based formative assessment and finally the constraints on implementing web-based formative assessment system in the remote areas like Yunnan province, China. In the study, semi-structured in-depth interviews were employed to collect the participants' feedback. The study found that web-based formative assessment, when carefully designed, organized and managed, is a very useful way of stimulating and facilitating student learning, it will promote students' learning autonomy, ensure students' learning process and help students develop their overall language competence as well.

Index Terms—web-based, formative assessment, feasibility, effectiveness

I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Modern open and distance education is characterized by web-based instruction, web-based assessment and research. So far there has not been much research on web-based continuous assessment for the distance learners in China. As is widely acknowledged (e.g., Thorpe, 1998; Morgan and O'Reilly, 1999; Niu, 2003), continuous assessment, the so-called formative assessment, aims to enhance and improve student learning. If web-based formative assessment is enforced and becomes a necessary part of course learning, students are rewarded with certain marks, it is assumed that web-based formative assessment will play a greater role in stimulating and facilitating student learning.

With the increasing use of the Internet in English language teaching, the possibility of conducting formative assessment online is becoming greater. This paper, based on the "web-based formative assessment for *This is English 3*", namely *English II (1)*, a required course for the non-English majors following B. A. programmes of Radio and TV Universities (RTVUs), will mainly discuss whether it is feasible and effective to put the formative assessment online from the following three aspects: an analysis of 2011 spring semester testing results in the process and an analysis of College English Test (Level B) results; the advantages and disadvantages of web-based formative assessment compared with the paper-based formative assessment and finally the constraints on conducting web-based formative assessment system in the remote areas like Yunnan. Hopefully this paper will give readers some insights into the feasibility and effectiveness of conducting formative assessment online.

Therefore, this study aims to answer two questions:

1) Is it feasible to use web-based formative assessment for the course of *English II (1)* as a means of continuous assessment?

2) What are the strengths and limitations of conducting web-based formative assessment in practice in the remote areas like Yunnan?

II. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Participants

The subjects involved in the study are all the adult students registered the course of *English II (1)* at YNTVU of China during the 2011 spring semester.

B. Procedures

The study was carried out in the spring semester of 2011, lasting from March 2011 to July 2011. In the study, Qualitative semi-structured interviews were conducted with 10 randomly chosen tutors and 50 students after the

web-based formative assessment implementation. The interviews were conducted by phone and QQ Forum, when possible, face-to-face as well. The data of students' performance both during the learning process and at the final web-based term examination were retrieved from the CCRTVU's Web-based Assessment Platform and then partly processed with the statistical tool Microsoft Office Excel 2003.

III. BRIEF REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. The Definition of Formative Assessment

Black and William (1998b, cited in Chang & Liu, 2006) define assessment broadly to "include all activities that teachers and students undertake to get information that can be used diagnostically to alter teaching and learning". They reckon that "assessments become formative when the information is used to adapt teaching and learning to meet student needs". While in Carol Boston's opinion formative assessment is used "diagnostically to provide feedback to teachers and students over the course of instruction". Whatever wordings are used, at least the following three characteristics should be included in the description of formative assessment in contrast to summative assessment, which "generally takes place after a period of instruction and requires making a judgment about the learning that has occurred" (e.g., by grading or scoring a test or paper) (Boston Carol, 2002, cited in Chang & Liu, 2006):

• formative assessment is carried out during (not after) the teaching and learning process;
• formative assessment is undertaken to make necessary instructional adjustments (not to give a summary of achievement);
• formative assessment is made by teachers rather than testers or examiners.

B. Rationale and Practice

There are several purposes to formative assessment:
• to provide feedback for teachers to modify subsequent learning activities and experiences (Ari, 2010);
• to identify and remediate group or individual deficiencies (Ari, 2010);
• to move focus away from achieving grades and onto learning processes, in order to increase self efficacy and reduce the negative impact of extrinsic motivation (Lorrie, 2005);
• to improve students' metacognitive awareness of how they learn (Lorrie, 2005).
• "frequent, ongoing assessment allows both for fine-tuning of instruction and student focus on progress (Cauley & McMillan, 2010)".

Feedback is the central function of formative assessment. It typically involves a focus on the detailed content of what is being learnt (Ari, 2010), rather than simply a test score or other measurement of how far a student is falling short of the expected standard. Nicol and Macfarlane (2005), synthesising from the literature, list seven principles of good feedback practice:

a. It clarifies what good performance is (goals, criteria, expected standards);
b. It facilitates the development of self-assessment in learning;
c. It provides high quality information to students about their learning;
d. It encourages teacher and peer dialogue around learning;
e. It encourages positive motivational beliefs and self-esteem;
f. It provides opportunities to close the gap between current and desired performance;
g. It provides information to teachers that can be used to help shape teaching (Nicol & Macfarlane, 2006).

C. Types of Formative Assessment

Formative assessment can be classified into many types based on different criteria. It can be classified into classroom-based and non-classroom-based ones in terms of the location where it is carried out; performance-oriented (i.e. the ability to do things), ability-oriented (the ability to think critically, to solve problems, to make judgments, to manage/develop oneself etc.) or knowledge-oriented (Choice of Assessment Method in *Good Practice in Student Assessment*) in terms of the area about which the formative assessment is intended to get information; paper-based and web-based in terms of the medium through which the formative assessment is carried out. The formative assessment to be mentioned below can be described as non-classroom-based, knowledge-oriented and web-based formative assessment. Details of the assessment system will be given later.

D. Benefits of Web-based Formative Assessment in Contrast to Paper-based Formative Assessment

Formative assessment is very important for teaching, since it can provide teachers with information about how well students are learning. However, in the case of RTVU's distance education, where tutors and students meet for tutorials only once every week or every month or even once a semester in some remote areas, it is more difficult to collect this information by using traditional paper-based formative assessment, not to speak of using it for improving tutorials. With the ever-increasing number of computers and the declining cost of using them, it becomes possible for tutors to keep track of students' learning process via the Internet. In addition, a lot of time and trouble can be saved without going through the process of handing in the paper-based assignments by the students and handing out the assignments with feedback by the teachers personally. Last but not the least, web-based formative assessment makes it much easier to

keep the documents for later reference and checked by the people concerned, which would otherwise be a large pile of space-consuming booklets. As a matter of fact, these are also the main reasons why web-based formative assessment has come in. Next details about the Multimedia Learning System for "*This is English 3*" are given.

IV. BACKGROUND INFORMATION ABOUT THE MULTIMEDIA LEARNING SYSTEM

The multimedia learning system for "*This is English 3*" is specially designed for the first year non-English majors following B. A. programmes of RTVUs. It spans for one semester and takes up 3 academic credits.

The system is intended to facilitate students' self-study at their own pace while more emphasis are placed on their learning process and to improve their overall English language competence through the use of the multimedia.

The system is made up of two parts, i.e. CD-ROM-based learning system and web-based formative assessment system. The learning system has integrated all the existing materials related to the course "*This is English 3*", including the printed coursebook, the CD and the VCD attached to it. It consists of two modules: Learning Units (including 15 common learning units & 3 review and assessment units) and Auxiliary Tool Bar (consisting of Unit Outline, Glossary, Function, Grammar, Fun Time, Online Activity, Help, Staff, etc.). In addition, extra listening and speaking exercises are incorporated into the system in hope that learners will get more opportunities to practice by making good use of the computer technology.

After each time of learning, a record will be automatically generated including the time spent and the marks gained. There is a self-assessment test in each unit, which includes Multiple-Choice (MC) questions for vocabulary, structure, function, reading and writing. For MC questions a record of the time spent and the marks gained can be automatically generated immediately after the student finishes doing them; whereas for the written work, which need to be uploaded and be marked by tutors.

It is worth noting that all the records can be uploaded immediately after each time of learning or can be stored on the computer or a disk first and uploaded to the web-based formative assessment system later. This is an important feature in the design of the learning system because not all the learners have easy access to the computer and the Internet all the time. The idea is that the student can use the learning system offline, and upload their learning record only when they have access to the Internet.

From the description above, it can be easily seen that the CD-ROM-based learning system and the web-based formative assessment system are integrated as a whole as far as the formative assessment is concerned in that the former provides the latter with basic information for formative assessment, whereas the latter provides the former with the platform for formative assessment. Therefore it can be concluded that the two systems make up two necessary parts for web-based formative assessment.

In order to implement the pilot successfully, a well-designed implementation plan for formative assessment is given. Details on how to give marks in the formative assessment are shown as the following in Table 1:

TABLE 1
CRITERIA FOR FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT

Contents for Evaluation		Score Percentage	Criteria for Evaluation
Learning Time of Common Units (15%)	Units 1-5 Units 7-11 Units 13-17	15%	It focuses on checking students' learning time. Students are required to study each unit at least 30 minutes. Then 1 score will be given automatically for a common unit if the learning time is over 30 minutes for each.
Common Units Composition (15%)	Units 1-5 Units 7-11 Units 13-17	15%	It checks students' writing practice. It is optional for students to choose 3 topics to write from 15 common units and submit their works to their tutors. Each writing accounts for 5%, totally 15%. And the marks will be scored directly by the tutors on the CCRTVU Formative Assessment Platform.
Review and Assessment Units (60%)	Unit 6	20%	It checks students' self-assessment. Each unit test accounts for 20%, totally 60%. In each test 85% are MC questions and the other 15% writing will be scored by the tutors on the platform.
	Unit 12	20%	
	Unit 18	20%	
Performance (10%)	Tutorial & Autonomous study	10%	It checks students' overall performance in the tutorials and autonomous study of the course. It accounts for 10% and will be scored by their tutors on the platform.

The formative assessment part takes up 50% of the whole course mark. As required according to the rule that if the formative assessment score accounts for more than 30% of the total course mark, students taking part in the pilot need to earn a score at least 60 in order to take the web-based final exam at the end of the semester.

In addition, requirements concerned with facilities, personnel and financial support for the formative assessment have

to be met to ensure the successful running of the system.

V. THE MULTIMEDIA LEARNING SYSTEM IN USE

A. Results of the Formative Assessment

The multimedia learning system had been piloted since 2009 at YNTVU. At first, it is optional for all the study centers to participate in this pilot project and so there were few students registered to study using the learning system each semester, and students enrolled in the course study for the web-based formative assessment were mainly from the central towns and cities where technology is more accessible and applicable.

To ensure students' learning process and improve their English competence, all B. A. programmes students are required to register and study the course *English II (1)* using the learning system since 2010 at YNTVU. It is expected that students will get accustomed to the online learning and get familiar with the web-based exam. By doing so, it might facilitate students to pass College English Test (Level B), a required National Exam for the ODL learners. As a result, there are more and more students registered this course, but still few students upload their exercises and take part in the web-based final term examination. So, a thorough analysis of the course registration and pilot implementation is badly needed. The following Table 2 shows the overall situation of students' registration for the course and their accomplishment in using the learning system during the Spring Semester of 2011 at YNTVU.

TABLE 2
AN ANALYSIS ON FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT RESULTS

Study Center	Registered Toll	Pass Toll	Pass Rate	Average Score	Standard Deviation
Baoshan Branch TVU	115	102	88.7%	85.5	7.2
Baoshan Changning	93	65	69.9%	88.4	11.5
Baoshan Shidian	13	12	92.3%	66.6	5.2
Chuxiong Branch TVU	10	2	20.0%	76.5	14.8
Chuxiong Mouding	7	7	100.0%	85.2	4.3
Chuxiong Nanhua	5	0	0.0%		
Dali Branch TVU	48	37	77.1%	69.9	6
Honghe County	67	61	91.0%	85.7	1.4
Honghe Jinping	6	0	0.0%		
Honghe Luchun	54	48	88.9%	83.3	11.1
Honghe Mengzi	5	0	0.0%		
Kunming Fumin	30	30	100.0%	65.6	3.5
Kunming Branch TVU	1	1	100.0%	90.2	
Kunming Labor Union Branch TVU	12	12	100.0%	81.5	9
Lincang Branch TVU	31	6	19.4%	76.3	8
Qujing Branch TVU	12	9	75.0%	83.2	11.6
Qujing Economy Cadre Secondary School	62	0	0.0%		
Qujing Qilin	16	10	62.5%	70.6	4.3
Lincang Gengma	3	3	100.0%	83	8.4
Zhaotong Ludian	43	43	100.0%	97.6	2.1
Central School attached to YNTVU	142	84	59.2%	86.2	11
Lincang Yongde	16	5	31.3%	80.7	10.8
Lincang Yunxian	25	8	32.0%	77.2	10.4
Zhaotong Zhenxiong	11	0	0.0%		
Lincang Cangyuan	6	0	0.0%		
Simao Branch TVU	47	19	40.4%	71.6	6.9
Simao Mojiang	1	1	100.0%	74.9	
Wenshan Nationality Cadre Secondary School	29	16	57.1%	79.8	7.3
Wenshan Branch TVU	15	15	100.0%	72.8	3.2
Wenshan Guangnan	1	0	0.0%		
Wenshan Qiubei	21	0	0.0%		
Xishuangbanna Branch TVU	93	85	91.4%	72.5	7.7
Qujing Xuanwei	30	30	100.0%	70.9	4.6
Yunnan Politics & Law College Branch TVU	5	2	40.0%	74.2	13
Total	**1075**	**713**	**66.30%**	**78.84**	**3.62**

As shown in Table 2, there are 1075 students registered the course of *English II (1)* during the spring semester of 2011 whereas only 713 students submitted their assignments via the formative assessment system and passed the formative assessment with an average score of 78.84. Among those students registered the course, one third of students did not submit their study record to the formative assessment platform at all. And the reasons for explanation need to be further explored. Hopefully, it seems all those completed their assignments achieved much in their language

competence.

B.   Results of the Web-based Summative Assessment

Students participated the pilot project are asked to take the web-based summative assessment at the end of a study term, in which the test paper are mainly based on the exercise items in the learning system. Thus, it is expected that those had a good learning record for formative assessment are supposed to get higher marks in the final exam. It is optional for students to choose the summative assessment from web-based and paper-based type. There are only 142 students choosing to take the web-based summative assessment, which is held in certain computer rooms by two invigilators and the exam papers are automatically generated, while the rest students choose to take paper exam in the classroom due to different reasons.

TABLE 3
AN ANALYSIS ON THE WEB-BASED SUMMATIVE ASSESSMENT RESULTS

Course Code	Course Name	Exam Absence Toll	Exam Toll	Pass Toll	Pass Rate	Average Score	Standard Deviation
1844	*English II (1)*	33	142	126	89%	78.09	17.59

According to Table 3, it is obvious that most students can pass the final exam with a high score. The pass rate is much higher in comparison with the formative assessment. Although the standard deviation is a little bit high but still acceptable since our students are adult learners, whose background and prior knowledge of English is sharply different from each other. It also shows that many a few students were absent for the web-based final exam, probably they are afraid of the technology-driven exam or have other unknown difficulties attending the exam, which also needs further exploration.

C.   Results of the College English Test (Level B)

It is also hypothesised that the pilot project might facilitate students to get accustomed to the online learning, the web-based exam and so as to pass the College English Test (Level B), a required National Exam organized by the Ministry of Education for the ODL learners in China. It is sure that student's learning process are ensured and enforced to some extent by conducting the web-based formative assessment for more than a year, as a result, the students' passing rate has been sharply increasing in constrast to the previous testing results. The data of Table 4 clearly shows us the test results and the improvement in narrowing the ratio gap between YNTVU and the total passing rate nationwide from 2009 to 2011. Therefore, it is obvious that the pilot project is very effective to students' English learning and in raising students' test passing rate as well.

TABLE 4
AN ANALYSIS ON COLLEGE ENGLISH TEST (LEVEL B) RESULTS

Testing Time	Pass Rate of Nationwide	Pass Rate of YNTVU	Exam Toll of YNTVU	Pass Toll of YNTVU	Ratio Gap
Apr. of 2009	55.08%	**41.53%**	1416	588	**-13.55**
Sept. of 2009	59.32%	**42.45%**	1100	467	**-16.87**
Dec. of 2009	55.29%	**42.04%**	666	280	**-13.25**
Apr. of 2010	62.42%	**49.88%**	834	416	**-12.54**
Sept. of 2010	61.50%	**50.65%**	999	506	**-10.85**
Dec. of 2010	61.25%	**50.99%**	502	256	**-10.26**
Apr. of 2011	71.9%	**55.3%**	727	402	-16.6
Sept. of 2011	69.55%	**63.09%**	932	588	-6.46
Dec. of 2011	70.3%	**64.55%**	567	366	-5.75

(Data retrieved from the Academic Affairs Office of YNTVU)

D.   Results of Interview

Interviews were carried out to 10 randomly chosen tutors and 50 students focused on the two research questions stated before at the end of the term. The data obtained from these are very valuable since they are from the end users of the system.

1. Feedback from the tutors. Different tutors describe the advantages of the system from different perspectives, over 80% of the tutors interviewed think that the multimedia learning system is good for improving students' learning autonomy, helpful in directing students to pay more attention to the learning process and that the system makes it easy for tutors to monitor students' learning progress and remind students to finish their tasks in time. Around 60% of the tutors think that the system is good for increasing students' interest in learning English, practical and effective in helping students with their learning and the system helps tutors to be better prepared for tutorials according to students' needs.

At the same time, 75.3% of the tutors think that the system is unsuitable for those students who can not easily get access to computers or the Internet; 88.8% of the tutors think that the system has the disadvantage of increasing tutors' workload. Further, most of the tutors (over 80%) think that frequent occurrence of technological problems give them the greatest difficulty; 61.8% of the tutors think that their students have poor command of computer skills; 51.2% of the

tutors think that they have difficulty in coordinating with the other departments concerned and that they are unable to guarantee all the students have access to computers and the Internet.

2. Feedback from the students. First, 82.3% of the students interviewed would agree that the multimedia learning system is good for improving their learning autonomy; 68.4% of the students think that the system is convenient for them to make arrangements about what to learn and when to learn according to their own situation; 54% of the students think that the system is good for increasing their interest in learning English; 52.7% of the students think that the system is helpful in improving their overall language competence.

Second, 78.2% of the students think that the system is unsuitable for those students with difficult access to computers and the Internet; 61.9% of the students think that they are unable to get immediate help when coming across questions while learning by themselves; 42.6% of the students think that the system content is not as comprehensible as the explanations given by tutors in tutorials.

Third, nearly 80% of the students think that they do not have enough time for study; 57.1% of the students do not have computers for frequent use; 32.4% of the students are unable to upload their learning record successfully; 31.6% of the students are not very good at computers; 31.4% of the students don't think that they have the qualities required by web-based learning, such as the ability to manage time and learn by oneself; 48.3% of the students have no access to the Internet; 36.1% of the students are unfamiliar with the use of the system.

VI. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Strengths of Web-based Formative Assessment

The participants made a long list of the advantages of using the multimedia learning system for formative assessment in their interview responses. Most of the tutors and students would agree that the system has many advantages in that it can help improve students' autonomy in learning; it can help tutors monitor students' learning process and students focus more of their attention on the learning process rather than merely on the final exam; it can help students develop their overall language competence, especially their listening, vocabulary and grammar etc.; it is easy for students to study at their own pace. These advantages of the system are very important for ODL students, who study most of the time by themselves. Also, due to these advantages, most of the tutors think it is necessary to use the system.

As for whether it is feasible to use the system in all the RTVUs, most of the tutors suggest that the system should be used by those RTVUs who have the infrastructure needed for the system. However, there are many factors which have to be considered if the system is to be used throughout all study centers in Yunnan province, an underdeveloped frontier area with diversified national cultures, various physical and economic obstacles as well. This paper will mainly look at the factors concerning the two major groups of users, i.e. the tutors and the students.

B. Constraints of Web-based Formative Assessment in Yunnan

1. Factors concerning tutors
a. Tutors' pressure in giving tutorials. Interestingly 86.5% of the tutors would not agree that the system help reduce their pressure in giving tutorials. Besides, students' different pace of learning, which although is a desirable feature of the system for students, might also increase the difficulty for tutors to decide on the focus of their tutorials.

Tutors' pressure might also rise from the use of the system, which is in fact a very demanding task, for tutors have to have a very good command of computer skills in addition to their command of English and teaching techniques, which are the two basic requirements of traditional way of teaching. Otherwise it would be very difficult for them to give students tutorials. This actually also increases tutors' workload as discussed below.

b. Tutors' workload. It is not surprising that nearly 90% of the tutors think that the use of the system has increased their workload and it is really troublesome. To guarantee the successful use of the system, tutors have many new responsibilities added to their old ones required by traditional ways of teaching, such as training students to use the system; providing those students with access to computers and the Internet; urging students to keep their pace of learning by the use of telephone, emails and mobile messages and offering students online help.

Understandably, only 30% of the tutors are able to provide frequent online help to students, for this is a very time-consuming and demanding job. In addition, tutors have to mark students' written assignments uploaded to them, get online to check students' learning process.

In addition, inadequate support from certain local study centers make tutors' workload and pressure even greater, as mentioned by one of the tutors. Therefore, it might be better if local study centers could pay more attention to the use of the system and make a fairly clear division of labour. In this way, the smooth cooperation among different staff will hopefully decrease tutors' workload, thus enabling them to devote more of their attention, time and energy to their teaching.

It is also worth noting that most of the tutors are part-time and are unable to devote too much of their time and energy to their part-time job. Although for students the more time and energy tutors devote to their teaching, the better, it is hard to require all the tutors especially the part-time ones to do so. It is advisable to quantify tutors' new responsibilities, on the basis of which their payment should be matched. Hopefully this will encourage tutors' greater devotion.

2. Factors concerning students
a. Mode of learning. Since most of the students used to study following traditional mode of learning, i.e., sitting in

the classroom listening to lectures, they do not feel safe and comfortable with the new learning mode, that is, learning mainly by themselves through the multimedia learning system. In addition, "adults prefer face-to-face learning rather than learning through the use of video or audio communications" (Stroot et al, 1998). Therefore, many students expressed their hopes to have more tutorials.

This is really a dilemma for all the learning resources are integrated into the system by making use of multi-media in hope that all the students can learn by themselves at their own pace through the system wherever they are. This is very important, for in some remote areas, students meet only once a semester for a short period of time for intensive tutorials. Even worse, when tutorials are provided, only few students attend the classes, which is really irritating and disappointing for the tutors.

As a result, students have to learn most of the time on their own. However, some students prefer learning through tutorials to that by themselves through the multimedia learning system. This is undesirable as Wenden (1991) argues that two key attitudes underlie learner autonomy: firstly, learners' attitudes towards their own role in learning and secondly, their attitudes towards their ability to learn and take responsibility for learning. Therefore, before the system is introduced, effort should be made to change students' attitudes towards their own role in learning. Besides tutors should also teach students how to learn and guide students to take responsibility for their own learning.

It is worth mentioning that the system is not intended to replace tutors. On the contrary, tutors play a very important role in the use of the system, as mentioned previously. However, most of the study centers do not have enough staff members, not to speak of highly-qualified tutors to offer adequate tutorials. Therefore, the system is developed partly in an attempt to find suitable ways to remedy this situation.

b. Overall language competence. Nearly half of the students do not think that the system is helpful in improving their overall language ability. Speaking and writing, the two language productive skills, which either requires immediate response from the listener or the feedback from the tutor are always difficult to practice online unless one-on-one online help can be provided to each of the students. But this is very impractical since someone must be online all the time to offer help at the time of students' learning. For most study centers, tutors are part-time ones with other responsibilities or employed from other traditional universities. It is nearly impossible to require them to be online all the time. Besides, most of the students do not have easy access to the Internet. This means that they can only speak and write to the computer, which might make some students feel uncomfortable and unsafe without getting immediate response or feedback from a real person.

c. Time management. Nearly 80% of the students think the major difficulty they have with the system is that they do not have enough time for self-study. All the tasks in each unit are supposed to be finished within three hours according to the designers. Note that this does not include the time for occasional occurrence of technical problems. Therefore, it usually takes students more than three hours to finish each unit if they are not very familiar with the system. However, since most of the students are working adults, who have many roles to play (For example, they have family to take care of; they have work to do, they have social activity to take part in.), the time they have for study is very limited and as non-English majors, the time left for English is even less. Many students think that for their limited time, there are too many tasks for each unit. Besides, students' feeling about the inadequacy of time also comes from the use of the system. They respond that sometimes it is really time-consuming and troublesome to upload their learning record due to different reasons.

The tentative solution to this might be combining study on the computers with study through various resources for the course, such as the coursebook, CD, etc. The dependence of the system on computers and the Internet make students unable to make use of their scattered free time, such as the time for travel from and to work, the time for housework, etc. Therefore, it is advisable to make some tasks in the system compulsory and some optional and in addition, leave students some assignments to do by using the coursebook, CDs and other portable resources.

As for how to make the formative assessment system work and be reliable, we may just base the essential and compulsory part of the formative assessment on the easy-traced online study and meanwhile allow some alternative ways conducted offline. However, this needs to be further explored.

d. Technical problems. Students have many problems with the system as far as computers are concerned. They are as follows:

i) Poor command of computer skills. Some of the students see the system as a means to improve their computer skills. However, others might see their poor command of computer skills as the greatest obstacle to learning English through the system, especially those elderly ones. To solve this problem, sufficient training should be offered to students to guarantee that each of them can use the system without much difficulty.

ii) Difficult access to computers. 57.1% of the students do not have easy access to computers. The computers they use are provided by their study centers. Since the number of computers is limited and net speed is not very fast sometimes, some students do not feel they are given enough time online. Further, most students are working far from the study centers so that it is really not easy for them to get access to computers, let alone the Internet.

iii) Difficult access to the Internet. Nearly 60% of the students do not have easy access to the Internet. Although net cafes are very common in most places of China, they might not necessarily have the computers meeting the requirements of the system. The above two problems can only be addressed by setting up more multi-media classrooms at study centers to offer students easier access to computers and the Internet. However, this requires an investment of

extra amount of money, which relies a great deal on the managers of the study centre.

iv) Difficulty in uploading learning record and assignments. Due to various reasons, many students have unsuccessful experience in uploading their learning record and assignments. The main cause for this situation is that all the students are required to upload their learning record and assignments to the network in CRTVU. This makes the path very crowded. One possible solution is to establish a platform in each RTVU at provincial level, to which students can upload their documents, and at the same time it is easier to upload the learning record with help from the local RTVUs, if called for. However, this requires further discussion and exploration.

VII. CONCLUSION

Based on the feedback from the tutors and student users, it can be concluded that the multimedia learning system for "*This is English 3*" has achieved its goals, i.e. facilitating students' self-study at their own pace while more emphasis are placed on their learning process and to improve their overall English language competence through the use of the multimedia. Besides, web-based formative assessments have many advantages as compared to traditional paper-based ones; therefore, it is worth and feasible trying to use it on a large scale. It suits the need of adult learners and it can help achieve the aims of a course. However, there are many factors to be considered while introducing web-based formative assessment to all study centers in Yunnan. They are as follows:

a. Students' attitudes towards self-study;
b. Students' access to computers and the Internet;
c. Timeliness of feedback to students;
d. Tutors' and students' command of computer skills;
e. Tutors' workload;
f. Tutors' pressure in tutorials…etc.

To solve the problems described above, we put forward a number of suggestions. Most of all, adequate training should be provided to the participants who are poor at using a computer before the learning system is introduced. Further, to ensure the successful use of the system, at least a multimedia classroom with Internet access should be available at each study centre for students' use, for not all the students have access to computers at home, not to speak of the Internet. In addition, all the extra time and efforts invested by the staff members involved in the application of the system should be taken into consideration in terms of the new type of workload.

Although there are many constraints in conducting the formative assessment in open and distance education, we believe teaching quality can be improved and ensured by the implementation of web-based formative assessment, the integration design of formative assessment and final examination, and the ensurance of learning process. The difficulties students encountered in the formative assessment are the ability of individual learning, the skill of computer application, the independence of course-selecting and communication of their emotion. Given that student support concerning enrollment education, technical support, learning process management, learning strategies, emotional factors and learning cooperation are promoted and well-served, all these problems can be solved.

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Jingzheng Wang was born in Jingdong, Yunnan, China in 1970. He received his B.A. degree in English Language & Literature from Yunnan Normal University, Kunming in 1995 and M.E. degree from Hong Kong Open University, China in 2004.

He is currently an associate professor in the School of International Exchange, Yunnan Open University, Kunming, China. His research interests include ELT for distance learners and comparative study on distance education.

Mr. Wang is a member of the Yunnan Association of Foreign Language Teachers.

Yuanbing Duan was born in Yuanyang, Yunnan, China in 1978. She received her M.A. degree in English Language & Literature from Yunnan Normal University, Kunming, China in 2006 and now she is a PhD candidate in Shanghai International Studies University, China.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of International Exchange, Yunnan Open University, Kunming, China. Her research interests include Pragmatics and English Teaching Methodology.

L2 Teachers' Reasons and Perceptions for Using or Not Using Computer Mediated Communication Tools in Their Classroom

Bahador Sadeghi (Corresponding Author)
Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, PO box 19585-466, Takestan, Iran.

Ramin Rahmany
Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Takestan, Iran

Eskandar Doosti
Department of English, Islamic Azad University, Takestan Branch, Takestan, Iran

Abstract—This study is an effort to explore Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions about integrating Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) tools in teaching and learning English and reasons they choose or avoid utilizing such tools in the classroom. 100 male and female English teachers with BA, MA, or PhD degree participated in this survey. A questionnaire was used for the purpose of the study. The findings reveal that the majority of teachers were positive towards computer mediated teaching. They asserted that CMC tools are time, energy, and money saving; interesting for the students; reduces cultural barriers by facilitating exposure to the authentic materials; enables teachers to encourage students beyond the limit of time and space; and enables learners to learn at their own pace. The results of the correlational analysis shows that the better teachers were at working with computers the more they showed positive attitudes towards applying technology in their teaching practice.

Index Terms—CMC (Computer Mediated Communication), synchronous and asynchronous communication, teacher belief, teacher perception

I. INTRODUCTION

The utilization of technology in language learning and teaching has increased rapidly all over the world and teachers today frequently employ and explore new trends to facilitate teaching. Since the introduction of multimedia technology into education many studies that investigated the integration of technology and education and its influence on language teaching and learning have confirmed the advantages of using technology for pedagogical purposes and its positive impact on learning processes in different settings and contexts (Frigaard, 2002; Schofield & Davidson, 2003; Miner, 2004; Timucin, 2006) and share a common finding related to the effectiveness of technology-enhanced education and its usefulness in developing teaching methods (Wong 2004; Miner, 2004; Brodskaya & Thiele, 2004; Timucin 2006; Eugene, 2006; Hixon, 2008).

Technology has now equipped language learners with opportunities to learn in ways that was not possible before. New technologies have considerably changed global communication. The technologies have changed how people communicate and also influenced how they learn. The Internet, which transcends international boundaries, allows people to communicate with audiences far away. It also allows users around the globe to join one big learning environment. E-mail, a computer-mediated communication (CMC) technology that relies on the Internet, has become a common and inexpensive way to communicate and learn at a distance. Many scholars have addressed the topics of CMC (Leh, 1999). With the introduction of Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) tools like chat rooms and discussion forums to language learning and teaching, learners find themselves in front of an open door to the real world target language setting and authentic social interaction in which they find the opportunity to have a better command over their own learning experience (Lam & Lawrence, 2002).

As international communication increases in the movement towards globalization, the demand for communicative competence in English is increasing more and more in many countries of the world including Iran. Teaching English in Iranian schools fails to develop English proficiency for communication. The deficiency of communicative competence in English appears to result from the lack of interpersonal interaction in English as a foreign language (EFL) learning context where English is not used as a means of communication. It is considered very important for L2 teachers to construct an interactive learning environment in which learners can associate with each other in the target language and negotiate meaning through interaction. However, this kind of language interaction rarely appears in the Iranian EFL context. Especially, the classrooms have suffered severely from large sizes and limited opportunities for authentic language interaction, which is said to be necessary for language acquisition. In foreign language situations, it is very

difficult to have exposure to the target language outside of the classroom. Introducing Computer Mediated Communication (CMC), "communication that takes place between human beings via the instrumentality of computers" (Herring, 1996), into language teaching and learning allows foreign language learners, specifically in an Iranian EFL environment where learners' accessibility to use the target language is very limited, to be greatly exposed to the target language (Blake, 2000; Leh, 1999; Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

The goal of integrating CMC into language learning is to expose learners to as much language input as possible and motivate them to be more autonomous to the learning. Although language teachers are no longer the center of language classrooms, to maximize the efficiency of CMC in language learning, teachers should carefully consider issues of how to design learning tasks, monitor learners' learning, and evaluate their language progress (Robertson, 2003, as cited in Larsari, 2011). The literature and previous research in this area suggests that CMC equipped teaching can provide language learners with strong motivation, equal participation and an increase of their target language production (Kelm, 1992; Beauvois, 1992; Kern, 1995; Chun, 1998). In addition, it is suggested that synchronous CMC can facilitate the development of socio-linguistic and interactive competence (Kern, 1995; Chun, 1998). However, the foreign language teaching-learning process is an extremely complicated and multifaceted matter. Teachers bring into the classroom their own views of the target language, language tasks, teaching methods and techniques, and the teacher-learner power relationship. Teachers' perceptions play an important role in their actual practices while teaching target language and choosing instructional methods (Staub & Stern, 2002).

Williams and Burden (1997) argue that teachers are highly influenced by their beliefs. Teachers' beliefs is an extremely complicated phenomenon which involves various aspects, such as beliefs about the nature of language itself, language learning and teaching, learners, teachers, and the teacher-learner power relationship. Such beliefs definitely influence teachers' approaches to EFL teaching and their instructional choices and teaching activities.

A. Statement of the Problem

Iranian English language classrooms suffer from limited opportunities for authentic language interaction, which is said to be necessary for language acquisition. In foreign language settings that the exposure to the target language is very difficult, CMC can provide the learners with more opportunities to engage in authentic and genuine communication that is characterized by "the uneven distribution of information, the negotiation of meaning through clarification requests and confirmation checks, topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not" (Nunan, 1987: 137). However, recent studies point to the teacher as the main factor in utilizing technology in classroom amongst the organizational and environmental barriers and factors (Schofield, 1995; Becker & Ravitz, 2001; Cuban *et al*., 2001; Windschitl & Sahl, 2002; Conlon & Simpson, 2003). Teachers' beliefs and perceptions define their actual practices while teaching target language and employing instructional methods (Staub & Stern, 2002). Teachers' beliefs and perceptions about using CMC tools and integrating such tools into classroom activities is a deceive factor in their actual practice of computer mediated teaching. Their views about what tools, methods, and techniques can be employed, how significant and necessary are such tools, which is the best tool and method, how much time should be spent on computer mediated activities compared to other types of activities, what are the difficulties of such method, and what activities are more appropriate for computer mediated teaching can improve our understanding of Iranian teachers' perceptions and reasons for using or not using CMC tools in the classroom and help us find out how these beliefs and perceptions affect their Instructional decisions and practices.

B. Objectives of the Study

This study's aim is to explore Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions about integrating Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) tools in teaching and learning English and reasons they choose or avoid utilizing such tools in the classroom. It will also investigate the teachers' beliefs about computer mediated teaching because as argued by Borg (2003) and Richards, Gallo and Renandya (2001) teacher cognition is shaped by teachers' prior experiences, school practices, educational theory, reading, and individual factors. Individual, organizational, and educational factors can play a role in shaping teachers' beliefs; however, there is not much known about the extent of it.

C. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study tries to answer the following questions:
RQ1: What are the attitudes and positions of teachers towards computer mediated teaching?
RQ2: For what practical reasons do teachers choose, or avoid, implementing CMC tools?

D. Significance of the Study

In the Iranian EFL context, in which learners don't have much contact with native speakers of English, the focus of language teaching has been placed on changing the classroom practice from the traditional passive lecture to more active computer mediated teaching and learning so that learners can be more easily exposed to target language use. Language institutes have had an increasing amount of interest in using computer mediated teaching as an instructional method, chiefly because they believe CMC tools has specific benefits for increasing learners' communication skills, interaction and their exposure to the target language. In this respect, exploring teachers' perceptions of CMC-based

language instruction is of a great importance. Teaching a foreign language is a demanding task and considerable amount of attention should be paid to the teaching process. Hence, perceptions, beliefs and views of language teachers which greatly influence such process, should be carefully taken into consideration.

This research will show how CMC is perceived to be utilized in education. This will provide insights for syllabus designers to design and implement a more efficient teaching method that increases target language exposure during the limited teaching hours. It will also contribute to assist EFL teachers with their practical use of technology in the classroom. Thus, it is believed that the results of this study will have implications for syllabus and material design and classroom practice. Once curriculum developers and syllabus designers come to know how teachers perceive CMC-based language instruction, they can "if necessary," take into consideration those perceptions and plan alternative materials and activities in their syllabi to make language learning-teaching process a more effective and enjoyable one. Despite the concerns with implementation and the major barriers to use such as maintenance by technical staff, time consuming training and so on today computer technology is a crucial tool in school environment. Since it motivates students and encourages them to explore and to learn in a way previously unavailable to them. Technology may be one means by which doubtful teachers may develop positive beliefs about its role as a tool for learning when it is integrated into the curriculum, rather than merely added to it. Teachers need to believe that they can successfully put into practice the innovation within their own context; They also need to be convinced of the value of technology as a tool to supplement and improve classroom practice. Teachers who believe that they have the skills to implement computers successfully and who valued the outcomes associated with integration were more likely to be at the high end of the "technology user" spectrum.(Wozney, Venkatesh, and Abrami, 2006). Researchers and staff developers have suggested numerous and different factors that may influence the degree to which teachers implement and keep on in the implementation of educational innovations in general. These include personal and demographic factors related to teachers, the quality of professional development offered to teachers, the extent to which administrative and curricular support is available to teachers, as well as the quality of teacher access to computer resources (Wozney, Venkatesh, and Abrami, 2006).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Teachers' Beliefs and Perceptions

Teachers bring with them beliefs about teaching which effects their use of technology in the classroom. Beliefs about teaching are referred to as "preferred ways of teaching" by teachers. (Teo, Chai, Hung, Lee, 2008). According to Pajares (1992) the difficulty in exploring the teachers' beliefs lies in the multitude of definitions of beliefs .In order to understand, it is important to clearly define and understand what is meant by belief. Despite this diversity there is an agreement on some characteristics of teacher beliefs. Belief is a construct that name, define, and describe the structure and content of mental states that are thought to drive a person's actions (Zheng, 2009). Most of the teachers' professional knowledge can be regarded more accurately as a belief. Beliefs vary in strength and kind; the ease with which teachers can change their beliefs is related to the strength of the particular beliefs under scrutiny (Block & Hazelip, 1995). Understanding teachers' beliefs requires making inferences based on what teachers say, intend, and do. Indeed, teachers' beliefs represents a complex concept internally associated with their attitudes, expectations and personal experience. Beliefs and attitudes are key factors in whether teachers accept computer as a teaching tool in their teaching practices or not. Teachers who believe that they have the skills to implement computers successfully and who valued the outcomes associated with integration were more likely to be at the high end of the "technology user" spectrum. To maximize the implementation of educational innovations, our findings suggest that professional development must attend to the enhancement of teachers' expectations of success. Teachers need to believe that they can successfully implement the innovation within their own context; if not, they may neither take the initial risk nor continue to persevere in implementing it. This suggests that it may be useful, but not sufficient, to show teachers how successful others have been with technology applications and to create communities of practitioners providing mutual support. Teachers also need to be convinced of the value of technology as a tool to supplement and improve classroom practice. Technology, which is well integrated into the curriculum, rather than merely added to it, may be one means by which skeptical teachers may develop positive beliefs about the role of technology as a tool for learning. (Wozney, Venkatesh, & Abrami 2006)

B. Computer-mediated Communication (CMC)

According to Romiszowski and Mason (2004) a working definition of computer-mediated communication is "communication between different parties separated in space and/or time, mediated by interconnected computers." A definition of CMC that, pragmatically and with regards to the rapidly changing nature of communication technologies describes it as "the process by which people create, exchange, and perceive information using networked telecommunications systems that facilitate encoding, transmitting, and decoding messages" (December, 1996). Computer mediated communication (CMC) involves exchanges of information in textual, audio, and/or video formats that are transmitted and controlled by the use of computer and telecommunication technology. (Bubas, 2001). Computer-mediated communication (CMC) is a process in which human data interaction occurs through one or more networked telecommunication systems. A CMC interaction occurs through various types of networking technology and

software, including email, Internet Relay Chat (IRC), instant messaging (IM), Usenet and mailing list servers.CMC technology saves time and money in IT organizations by facilitating the use of all communication formats.

C. Advantages of Using CMC

There are several reasons why technology might be important. These rationales related to social and economic interests, such as reducing the costs of education, supporting the computer industry, preparing students for work and for living in a society permeated with technology, and making the school more attractive to its potential clients.(Zaidiyeen, Mei, and Fook, 2010).

According to Chen (2005) the integration of Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) into EFL learning can increase both input (exposure) and output (use) of the target language that is needed for learners to promote both their linguistic and pragmatic competence. CMC can facilitate the development of socio-linguistic and interactive competence (Kern, 1995; Chun, 1998). Based on a study done by Drenoyianni and Selwood (1998) a great number of teachers declared that computer use encourages collaborative learning, individualized learning, motivates pupils, and serves as an aid in presenting new concepts, information, problems and situations as well as improving basic skills and concepts. The most important academic goal is developing learning strategies and problem solving abilities which is followed by the goal of developing basic skills and concepts, and developing of social skills. Warschauer (1995) claims that using computer-mediated communication in electronic communication facilitates communication, gives students a sense of achievement, empowers students and enhances learning. According to Razak and Asmawi (2004) the benefits of CMC are: a. Facilitates Communication b. Empowers Students c. Enhances Learning.

The integration of technology in the process of teaching and learning is thought by many researchers to increase student and teacher productivity as well as to make vast amounts of information available. Bena and James (2001) claim that there are three reasons for investing in technology:

1) to increase students ability and interest in applying authentic settings, what district and states have identified as learning and tasks that students should know and able to do.

2) to prepare students for success in a technology centered world of work, and

3) to prepare students to manage and use information so they can be productive life long learners and responsible citizens.

One of the issues of application of CMC is in helping the students acquire academic literacy and gain access to their disciplinary discourse communities via their performance in academic writing tasks (Cheng, 2007). Computer-mediated communication (CMC) allows interactions among geographically separated students, who can communicate and learn through dialogue exchanged on the Internet. Small-group discussion in the classroom can be replaced by transmitting messages via networked computers (Lo, 2009). Computer conferencing and electronic mail lies in their capabilities to support conversation and collaboration. Groups can work together to solve problems, argue about interpretations, negotiate meaning, engage in other educational activities including coaching, modeling, and scaffolding of performance. (Jonassen,et al. 1995). According to Nguyen (2008) motivation, active learning, reflective learning, learner autonomy, and collaborative learning are pedagogical benefits of CMC

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design of the Study

This study is an experimental effort to investigate Iranian language teachers' and learners' perceptions of the utilizations of Computer Mediated Communication tools in classroom. Randomly selected teachers participate in the research and answer the questionnaires. Finally, the data will be collected and analyzed.

B. Participants

In this study a total of 100 male and female English teachers participated in this survey. Academic qualification of the teachers ranges from BA to MA to PhD; they are between 22-50 years old, and the number of years they had taught English varies, ranging from less than 2 years, and more than 10 years.

C. Instruments

To conduct the present study, the questionnaire will be devised to measure Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions of CMC tools in classroom setting. The questionnaire will be composed of some Likert-scale items and two open-ended items, and it will come in four sections. The first section contains demographic questions in order to gain information about the teacher's academic qualification, gender, age, and teaching experience. The second section is related to teachers' positions on classroom practice of computer mediated teaching. In this section, teachers will be asked to answer each question using a five-point scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. Finally, in the third section, teachers will be asked to rate their own reasons for choosing or avoiding the implementation of CMC tools, with reference to a few qualitative statements. To ensure the validity of the questionnaires and the appropriateness and comprehensibility of the questionnaire items, some experts in the field will be consulted. Moreover, the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) of instruments will be estimated. All of the reliability coefficients are expected to be high enough to enable the researchers to conduct statistical analysis of the entire questionnaires. The reliability of the

questionnaire was tested using *Cronbach's alpha. Table 1 shows the result of the reliability test.* The Cronbach's alpha of the questionnaire was 0.71 that indicates a relevantly high consistency of the questions, therefore a reliable measure.

TABLE 1.
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.710	35

D. Procedures

In order to carry out the present study, the researcher is going to design a questionnaire to collect data on how language teachers perceive computer mediated teaching. At first, the participants were informed about the purpose of the study. Also, to remove anxiety, it was explained that their answers would not influence their grades. Then, the necessary information about the questionnaires was given. At last, the questionnaires were distributed among the participants in one session

E. Data Analysis

After distributing the questionnaires among the English language teachers and collecting the required data. The data analysis process consists of two methodologies, Likert-type and open-ended item analysis. For the Likert-type items the answers will be tabulated and the frequency of the answers will be counted. A non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test will be run to compare the beliefs of teachers with different academic qualifications and computer expertise level. SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used to analyze the data in this part. For the open-ended question the answers will be surveyed and the most repeated patterns will be revealed.

IV. RESULTS

In the next part of this chapter the reliability of the questionnaire is tested and the result is reported. Following that, the results of the analysis of the attitudes and positions of teachers towards using computer in their classrooms are presented. The next part shows the analyses of different aspects of teachers' views about computer mediated communication (CMC) and the application of CMC tools in teaching practice. And finally in the last part of this chapter the result of the analyses of comparing the positions and believes of teachers with different academic qualification towards and about computer mediated teaching and CMC performance.

A. Addressing the First Research Question

Part two of the questionnaire contained twenty items dealing with this question: *What are the attitudes and positions of teachers towards computer mediated teaching?*

Table 2 indicates the result of the teachers' responses which shows that the majority of the teachers generally agreed with all items that represent positive attitudes towards the use of computers in teaching practice (the mean score for all these items were above 4 that corresponds to 'agree' and 'strongly agree'). This is while those items that discourage the use of computers in classroom and teaching activities elicited disagreement or a neutral position from the participants. However, despite showing interest in applying technology in their classrooms, teachers mostly did not approve a compulsory computer training program.

TABLE 2.
THE RESULTS OF THE TEACHERS' RESPONSES TO SECTION TWO

	N	Sum	Mean
1	100	454	4.54
2	100	448	4.48
3	100	412	4.12
4	100	483	4.83
5	100	437	4.37
6	100	419	4.19
7	100	443	4.43
8	100	285	2.85
9	100	453	4.53
10	100	274	2.74
11	100	437	4.37
12	100	409	4.09
13	100	433	4.33
14	100	434	4.34
15	100	400	4.00
16	100	440	4.40
17	100	285	2.85
18	100	412	4.12
19	100	313	3.13
20	100	296	2.96

B. Addressing the Second Research Question

In this part I will summarize the responses of the participants in part three of the questionnaire. In part three of the questionnaire the participants were asked about their reasons for using or avoiding CMC tools in their teaching practice. The majority of teachers asserted that applying CMC tools in their teaching practice is time and energy saving and sometimes more economic. They suggest that CMC tools make information transfer and communication easier, especially in listening skill. Another positive aspect of CMC tools in teaching language that was broadly accepted by the teachers was the fun part of these tools. Most teachers believed that CMC tools make language lessons more interesting to the students. In addition, they suggested that using internet in teaching can decrease the cultural issues that language learners may face. Some teachers mentioned that CMC tools enable them to keep connection with students and to motivate them to cooperate more both inside and outside the classroom. They also believed that students feel more secure using asynchronous tools like email and discussion threads through which they have additional processing time for critical thinking. On the other hand, a few teachers argued against applying CMC tools in teaching. They suggested that computers may decrease the amount of teacher-student or student-student interactions in the classroom. They also believed that considering learners' needs may be overlooked in an online language teaching class. Moreover, they proposed the possibility that some students may not have the time or may not like such ways of communication.

C. Teachers' Belief and Academic Qualification

To examine the influence of teachers' academic qualification on their perception about computer mediated teaching and computer mediated communication (forth research question) a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was run. The reason for using a non-parametric test was that the distribution of the data population was not normal. Table 3 demonstrates the descriptive results and table 4 shows the results of non-parametric test.

TABLE 3.
THE DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS OF BA, MA, AND PHD TEACHERS' RESPONSES

	Academic_Degree	N	Mean Rank
SUM	BA	50	46.22
	MA	48	52.96
	PhD	2	98.50
	Total	100	

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST WITH THREE INDEPENDENT GROUPS OF BA, MA, AND PHD

	SUM
Chi-Square	6.934
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.031

As Table 4 reveals, there is a statistically significant difference in teachers' beliefs about computer mediated language teaching and CMC depending on which level of academic qualification they have achieved, $\chi^2(2) = 6.934$, $P = 0.031$.

To see which pairs of groups differ significantly I performed post-hoc analysis, comparing groups two by two. Table 5 shows the results of the comparison between BA and MA teachers; table 6 demonstrates the results of the comparison between MA and PhD, and table 7 reports the results of the comparison between BA and PhD teachers.

TABLE 5.
RESULTS OF MANN-WHITNEY TEST WITH TWO INDEPENDENT GROUPS OF BA AND MA

	SUM
Mann-Whitney U	1036.000
Z	-1.168
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.243

TABLE 6.
RESULTS OF MANN-WHITNEY TEST WITH TWO INDEPENDENT GROUPS OF MA AND PHD

	SUM
Mann-Whitney U	2.000
Z	-2.284
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.022
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.007[a]

TABLE 7.
RESULTS OF MANN-WHITNEY TEST WITH TWO INDEPENDENT GROUPS OF BA AND PHD

	SUM
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Z	-2.392
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.017
Exact Sig. [2*(1-tailed Sig.)]	.002[a]

The two groups of BA and MA teachers did not differ significantly with U= 1036, Z = -1.168, p = 0.243. Contrary, MA and PhD teachers differed significantly in their beliefs and conceptions about computer mediated teaching and CMC (U= 2.00, Z = -2.284, p = 0.022). Similar to table 6, table 7 shows that the two groups of BA and PhD teachers differed significantly with U= 0.000, Z = -2.392, p = 0.017. All in all, the analyses shows that while there was not a statistically significant difference between the beliefs of teachers with BA and MA degrees, the two groups differed significantly from PhD teachers.

D. Teachers' Belief and Computer Expertise

To examine how the beliefs and perceptions of teachers about computer mediated teaching (part two of the questionnaire) vary because of differences in their level of computer expertise (fifth research question) a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was run similar to the previous part. Table 8 demonstrates the descriptive results and table 9 represents the results of non-parametric test. Table 8 shows that there is a statistically significant difference in teachers' beliefs depending on their level of computer expertise, χ^2 (3) = 22.932, P = 0.000. Table 9 reveals that as teachers develop their computer skills, they grow more positive attitudes towards applying computers in teaching English language generally (mean rank (expert)= 67.11> mean rank (intermediate)= 52.84> mean rank (novice)=25.47).

TABLE 8.
THE DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS OF NOT EXPERIENCED, NOVICE, INTERMEDIATE, AND EXPERT TEACHERS' RESPONSES

	Sum_Com
Chi-Square	22.932
df	3
Asymp. Sig.	.000

TABLE 9.
RESULTS OF KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST WITH THE FOUR INDEPENDENT GROUP

	Com_Expertise_Level	N	Mean Rank
Sum_Com	Not Experienced	5	28.00
	Novice	16	25.47
	Intermediate	56	52.84
	Expert	23	67.11
	Total	100	

V. DISCUSSION

The findings confirmed that the majority of Iranian EFL teachers show positive attitudes towards the use of computer in their English classroom and find teaching with the aid of computer effective both for the teachers and learners. In fact, it showed those teachers who were highly skilled with computer were more willing to apply computers in their classrooms. This is in line with Bauer and Kenton (2005) who found that teachers, who were proficient with technology, were innovative in using technology in their teaching and managed to overcome barriers. The findings also confirmed Zhao (2007) who, following a qualitative research to investigate the perspectives and experiences of 17 social studies teachers, concluded that most teachers were willing to use technology and expressed positive experiences with technology integration training. Looking through the perspective of Iranian EFL teachers, the study divided the advantages of applying CMC tools to foreign language teaching into five categories: time, energy, and money saving; interesting for the students; reduces cultural barriers by facilitating exposure to the authentic materials; enables teachers to encourage students beyond the limit of time and space; and enables learners to learn at their own pace. These categories are in line with Blake (2001) and Warschauer & Healey (1998) who confirmed that integrating technology appropriately into language classrooms provides access to authentic materials thus greater opportunities for communication and interaction and promotes learner motivation.

In the second part of the study where the aspects of teachers' views about computer mediated communication were investigated the results showed that teachers were comfortable communication with familiar persons through CMC tools, they accepted that CMC messages are social forms of communication and have qualities or characteristics but according to them CMC messages are not informal and casual ways to communicate, something that is not in agreement with Tu's exploratory factor analysis (2002). Again while Tu's (2002) model show that CMC messages convey feeling and emotion, the results of the study shows that the majority of Iranian EFL teachers disagree. These two points of disagreement in the beliefs and perspectives of Iranian EFL teachers seem to a barrier to an optimal application of

online content as an undeniable source of authentic communication. It is also inconsistent with what most teachers have mentioned in response to the third research question about the contribution of CMC to reducing cultural barriers. These contradictions in the beliefs and perceptions of teachers about computer mediated teaching and computer mediated communication may be due to the fact that these concepts are new in the Iranian teaching environment and there has not been any systematic educational program for teachers. There is a need for an organized program for teachers including the introduction of different CMC tools and computer programs as well as guidelines for successful technology integration in language teaching.

The above points were confirmed when we looked at the analyses results of the effect of academic qualification and computer expertise. It revealed that PhD teachers and technologically competent teachers showed more positive attitudes towards applying computers in teaching English language.

For what practical reasons do teachers choose, or avoid, implementing CMC tools?

The answers to the third research question concerning the motives behind the use or avoidance of CMC tools by teachers are summarized below:

Reasons why teachers use CMC tools in teaching	Reasons why teachers avoid using CMC tools in tesching
Time, energy, and money saving (make information transfer and communication easier)	decrease the amount of teacher-student or student-student interactions in the classroom
Interesting and fun for the students	Ignore individual learners' needs
Reduces cultural barriers by providing authentic material	some students may not have the time or may not like such ways of communication
Enable teachers to keep in touch with students and to encourage them inside and outside the classroom	
students feel more secure as they learn language at their own pace and have as much processing time as they wish	

VI. CONCLUSION

In Iranian EFL context, because learners don't have direct contact with native speakers of English, there has been an emphasis on authenticity in language classrooms recently contrary to the traditional lecture for the learners to become more acquainted with the target language in use. As a result, teachers are keener on using computer mediated communication tools, primarily because they believe CMC benefits learners' communication skills and interaction. Online language tasks can be used to arouse learners' motivation for learning a foreign language. These tasks don't just give variety to the language teaching methodology but also make the classroom much more fun and interesting; besides, they can produce a lively atmosphere in the classroom which gives language instruction more creativity.

Generally, the findings of this study manifested the fact that the majority of Iranian EFL teachers have positive attitudes towards computer mediated teaching and using computer mediated communication tools in the classroom however, they did understand CMC concepts and their integration into teaching language deeply. While the results of the questionnaire showed that teachers were unwilling to participate in a computer training program the need for such a program to familiarize the teachers with the newest CMC tools and the optimum way to integrate such tools in teaching different language skills and components was strongly felt.

Implications of the Study

Concerning the results of the study, some notifying suggestions are given to teachers and teacher trainers. First, because teachers' attitudes towards computer mediated teaching highly influence classroom practice, it is necessary for the teachers to have a positive attitude so that it can be successfully used. Although EFL teachers in Iran are not accustomed to a computer mediated language teaching class in the educational system, it does not mean that one should put it aside and follow traditional methods of language teaching. Second, as the attitudes of Iranian EFL teachers to CMC were rather positive in this study, EFL teachers are encouraged to adopt these tools in their classrooms. In this regard, the managers of private English institutes should also do their best to promote computer mediated teaching at their institutes. This involves providing the required tools and equipments and a systematic training program because some teachers know little about applying computer mediated communication tools. That is why they should be given the chance to educate themselves in fields relating to CMC tools and the putting into teaching practice of these tools. For this purpose, computer training programs should properly deal with the strengths and weaknesses of CMC tools as a language teaching tool. Third, lack of confidence is one of the reasons why teachers avoid computer mediated teaching therefore, it should be given consideration to overcome these impediments in the classroom.

APPENDIXES

Appendix A

1. Gender   Male ⬭   Female ⬭
2. You are
   20-25 ⬭   26-35 ⬭   36-45 ⬭   45+ ⬭
3. Estimate of your level of computer expertise.

No experience ◯   Novice ◯   Intermediate ◯   Expert ◯

4. Where do you presently use computer? (Check all that apply)

Home ◯   Computer Lab ◯   Library or Media Center ◯ Classroom ◯   Office ◯

5. What is your highest degree earned?   Bachelor ◯   MA ◯   Ph.D ◯

APPENDIX B

Attitude toward the Use of Computers for Language Teaching

Please check (√) in the box that best reflects your opinion about each of the following statements using this scale:

SA = Strongly Agree   A = Agree   N = Neutral   D = Disagree   SD = Strongly Disagree

No		SA	A	N	D	SD
1	I like to use computers in teaching.					
2	Computers have proved to be effective learning tools.					
3	Computers will *increase* the amount of teacher-student interaction in the classroom.					
4	Computers are a fast means of getting information.					
5	Computers save time and effort.					
6	The use of computers can help improve language learners' communication skills.					
7	The use of computers brings more advantages than disadvantages to language teachers.					
8	Using computers in the language classroom will *not* improve students' attitudes toward language learning.					
9	Teaching language with the aid of computers would make learning *easier* for language learners.					
10	Language teaching is better *without* the use of computers.					
11	Computers will increase the amount of student-student interaction in the class.					
12	Students" motivation increases as a result of using technology in teaching.					
13	Students are more active in computer-aided language lessons.					
14	Using a computer makes language lessons more interesting to the *students*.					
15	Computers can be used as a private tutor.					
16	Technology plays a great role in learning the different language skills.					
17	The use of computers is unrelated to the needs of the school.					
18	Teaching language with the aid of computers makes teaching easier.					
19	A computer training program should be compulsory for every language teacher.					
20	Language teachers can manage without computers, so computers are not really necessary.					

APPENDIX C

1. How many years have you been using the different forms of Computer-Mediated Communication? Which tools / forms do you prefer to use?

2. What's your main purpose for using or avoiding cmc tools ?

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Bahador Sadeghi, an assistant professor of Applied Linguistics holds a doctorate degree in TEFL from the University of Isfahan, Iran. He also holds three MAs in TEFL, English Translation and International Relations from Tehran Islamic Azad University, Isfahan University and Allameh Tabatabaee University respectively.

He has been lecturing different subjects in TEFL, Translation studies, General English and ESP at several universities in Iran for the last nineteen years. He has both published and presented a number of articles in some international journals and conferences.Dr. Sadeghi is the co-author of a book (with Hossein Vahid Dastjerdi, PhD) entitled"An Anthology of Translated Religious & Literary Texts (With a Glossary of Islamic Terms)" and has translated eight other books from English to Persian.

Dr Sadeghi is also a certified translator to the judiciary power in Iran and he has been, as a simultaneous interpreter, actively involved in many national and international seminars, sport events and tourism projects.

Ramin Rahmany is a Ph.D. holder of teaching English as a foreign language from Tehran University, Iran. Currently, he is an assistant professor in Azad University of Takestan, Iran.

His major interests are language and acquisition, computer assisted language learning, and psycholinguistics. He has taught several courses at university like Language methodology and discourse analysis.

He has published several articles in language learning acquisitions e.g. Acquisition of English Relative Clauses by Persian EFL Learners published by Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies in October 2009.

Eskandar Doosti is an MA student in TEFL at Takestan University, Iran. He has been teaching English for more than twenty years in different schools in Sarpole Zohab.

His major interests are language and acquisition, computer assisted language learning, and psycholinguistics. His research interests lie mostly in the realm of EFL.

Using Strategic Writing Techniques for Promoting EFL Writing Skills and Attitudes

Mohamed A. Okasha
English Language Center, Jazan University, Jazan, Saudi Arabia

Sami A. Hamdi
English Language Center, Jazan University, Jazan, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—The aim of the present study is to investigate the effectiveness of the strategic writing techniques for promoting EFL writing skills and changing passive attitudes towards writing into positive ones. The design of this study is pre-post, experimental-control group. The sample of this present study include Preparatory year Program students, Jazan University (N = 70). They were assigned into two groups: the experimental group (N= 35) and the control group (N= 35). The experimental group students were taught using strategic writing techniques, while the control group did not receive any training except the followed method. The instruments of the present study include a writing test and a rubric for correcting it prepared by the researchers and judged by the jury members. The writing test was applied on the study sample before and after the implementation. Results of the study revealed that EFL writing skills and attitudes improved among experimental group students as a result of using strategic writing techniques.

Index Terms—writing skill, attitude, EFL, strategic writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Struggling writers are facing writing problems. These problems are strategic that need strategic writing techniques to be solved. Students with writing problems are not very thoughtful or are not going to a specific plan. They approach writing as if it involves a single process - content generation. Paradoxically, their papers are impoverished in terms of content, vocab., organization, conventions and purpose. The preceding EFL writing skills need to be perfect. The impoverished writing of struggling writers is in part a strategic problem because they have difficulty gaining access to the knowledge they do have. Strategic writers are those who are able to use writing strategies in different writing situations or those who are able to change writing strategies from theoretical part into practical one (Abdel-Hack, 2002).

Writing is one of the most important skills in teaching English as a foreign language. It reflects the power of students in mastering writing techniques, so the students need to be aware of writing as a process and as a product as well. Learning writing also includes the learning of writing skills, rules and conventions. As a result, students should not only know these tactics but also know how to manage and control them. The main purpose of strategic writing instruction is that learning to write includes the learning of mental procedures to produce writing and to control the production of writing (Calhoun & Hale, 2003). Research indicates that effective or expert writers are strategic. This means that writers have purposes for their writing and adjust their writing to each purpose and for each writing task. Strategic writers use a variety of strategies and skills as they construct paragraphs (Buhrke, Henkels, Klene, & fister, 2002). A strategy is a plan selected deliberately by the writer to accomplish a particular goal or to complete a given task (El-Koumy, 1991). The goal of all writing instruction is to help students become expert writers so that they can achieve independence autonomy in their writing. Learning to use writing strategies effectively is essential in this research for constructing meaning in students' writing and as a trial to change students' passive attitudes towards writing into a positive one.

Many EFL students find writing the most difficult area of language. In the mean time, teachers also find it hard to assist students in producing pieces of quality academic writing (Abdel-Hack, 2002). The underlying reason can be drawn from a number of factors, for instance, the inherent complexity of the skill, students' limited knowledge of the topic, insufficient practice and inadequate feedback (Anwar, 2000). Additionally, studies of language teaching tend to focus mainly on accuracy and correctness of grammar and writing mechanics (Calhoun, & Hale, 2003). Phinney (1991) stated that second language writers are often assumed to have negative attitudes and apprehension towards writing than first language writers. Students are seldom given feedback on their writing in English language, or the opportunity to revise their pieces of writing. The usual practice is to correct the grammatical errors. In addition, the teacher is the sole or the primary audience for students' writing. Forsyt (2003) indicated that the cause of the weak writing skills includes the poor attitudes that students exhibit towards writing. Students often view themselves as incompetent writers and thus a low level of engagement occurs in their writing. Kear (2000) verified that students move from a grade to another grade and their attitudes towards writing generally worsen. To enable students to write effectively, the researchers proposed this study as a kind of solution model to overcome writing difficulties and change students' attitudes towards writing.

II. WRITING STRATEGIES

Writing strategies are ways of controlling writing process to produce well-organized production crystallized by high quality. These strategies are cognitive and meta- cognitive procedures used to control the production of written language and to solve problems while writing. Writers shouldn't be passive when doing a writing task; they should be able to use some writing strategies in a flexible way to be strategic writer. Strategic writing is the ability to monitor and adjust writing during writing process. Writers who are not strategic often encounter difficulties in their writing (El-Koumy, 1991).Calhoun & Hale, (2003) indicate that strategic writing is a thinking procedure for producing writing (cognition) or for controlling production (metacognition).Consequently, strategic writing is a link between cognitive and met- cognitive; that is to associate knowledge with thinking. Strategic writing techniques show writers how to discover their own ideas in a strategic method. The strategy requires an ability to conceive the future and create possibilities. A successful strategy is a mental discipline consisting of broad ranging, flexible and creative thinking.

III. TYPES OF STRATEGIC KNOWLEDGE FOR STRATEGIC WRITING

There are three types of strategic knowledge needed for strategic writing. Declarative type is knowledge about what writing is and about structures, rules and conventions. One important aspect of strategic writing instruction is that it doesn't only stop at knowledge but also the procedural and conditional knowledge as well (Calhoun & Hale, 2003). Procedural knowledge is the awareness of how to transform a passive construction into an active one. Conditional knowledge means knowing when it is wise to do that. These latter two types of strategic knowledge actually come from using this knowledge to avoid passive construction while writing or revising. Students as writers should be able to distinguish between passive and active knowledge as well as applying the distinction between them in writing. They should make use of this knowledge in writing strategically. They should know how to monitor and control writing process. In this study, strategic techniques will be taught via instruction and practice.

IV. TEACHING STRATEGIC WRITING

The interactive nature of strategic writing is viewed in its main pedagogical feature. Strategies are not learned best by reading textbooks or by listening to teachers. The strategy must address a real concern and be constructed over time with diminishing amounts of teacher assistance and increasing amounts of students' self-control (Calhoun, & Hale, 2003). To this end, the researchers recommend a four step instructional process which students are familiar with. These steps are as follows:
1. Identifying strategy worth teaching.
2. Introducing the strategy by modeling it.
3. Helping the students to try the strategy with assistance.
4. Helping the students work toward independent mastery of the strategy through repeated practice and reinforcement.

The researchers make use of these steps in a strategic writing workshop to clarify and illustrate how they can be used. In step one, identifying strategies worth teaching means looking for strategies that are most likely helpful for students who are known as struggling writers. Using such strategies may help students overcome their writing difficulties via talking to those students about their fears of writing and how to overcome these fears, knowing their weakness in writing and trying to treat this weakness. Step two, introducing strategies by modeling them means speaking about thoughts while writing, calling a particular attention to the intended strategy asking students to compose a similar piece of writing in connection with the writing the teacher is doing. Step three; helping students to try a writing strategy with teacher assistance is best done in a writing workshop environment. Writing may be in the form of pair work-teamwork-individual work and some amount of it should be done with teachers' assistance as it is necessary to make sure that writers practice using the strategy being taught. Step four, helping students to write independently through repeated practices and reinforcement means giving students opportunities to strategy many times with describing amounts of writing strategies (Jin& Kalhlen, 1997).

V. CHOOSING STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING STRATEGIC WRITING

Out of the researchers' reading in the field of strategic writing to a lot of authors, they select some strategic techniques to improve students' writing and their attitudes towards writing. The chosen writing strategies are as follows:

A. Stop Strategy

This strategy contains four steps abbreviated as *stop*; where "S" means suspending judgment and in this step students are encouraged to write more. Writing in this step is free writing without any kind of restriction. The second step which is taken from "T" refers to taking a side, in this stage; students decide and choose which ideas they should concentrate on. The third step is taken from "O" and refers to organizing ideas. In this stage, students try to put ideas according to their importance in constructing their paragraphs. The fourth step is taken from "P" and it means planning more as students write. In this stage, students modify, rectify and revise what they had written.

B. Dare Strategy

The *DARE* strategy comprises four steps; where "D" means developing a topic sentence. In this step, students are asked to focus on the first sentence to be clear and meaningful. In the second step "A" stands for adding supporting ideas. In this stage; students write sentences closely related to the main sentence. The "R" in the *dare* step stands for rejecting arguing with the other side. In this stage, students are asked not to focus on specific details. In the fourth step "E" refers to elaborating on each main idea.

C. Story Writing Strategy

This strategy contains the following items:
1. Who is the main character; who else is in the story?
2. When does the story take place?
3. Where does the story take place?
4. What does the main character want to do?
5. What do the other characters want to do?
6. What happens when the main character tries to do it; what happens with the other characters?
7. How does the story end?

D. Star Strategy

This strategy contains four steps abbreviated as *STAR*; where "S" means substitution. In this step, students are asked to substitute overused words, weak verbs and weak adjectives. In the second step "T" stands for taking things out. In this stage; students delete unimportant and irrelevant information. In the third step "A" means add new information and description. The "R" in the fourth step means rearranging the sequence to produce a desired effect.

VI. CHOOSING STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING STRATEGIC WRITING

The researchers made use of the above four mentioned strategies and proposed a new strategy to promote EFL writing skills and attitudes towards writing. This new strategic technique is called the *Power* strategy. This strategy contains the following steps:
1. "P" which stands for picking ideas. In this stage, students are asked to think of what they are writing and this stage is considered to be pre-writing stage then students write freely and then choose the most important ideas to write about.
2. "O" refers to organizing ideas. In this stage, students put their ideas into well-organized order according   to the sequence and the importance of the ideas.
3. "W" stands for writing and this stage is the stage of actual writing to what had been arranged before.
4. "E" means evaluating what had been written according to a writing rubric see appendix (A).
5. "R" means re-examining and rereading what had been written to make sure of its quality.

The above mentioned strategy "power" dealt with writing as a process and a product as well. It focused on pre-writing stage, writing stage and post writing stage besides producing high quality writing through re-examining and re-reading. The techniques followed in this strategy are as follows:
1. Giving detailed information about the strategy to the students.
2. Modeling the strategy in front of students.
3. Helping students to follow the model in pair and team work
4. Independent performance, students work alone with slight help of the instructor.

VII. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE POWER STRATEGY

There were writing workshops to carry out the above mentioned steps. The duration of the implementation of this strategy took two months.

A. Tools of the Study

The following tools have been developed to carry out this study:
1. An EFL writing skills list.
2. An EFL writing skills test.
3. A rubric for correcting the test (Appendix A).
4. An EFL writing attitude scale prepared by the researchers (Appendices B).

B. Content of the Study

The study provides students with rich inputs to help them master the writing skills through strategic writing techniques. These inputs are as follows:
1. Rewriting passages, dialogue exchange and written reports.
2. Brainstorming and conducting a brief class lesson on common errors.
3. Sentence expansion, individual conferences and whole class discussion.
4. Punctuating, Spelling and proofreading exercises.

C. The Experimental Design

The present study followed the pre test-post-test experimental-control group.

O1	X	O2
O1		O2

O1 is the pre test

X is the treatment (Strategic writing techniques and chosen strategy)

O2 is the post test

As Table I shows below, it is clear that there are no significant differences at 0.01 between the mean scores of the experimental and control group students in the pre-test in each writing sub-skill. It can be concluded that both the experimental and control groups are homogenous and equivalent not only in overall EFL writing, but also in writing sub-skills: fluency, content, organization, vocabulary, grammar and structures and convention as shown in fig1 below.

TABLE I.
RESULTS OF T-TEST OF THE PRE-TEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN EFL WRITING SUB-SKILLS.

| WRITING SUB-SKILLS	GROUP	N	MEAN	S.D	T-VALUE	SIG.
FLUENCY	EXPERIMENTAL	35	12.1111	4.4432	-.085	.932
	CONTROL	35	12.0278	3.8154		
CONTENT	EXPERIMENTAL	35	8.0278	2.2739	-.243	.808
	CONTROL	35	8.1667	2.5579		
ORGANIZATION	EXPERIMENTAL	35	9.2778	2.6034	.184	.855
	CONTROL	35	9.1667	2.5242		
VOCABULARY	EXPERIMENTAL	35	8.9722	3.1576	.225	.823
	CONTROL	35	8.8333	1.9494		
GRAMMAR	EXPERIMENTAL	35	6.2222	1.9140	-.058	.954
	CONTROL	35	6.2500	2.1297		
CONVENTIONS	EXPERIMENTAL	35	11.3889	2.8911	-.362	.718
	CONTROL	35	11.6667	3.5777		
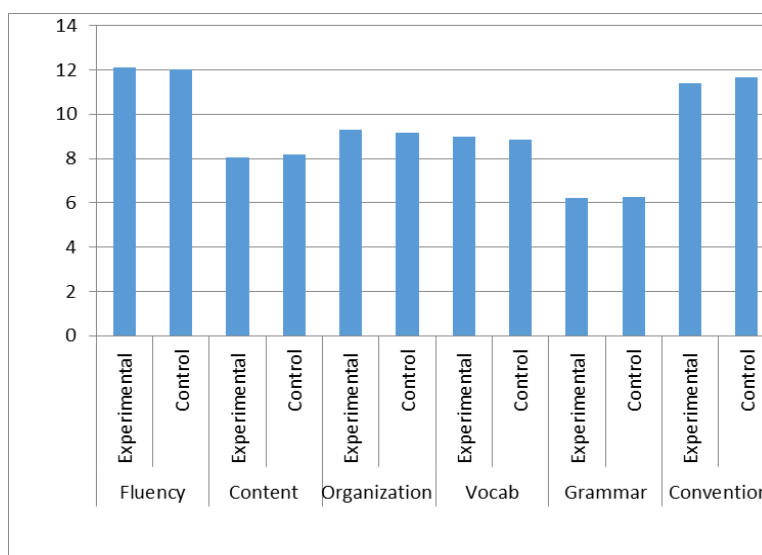
Figure 1. The mean scores of the experimental and control groups in the pre-test EFL writing

Table II below shows that there are no statistically significant differences at 0.01 between the experimental and control group students in the pre-test of all the components of attitudes towards writing in English language as indicated by t-value. Consequently, it can be concluded that both the experimental and control groups are homogenous in the pre-test of the components of attitudes towards writing as shown in fig.2.

TABLE II.
RESULTS OF T-TEST OF THE PRE-TEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDES TOWARDS WRITING.

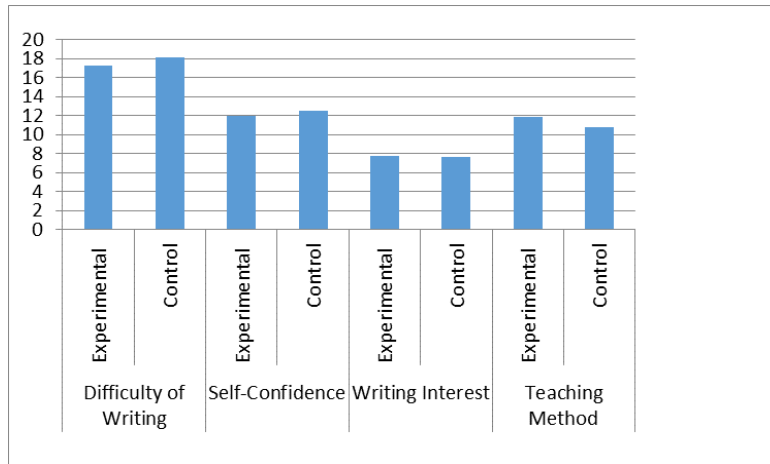| COMPONENTS OF ATTITUDES TOWARDS WRITING	GROUP	N	MEAN	S.D	T-VALUE	SIG.
DIFFICULTY OF WRITING	EXPERIMENTAL	35	17.200 0	3.9541	-.817	.661
	CONTROL	35	18.0857	5.0490		
SELF-CONFIDENCE	EXPERIMENTAL	35	11.9143	2.7157	-.822	.922
	CONTROL	35	12.4571	2.8111		
WRITING INTEREST	EXPERIMENTAL	35	7.7143	1.7417	.270	.846
	CONTROL	35	7.6000	1.8020		
TEACHING METHOD	EXPERIMENTAL	35	11.8857	2.1569	1.167	.661
	CONTROL	35	10.7714	2.1432		

Figure 2. The mean scores of the experimental and control groups in the pre-test of attitudes towards writing

Table III illustrates results of the study after conducting the experiment using strategic writing techniques which shows that there are statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the experimental and control groups students in the post-test of all the sub-skills of EFL writing in favor of the experimental group as t-value for independent samples proved to be significant at 0.01 (one-tailed) for all sub-skills: fluency, content, organization, vocabulary, grammar and structures and conventions.

TABLE III.
RESULTS OF T-TEST OF THE POST-TEST OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN EFL WRITING SUB-SKILLS.

WRITING SUB-SKILLS	GROUP	N	MEAN	S.D.	T-VALUE	SIG.
FLUENCY	EXPERIMENTAL	35	29.1389	4.2638	6.159	0.01
	CONTROL	35	21.8889	5.6304		
CONTENT	EXPERIMENTAL	35	11.0833	2.2725	4.845	0.01
	CONTROL	35	8.5833	2.1027		
ORGANIZATION	EXPERIMENTAL	35	19.2222	2.6845	4.188	0.01
	CONTROL	35	15.9167	3.9015		
VOCABULARY	EXPERIMENTAL	35	19.2778	2.6791	4.250	0.01
	CONTROL	35	15.9167	3.9161		
GRAMMAR	EXPERIMENTAL	35	19.6667	2.7150	3.863	0.01
	CONTROL	35	16.5833	3.9452		
CONVENTIONS	EXPERIMENTAL	35	28.1389	4.0719	4.287	0.01
	CONTROL	35	23.3889	5.2551		

Table IV below reflects that there are statistically differences in the post test in self-confidence, writing interest, difficulty of writing, editing and teaching method. These differences are in favor of the experimental group and this can be attributed to the effect of the strategic writing techniques that the experimental group received.

The t-test results presented in table IV revealed statistically mean differences between the experimental and control group students in the post-test in favor of the experimental group in overall writing and in each writing sub-skill. Fig.3 shows these differences:

TABLE IV.
RESULTS OF BOTH THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP STUDENTS IN THE POST-TEST OF EACH COMPONENT OF ATTITUDES TOWARDS WRITING

| COMPONENT OF ATTITUDES TOWARDS WRITING	GROUP	N	MEAN	S.D.	T-VALUE	SIG.
THE DIFFICULTY OF WRITING	EXPERIMENTAL	35	23.9714	4.8354	3.453	0.01
	CONTROL	35	19.8857	5.0630		
SELF-CONFIDENCE	EXPERIMENTAL	35	15.5143	2.8260	2.494	0.01
	CONTROL	35	13.6000	3.7354		
WRITING INTEREST	EXPERIMENTAL	35	9.1714	1.4621	3.197	0.01
	CONTROL	35	7.9143	1.8371		
TEACHING METHOD	EXPERIMENTAL	35	11.6857	2.1797	2.970	0.01
	CONTROL	35	9.9714	2.6289		
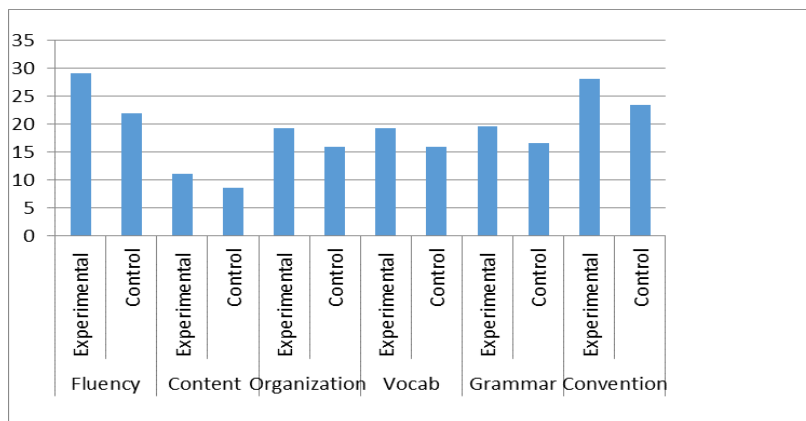
Figure 3. mean scores of the experimental and control groups in the post-test in EFL writing

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

1. Teachers should focus on teaching writing in English language as a process not as a product.

2. There is a need for using new techniques for providing feedback to students' EFL writing such as peer-review, writing conferences and self-correction.

3. Teaching can be made learner-centered, with more emphasis on the learning process.

4. Interaction between the teacher-students and student-student creates co-operative, non-threatening and fear-free environment.

5. It is necessary to devote more time in the teaching schedule to teaching writing.

6. Students should be given the chance to take part in activities which strengthen their enthusiasm for writing in English language.

7. Students should be given the freedom to choose the topics they want to write about or topics in which they are interested and the topics should be more relevant to their daily life.

8. The teacher should deal with his students positively to give them the sense of liking the thing they are doing.

APPENDIX A. A RUBRIC FOR CORRECTING THE WRITING TEST

EFL WRITING SKILLS	4 VERY GOOD	3 GOOD	2 AVERAGE	1 WEAK	ZERO VERY WEAK
1- CONTENT	WRITING IS CLEARLY FOCUSED ON THE TOPIC.	WRITING IS CLEARLY FOCUSED ON THE TOPIC TO SOME EXTENT	IDEAS DON'T RELATE TO THE TOPIC	THE TOPIC IS NOT CLEAR	NO WRITING
2- ORGANIZATION	WRITING HAS A DEFINITE BEGINNING , MIDDLE AND END	WRITING HAS A CLEAR BEGGING , MIDDLE AND END BUT SENTENCES NEED FURTHER DEVELOPMENT	WRITING HAS A DEFINITE BEGINNING TO SOME EXTENT BUT THE END IS INAPPROPRIATE	WRITING HAS NO DEFINITE BEGINNING, MIDDLE OR END.	NO WRITING
4- VOCABULARY	LANGUAGE IS ACCURATE AND THE DETAILS ARE RELATED TO EACH OTHER. THE WORD CHOICE IS RELATED TO THE NATURE OF THE TEXT.	LANGUAGE IS ACCURATE TO SOME EXTENT AND THE READER CAN UNDERSTAND AND SEES WHAT THE STUDENT IS TRYING TO SAY.	LANGUAGE DISTRACTS THE READER TO GET THE MEANING.	LANGUAGE IS UNCLEAR. THERE IS NO ENRICHMENT IN WORD CHOICE.	NO WRITING
5- CONVENTIONS (PUNCTUATION CAPITALIZATION- SPELLING)	MAKING ONE - TWO ERRORS IN PUNCTUATION- SPELLING AND CAPITALIZATION	MAKING THREE-FIVE ERRORS IN PUNCTUATION SPELLING AND CAPITALIZATION	MAKING SIX ERRORS IN PUNCTUATION SPELLING AND CAPITALIZATION	MAKING MORE SEVEN THAN ERRORS IN PUNCTUATION	NO WRITING

APPENDIX B. THE MODIFIED EFL WRITING ATTITUDE SCALE BY THE RESEARCHERS

ITEMS	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NOT SURE	NOT AGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
1- I FIND DIFFICULTY IN ARRANGING MY IDEAS IN WRITING.					
2- I THINK MY WRITING IS GOOD.					
3-STARTING WRITING IS VERY DIFFICULT FOR ME.					
4-I TRY TO FIND EXCUSES TO AVOID WRITING IN ENGLISH					
5-IFIND MYSELF WRITING A SENTENCE, THEN ERASING IT TRYING ANOTHER SENTENCE, AND THEN SCRATCHING IT OUT. I MIGHT DO IT FOR SOME TIME.					
6- I TAKE MUCH TIME TO THINK OF ANY SENTENCE BEFORE WRITING IT.					
7- I ENJOY WRITING IN ENGLISH.					
8- I THINK MY TEACHER IS REACTING POSITIVELY TO MY WRITING.					
9-WRITING TOPICS THAT CAN HAVE MORE THAN ONE IDEA IS DIFFICULT FOR ME.					
10-TOPICS OF COMPARISON OR ANALYSIS TROUBLE ME.					
11- I LIKE TO EXPRESS MY IDEAS IN WRITING NOT ORALLY.					
12-WRITING COMMENTS ON THE ARTICLES OF THE STUDENT'S BOOK IS DIFFICULT.					
13- I HAVE SEEN REALLY GOOD WRITING BUT MY WRITING IS NOT GOOD IN COMPARISON.					

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Mohamed A. Okasha was born in Egypt. He holds a B.A in Education from. Alex. University,1995. He also, received his master degree in English Teaching Methodology from the University of Tanta, Kafer El-Sheihk branch in 2004. He received his PhD in 2011 in English Teaching Methodology from the University of Banha, Egypt. Currently, he is assistant prof. at Jazan University, Saudi Arabia.

    Mr. Okasha has published research papers and he is mainly interested in creative writing and strategic writing as well as teaching writing skill to EFL learners. He has a long experience in teaching English to high school students and University students. He is engaged in several committees of research affairs and EFL curriculum development and assessment.

Sami A. Hamdi was born in Saudi Arabia. He holds a master degree in linguistics (2012) from Imam Muhammed Ibn Saud Islamic University, Saudi Arabia. He also received his bachelors on English from King Saud University in 2009, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia.

He worked as a translator & later as a manager of technical cooperation & foreign relations department at the atomic energy research institute at (kacst) King Abdelazia City for Science and Technology. He also worked as assistant of the director of SAGIA (Saudi Arabian General Investment Authority) investment platform. He worked in King Saud University as Supervisor of CoEIA (Center of Excellence in Information Assurance) admin research affairs. He is now The General Coordinator of English Language Programs of Preparatory year Programs at Jazan University.

Mr. Hamdi is interested in the study of language in terms of learning, acquisition, and computational processing. Mr. Hamdi has published various papers in international conferences and journals. He has been awarded best paper awards (2 times consecutively) during his MA. Study. He has worked on research projects & participated in organizing scientific events.

An Empirical Study on the Application of Lexical Chunk to College English Writing

Qian Li

Foreign Languages Department of Shandong Jiaotong University, Jinan, China

Abstract—In China, English, as an important tool for self-expression and mutual communication, is paid great attention to all over the country and College English has become a compulsory course at all colleges and universities. English writing is one of the most important language skills for college students. For a long time, English writing has been the throe throat for college students, which manifests in the aspects that students have poor vocabulary and employ much Chinglish expression in their essays, hindering them from expressing themselves clearly. Many linguists and teachers have been doing research on foreign language teaching, trying to find an effective way to improve the students' foreign language acquisition especially foreign language writing. And thus the approach of employing the lexical chunks to teaching was put forward. The approach of teaching English writing by chunks offers a new way of solving the problems. Based on the previous research, the author thinks it necessary to probe into teaching English writing by lexical chunks so as to improve students' writing ability. This study increases the input of English Lexical Chunk to College English writing and analyzes the effect of this method on students' writing by conducting experimental research. According to the experiment analysis, it is concluded that increase of Lexical Chunk input can reduce the negative transfer of the native language, thus improving their writing in terms of wording collocation, sentence building, discourse cohesion and expression.

Index Terms— lexical chunk, college English writing, empirical study

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, with economic development and cultural globalization, English has become an important tool for self-expression and mutual communication. In China English education is paid great attention to all over the country and College English has become a compulsory course at all colleges and universities. English writing is one of the most important language skills for college students. Though English writing is an important language skill to students, in the schools and universities the teaching of writing lays emphasis on the English vocabulary, grammar and structure, paying less attention to the practice of writing as a whole including the process of planning, generating and the organization. The present situation that the teachers ignore the English writing has caused the students' lack of motivation and interest in writing. For a long time, English writing has been the throe throat for college students, Even though they can memorize a large number of new words, there still exist some problems in the process of transferring from language input to language output. Their essays lack the effective organization and thus lead to the incoherence and inconsistency of expressions and even employing much Chinglish expression in their essays, hindering them from expressing themselves clearly.

Many linguists and teachers have been doing research on foreign language teaching, trying to find an effective way to improve the students' foreign language acquisition especially foreign language writing. And thus the approach of employing the lexical chunks to teaching was put forward. The approach of teaching English writing by chunks offers a new way of solving the problems.

Lexical chunks usually refer to frequently-occurred, fixed or semi-fixed multi-words or sentences formed by meanings rather than grammatical rules that are acquired as a whole automatically in the language acquisition. Lexical chunks approach is based on the idea that language is made up of grammatical lexis instead of lexicalized grammar. Many experts and educators have been doing research on lexical chunks, finding that chunks play an important role in our everyday communication, making contributions to the ease, accuracy and fluency in listening, speaking, reading and writing. What's more, lexical chunks are an effective way to improve students' English writing in the foreign language acquisition.

Based on the previous research, the author thinks it necessary to probe into teaching English writing by lexical chunks so as to improve students' writing ability.

In this study, writing refers to school composition writing. A school composition is a short writing, which is also called an essay. The general goal of English writing at an elementary level set for college non-English majors in College English Syllabus is to write a composition of about 120 to 150 words within thirty minutes on a given topic or outline; Express themselves clearly without critical language errors.

This study increases the input of English Lexical chunk to College English writing and analyzes the effect of this method on students' writing by conducting experimental research. In order to classify the effects of lexical chunks on English writing, the author carried out the experiment in two classes with the same level in the Shandong Jiaotong

University. During the experiment, the author employed the traditional way to English writing in the control class. Meanwhile, the increase of input of lexical chunks to English writing was applied to the experiment class. During the experiment, the subjects in the two classes were asked to take pre-test and post-test. After the experiment, the author analyzes the result of the two tests to find the effects of lexical chunks on English writing.

Based on the experiment analysis, it is concluded that increase of Lexical Chunk input can reduce the negative transfer of the native language, thus improving their writing in terms of wording collocation, sentence building, discourse cohesion and expressiveness.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definitions of Lexical Chunks

During the late age of the nineteen century, there has been an increasing concern about the linguistic study in China and abroad. Many linguists, scholars and teachers devote themselves to the language teaching and acquisition and some new approaches have been employed to foreign language teaching and learning. Among these approaches, input of Lexical Chunks have been advocated and employed to the language acquisition. There have been different definitions of Lexical Chunks. Becker (1975) first put forward his opinion that lexical chunks are these particular multi-words or sentences, which are usually in the form of fixed or semi-fixed chunks and share the common characteristics of traditional grammar and lexis. And, Nattinger & Decarrico (1992), who also defines Lexical Chunks as "multi-word lexical phenomena", arguing that these chunks are ready-made multi-word expressions, "They are similar to lexicon in being treated as units, yet most of them consist of more than one word, and many of them can, at the same time, be derived from the regular rules of syntax, just like other sentences". They think that these phrases are "collocations that are assigned pragmatic functions", which differs them from other multi-word units like idioms or collocations.

In *The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistic (Volum3)*, lexical chunks are defined as "a cover term for ready-made constructions which can be used without having to be built up from scratch."

Pawley and Syder (1983) defined that lexical chunk is "a unit of clause length or longer whose grammatical form and lexical content is wholly or largely fixed".

Lewis (1993) holds the opinion that the basis of language learning is lexis, thus regarding the lexical chunks as "the building blocks of language learning and communication not grammar, functions, notions or some other unit of planning and teaching but lexis, that is, words and word combinations."

Regina Weinert (1995) does research on the lexical chunks and see them as "multi-word (How are you doing?) or multi-form strings (called; haven't) which are produced or recalled as a whole chunk, much like an individual lexical item, rather than being generated from individual lexical items/forms with linguistic rules." n(Sun Huamei, 2010)

Moon gives his definition that lexical chunks are "a vocabulary item which consists of a sequence of two or more words (a word being simply an orthographic unit)" (Moon, 1997, p.43). According to his opinion, these words are combined according to the whole meaning rather than grammatical rules.

Janet Hooper, Florence Myles and Rosamond Mitchell (1998) argue that lexical chunks are rote-learned word groups or imitated chunks of unanalyzed language.

By analyzing these definitions of the scholars and linguists above, the author holds an opinion that lexical chunks are frequently-occurred, fixed or semi-fixed multi-words or sentences formed by meanings rather than grammatical rules that are acquired as a whole automatically.

B. Classifications of Lexical Chunks

From the introduction above, it is known that many linguists have been trying to give a definition of lexical chunks. In addition to the definition, some of them also attempt to classify lexical chunks from different perspectives and aspects so as to employ them to language teaching and acquisition well.

Richard J. Alexander (1984) classifies lexical chunks from the perspective of formal degree and function and divides them into idioms, discourse, proverbs, catchphrases as well as quotations and allusions.

Nattinger & Decarrico (1992), divides lexical chunks into four categories: polywords, institutionalized expressions, phrasal constraints and sentence builders.

Moon (1997) argues that lexical chunks consist of five kinds of items: compounds, verbs, idioms, fixed phrases and prefabs or ready-made units.

Lewis (1997) identifies four basic groups of lexical items: words and polywords, collocations, institutionalized utterance frames and heads.

C. Related Studies at Home and Abroad

Since the definition of lexical chunks were put forward, the research on them have been more than theory. Many linguists have been employing them to the language acquisition and have been analyzing by experiment what effects the lexical chunks have on language learning and acquisition.

In the 1970s, Becker (1975) was one of the first to suggest the importance of the lexical phrases to our idea expression. He held the opinion that we used "ready-made frameworks on which to hang the expression of our ideas."

Michael Lewis employs lexical chunks approach to teaching, writing the masterpieces with the titles The *Lexical*

Approach and Implementing the Lexical Approach. Lewis (1993) argues that "Language consists of grammatical lexis—not lexicalized grammar," and lexical chunks, as a kind of grammatical lexis play a vital role in language acquisition in all aspects of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Nattinger&Decarrico (1992), do research on the lexical phrase, trying to find if this unit can serve as an effective basic unit for second language or foreign language teaching. They do experiments to examine the ways that lexical phrases are organized in different kinds of written discourse, among which three kinds of EFL writing are selected including the formal essay, the informal letter and the business letter. By analyzing the research, they conclude that the input of these lexical phrases can help the EFL learners to express themselves well in the writing.

In China, there also exist researchers who have carried out experimental studies on lexical chunks. Wu Jing and Wang Ruidong (2002) do an experimental study on lexical chunks, in their study they made a survey of foreign studies on lexical chunks trying to advocate readers to focus their attention on the functions and advantages of lexical chunks.

Yao Baoliang (2003) does research on the lexical chunk in the middle school, writing, discussing the function of prefabricated language and the way of applying prefabricated language to spoken English (Some researchers call lexical chunks as prefabricated language).

Duan Shiping (2008) reviews the studies on lexical chunk in the second language acquisition at home and abroad in the past 10 years, including the definition and distinctive features of lexical chunk, the focus of research on lexical chunk and different perspectives and research approaches.

In all, many researchers and scholars home and abroad have realized the importance of lexical chunks in foreign or second language teaching and learning, carrying out experimental research to verify the positive effects of chunks on students' language learning and acquisition.

III. Methodology

In the chapter above, the author reviews the definition and classification of the lexical chunks as well as the related studies at home and abroad, which provided the theoretical and experimental basis for this thesis. In this chapter, the empirical study is listed, which aims to describe how to apply lexical chunks to improve students' writing. The research question, subjects, instrument, procedures, result and discussion in the writing training are included here.

A. Research Question

This study attempts to find whether there exist some effects on the college students' English writing by increasing the input of lexical chunks in two classes of Shandong Jiaotong Univertity. Therefore the research question is whether application of lexical chunk approach to EFL teaching helps to improve college students' EFL writing level.

B. Subjects

The students who participate in this study are the freshmen of Shandong Jiaotong University majoring in Vehicle Engineering. They have just finished senior middle school study and passed the Entrance Examination to College. It is the first term for them to have English classes in this college according to the curriculum requirement of the university authority. They are very curious, cooperative, which helped the researcher to carry out the experiment. They are taught by the author with the same textbook, which is *New Horizon College English* published by Foreign Language Teaching and Researching Press. They have the same class time with the same English teacher. In order to get to know the participants' initial knowledge and select the participants who are at the same level, the researcher designed the pretest at the beginning of the term. After the pretest, the students were ranked according to their pretest scores and divided into two classes. Class 1 of forty students is selected to be experimental group (EG), and Class 2 of 40 students is control group (CG). The two classes are at approximately equivalent level of English writing at the beginning of the experiment.

C. Instruments

1. Pretest

In order to get to know the participants' initial knowledge and select the participants who are at approximately equivalent level, the researcher designed the pretest at the beginning of the term, during the test the students were allowed to write a composition on the same topic and outline given in Chinese in thirty minutes. They should write at least 120 words, the topic was chosen from College Entrance Examination which is regarded as the most influential Chinese national English to measure the high school students' English proficiency. The pretest was carried out in class in the supervision of the teacher so as to make sure that the students do it by themselves. After the test, all the compositions were collected and graded by the two English teachers according to the same criteria. The average scores between the teachers were the ultimate scores. And then their scores were collected and analyzed.

2. Post-test

In order to see whether there was any improvement made by the students attended the experimental or not, the posttest is designed at the end of the term. After the pre-test, the author provided the students more opportunities for them to observe the lexical chunks appearing in the textbook and various exercises were employed to strengthen their awareness of lexical chunks. During the period, the practice of lexical chunks was prepared and the writing instruction

mainly focused on the input of chunks. In the posttest the students were also allowed to write a composition on the same topic and outline given in Chinese in thirty minutes as the pretest. The whole process of test was supervised under the teacher. After the test, all the compositions were collected and graded by the two English teachers according to the same criteria. The average scores between the teachers were the ultimate scores. After the test, scores of the two classes were collected and analyzed and then the two results were compared to each other so that to find whether there did exist significant improvement of the students' writing skills after one-term training.

D. Procedure

The experiment lasted one term for 14 weeks. The steps of the experiment were as follows:

Both groups had the same English class based on the procedures suggested in the textbook every week. The new words and expressions in the book were taught in the class for both groups. The experimental group received extra lexical chunks instruction from the beginning of the term while the control experiment didn't. The author laid emphasis on the selection, acquisition and application of multi-word chunks instead of single words without the definite context. The training involved four steps:

1. Preparation

In this step, the teacher explained to the students that lexical chunks usually refer to frequently-occurred, fixed or semi-fixed multi-words or sentences formed by meanings rather than grammatical rules that are acquired as a whole automatically in the language acquisition. And the multi-word chunks are different from common vocabulary, phrases and sentences in the aspect that lexical chunks are ready-made, meaning-based and can be treated as a whole. Besides, mufti-word chunks play an important role in the ease, accuracy and fluency of ELF writing. In the class the examples of lexical chunks formed by 2-7 word are introduced to students to help them know the typical characters of the lexical chunks

2. Presentation

This step is about the teaching procedures in which the input of lexical chunks is increased to English teaching. At the beginning of every English class, about fifteen minutes were set aside for four or five students for spot-check. After choosing chunks in the text, the whole class students were encouraged to pick out the chunks they met in the texts according to their understanding by themselves, and then the author checked what the students had selected and gave some corrections if some mistakes appeared.

3. Practice

In this step, students are provided with the opportunity to practice the mufti-word chunks that have been learned in the class teaching. They were first asked to remember these chosen lexical chunks and then make effort to use mufti-word chunks in real communicative tasks to reinforce their understanding and memorizing of chunks. The teacher provided some contextual information to help the students practice some particular mufti-word chunks. In the next class, the teacher will check students whether they have memorized the lexical chunks by dictation or word-filling in the passage. Meanwhile, the author should show the students the basic outline of written discourse so that they could learn how to build sentences and construct the framework of a passage.

4. Evaluation

After the practice of lexical chunks, the performance of the students was checked and evaluated. The main purpose of this step was to provide students with opportunities to evaluate their own achievement in using these useful mufti-word chunks, thus developing their chunk awareness in their own learning processes.

The students are required to write an essay concerning the topic in their textbook every week and encouraged to use the lexical chunks they have learnt in their essays. After marking their essays, the teacher comments on their writing and chooses the excellent ones to display in class, especially praise them on their appropriate use of lexical chunks so as to be the models for all the students to follow. In this way, the students' practice of lexical chunks is strengthened.

E. Results and Discussions

At the end of the term, all the students in EG and in CG took the same writing tests. After the tests, the papers are collected and marked. To achieve the highly objectiveness of the scoring of composition, the researcher and his colleague will give a grade on each student's writing pretest and posttest. If the differences in scores are within 4 scores, the average of the two score will be the eventual one, otherwise, the two raters will discuss together to give the student an appropriate score.

1. Results and Discussions of the Pre-test.

At the beginning of the experiment, the pre-test writing is presented among the 40 non-English major students to see whether there was a significant difference between the experiment class and the control class concerning their writing competence. The results of the pre-test are analyzed by a statistical analysis system (SPSS 12.0). Then their mean scores and standard deviations are to identify the differences of the two classes in writing.

TABLE1
PRETEST ANALYSIS OF CLASS1 AND CLASS 2

group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (2-tailed)
CLASS1	64.9000	40	13.41029	2.12035	
CLASS2	64.9500	40	11.05916	1.74861	.985

From the table 1 above, it can be found that before the experiment, the mean of the experiment class as 64.90 and S.D.13.41029, while those of the control class as 64.95 and 11.05916 respectively. The descriptive statistics show that for the two groups the means are nearly the same. So it is easy to make a conclusion that the students in two classes have the approximately equal English proficiency.

From the paired sample test, sig=0.985>0.05, it can be concluded the difference between the two classes is not significant. There is no difference in English proficiency between the students in two classes. This result may ensure that by the end of the experiment, the change in the scores of their writing mainly is caused by the employment of new teaching approach to teaching rather than other factors.

2.   Results and Discussions of the Post-test

At the end of the term, the author carried out another test to check whether, after the implementation of increasing the lexical chunks to English writing for one term, significant differences exists between the EC and CC. Again, their compositions were collected and marked and results were put into computer for systematic analysis. The results of SPSS are shown in the following tables.

TABLE2
POSTTEST ANALYSIS OF CLASS1 AND CLASS 2

Group	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Sig. (2-tailed)
CLASS1	70.4000	40	10.36958	1.63957	.039
CLASS2	75.0750	40	9.90050	1.56541	

From the table above, it can be seen that the difference emerged in the students' posttest. In order to validate the test, with their S.D. as 10.36958 (experimental class) and 9.90050 (control class) respectively, the experimental class gets the mean of 75.0750, 4.675 points more than that (70.400) of the control class. From this table 2 above, it can be found that it was obvious that in the posttest both of the CC and EC groups have got the higher mean than that in the pretest, which means that both classes made progress in their writings. However, the students in the CC group improved not so much as the learners in the EC group. The students in EC, after a–term practice of English writing under the guidance of the lexical chunks teaching, improved the most by increasing 10.125 points. In the posttest, the mean scores in the experimental class are much higher than those of control class, which means that the latter improved a lot more than the former. The result shows that in the posttest, the performance of the test in experimental class is better than that in control class.

According to the T-test for comparison in posttest is shown in Table 2, there exist significant difference between CC and EC (the significance 0.039 is less than 0.05).Therefore, it can be concluded that there exists a significant difference between two groups.

This result proved the fact that the lexical chunk teaching and learning approach plays a positive role in improving the college students' English writing. This further proves that the experimental treatment play an important part in the improvement of writing performance of the experimental class. That is to say, the application of chunks helps to improve students' writing performance.

So we can make a conclusion that learners' writing proficiency can be improved by the application of Lexical Chunk Approach to EFL teaching.

According to the grading criteria of EFL writing, the scores should be marked based on the expressions of main elements, application of the vocabulary and grammatical structures to express the ideas accurately and appropriately. Therefore, the use of the vocabulary and phrases is fundamental to the marking of the writing. The application of Lexical Chunk Approach to EFL teaching helps to store the ready-made lexical units into the learners' mind, which benefits the appropriate language production for a particular situation.

In addition to the score analysis, the teachers pay more attention to the students' lexical use in their expressions. It is found that lexical chunks help students to use English fluently and properly. Besides, the input of lexical chunks as a whole can avoid errors resulting from vocabulary selection and cultural differences, thus improving the accuracy of language. With lexical chunks in mind, students can write more smoothly, which reduces their anxiety during the process of writing and increases their confidence. After the application of lexical chunk for one term, it is observed that students' EFL writing performance has improved a lot.

IV.   CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

A.   Conclusion

As is known, the goal of language teaching is not just to teach abstract language rules but also to get students to apply these rules to comprehending and producing language successfully in the proper context. Lexical chunks are frequently-occurred, fixed or semi-fixed multi-words or sentences formed by meanings rather than grammatical rules that are acquired as a whole automatically in the language acquisition, which thus are proved to be of great significant to the EFL learners.

Writing is a very important part of the learner's comprehensive English ability; therefore, much attention should be paid to English writing teaching and learning. This thesis aims at the application of lexical chunk input to non-English

majors' writing.

This study investigated the effectiveness of lexical chunk input strategies in English writing. SPSS is used to analyze the results of the experiment.

As can be seen from the presented statistical analysis, Lexical chunks, the ready-made multi-word expressions, helps to store the ready-made lexical units into the learners' mind, which benefits the appropriate language production for a particular situation and reduce the lexical fossilization. In addition, lexical chunks as a whole can reduce errors resulting from vocabulary selection and thus can improve the accuracy of language. In all, the increase of lexical chunk input can reduce the negative transfer of the native language, thus improving their writing in terms of wording collocation, sentence building, discourse cohesion and expression and eventually help students to use English fluently and properly.

B.   Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

From the result of the study, we can see the importance of the lexical chunks approach in the better performance of the experimental class. Lexical chunks approach is helpful for both students and teachers in EFL writing learning and teaching. The present findings have some implications for both students and teachers.

Due to the limited time and the number of the subjects, there exist some defects in this study, and some suggestions can be made based on its limitations.

Firstly, the experimental research is of a small scale. The sample chosen for the experiment is not large enough. This study was conducted in Shandong Jiaotong University and there are only eighty participants who only came from the non-English majors in one university; and the students' levels vary from that of other universities, this might make the study a little unreliable. So the results can not be causally generalized or employed from one context to another. It is hoped that the future research will be based on more grades and majors, more universities with different English proficiency.

Secondly, due to the time limitation, the experiment only lasted for one term. If it had lasted a much longer period, three or four terms, the experiment results would be more persuasive and convincing. Therefore, future efforts should be made to plan a long study.

Lastly, the research focuses on the English writing, thus, marking of the students' essays may not be very objective. It is suggested that the future study should focus on the other aspects of English skills-reading, listening and vocabulary, which can be examined more objectively. It calls for teachers and researchers make more efforts and focus more attention on further research to find out an appropriate lexical chunks teaching approach so as to improve the students' foreign language acquisition.

The author is eager to see more and more research on the lexical chunks teaching approach employed to the learning and teaching of English. Thus, more and more researchers on lexical chunks can foresee a greater future and have more far-reaching influence on foreign language acquisition.

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Qian Li was born in Baoding, Hebei province. The author graduated from Chongqing University in Chongqing, China in 2001 and gained the Bachelor's degree of Arts, majoring in English. In 2008, the author gained the Master's degree of Arts in Shandong Normal University.

　　She has been an English teacher from July of 2001 till now in Shandong Jiaotong University. In October of 2006, she gain the qualification of being an lecturer. During these years from 2001 to 2013 she has taken the foreign language teaching seminars organized by the foreign language teaching and research press for six times in the summer holidays. She has published 21 articles concerning foreign language teaching and researching in recents years. Some of the articles published are as the following: Oversears English, (Hefei, China, Anhui Science & Technology Publishing House, 2010); Journal of Changchun University of Science and Technology, (Changchun, China, Editorial Board of Journal of Changchun University of Science and Technology, 2011); Time Education (Chengdu, China, Publishing Press of Time Education, 2010). Cross-cultural communication, teaching methods and the study of English as a foreign language are the current research interests of the author.

　　Ms. Li was the associate editor of *Foreign Language Research and Practice* which is published by Jilin University publishing press and was awarded "The Best Ten English Teachers of Shandong Province" in 2006.

A Cross-linguistic Study of English and Persian Prepositions

Seyedeh Sara Jafari

Department of Foreign Languages, Abadeh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Abadeh, Iran

Abstract—**This paper has tried to show that the errors that Persian learners of English mostly commit in using English prepositions have root in their L1. In other words, using wrong preposition, addition of an unnecessary preposition, or deletion of prepositions are often because students tend to transfer their intended meanings to English in the same way they are expressed in Persian. Firstly, the word contrastive analysis was discussed in detail, history of contrastive analysis and two version of contrastive analysis were presented. Secondly a cross – linguistic analysis of English and Persian prepositions in the field of technology, computer, management, education, research, anthropology, psychology, philosophy, translation and semantic were discussed. Thirdly, the applied comparative and contrastive was discussed. 11 couples of technical words with their definitions have been randomly searched on the internet and selected. Fourthly, some predictions of errors in the process of learning were offered. Finally, some pedagogical explanations in order to show significant of contrastive analysis in language teaching were discussed. Results show that most Persian students who learn English language make these kinds of errors. Therefore, language teachers are highly recommended to guide their learners to prevent these errors and also to increase their chance of learning a language.**

Index Terms—*contrastive analysis, cross-linguistic analysis, language prepositions, EFL learners*

I. INTRODUCTION

Contrastive analysis (CA) is the systematic study of a pair of languages with the purpose of identifying and describing their differences and similarities. CA hypothesis attempts to compare learners' L1 and L2 to explain possible difficulties that the learners might encounter in L2 learning situation. On the basis of CA, when learners try to learn L2, the patterns and rules of L1 may cause main difficulties to their L2 learning. This phenomenon, which is the main concept in CA, referred to as *negative transfer* (*L1 interference*) which means acquisition hindered where L1 and L2 differ. On the contrary, *positive transfer* takes place where features of the L1 and the L2 match and the acquisition of the L2 is facilitated. These difficulties can be predicted based on the systematic linguistic comparison of two languages.

The history of CA dates back to Robert Lado who is considered one of the founders of modern contrastive linguistics, which as a sub discipline of applied linguistics, aimed at improving language teaching materials. In his book "*Across Cultures* (1957)" Lado claimed that those elements in the target language which are similar to the learner's native language will be simple for him/her, and those elements that are different will be difficult. As Shidak Rahbarian, Mohammad Reza Oroji and Farnaz Fatahi say in their article "A Contrastive Study of English and Persian Double Object Construction", CA was used extensively in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) in the 1960s and early 1970s, as a method of explaining why some parts of a target language were more difficult to acquire than others.

CA includes two versions, strong version and weak version. The strong version believes that difficulties in learning a language can be predicted based on a systematic comparison of the system of the learner's first language (its grammar, phonology and lexicon) with the system of a second language. It predicts that second language learners will have difficulty with parts which differ from their first language, but they will have no problems with elements which are similar in their first language. Lado have been associated with the strong version of the contrastive hypothesis. On the other hand, weak version believes that the analyzing and explaining of the errors must be only based on the observed interference phenomenon in a classroom situation. In contrast to strong version, the advocates of this version believe their claim has a diagnostic power rather than a predictive power.

A remarkable point to consider is how it is possible to compare and contrast two different languages while every language is a self-contained system. According to Krzeszowski (1990), comparison of two languages involves the basic assumption that the elements to be compared share something in common, against which differences can be stated. This common platform of reference is called "tertiumcomparationis". It shows that totally similar languages as well as totally different languages cannot be compared and contrasted. Therefore, the first significant point in the comparison of a pair of languages is to realize if they share some points of similarity.

Sometimes teachers should be a care about these kinds of errors that are made by Persian students who are learning English. According to Mahmoodzadeh (2012), teachers should be more aware about the errors of their students. According to this issue, Mahmoodzadeh, M. (2012) in his article "A Cross-linguistic Study of Prepositions in Persian

and English", intends to investigate the errors made due to the cross-linguistic influence between the L1/SL and L2/TL language (i.e. Persian & English).

In the present cross-linguistic study, meanwhile, the ideas of strong version have been followed. Since English and Persian languages share some points of similarity at their syntactic levels, the contrastive analysis have been done at syntactic level of the two languages, i.e., *prepositions were* selected as an element at the syntax of these languages to be compared and contrasted carefully. In the following section, the procedures of the current study will be described in details.

II. THE STUDY

Any systematic CA program follows certain steps and procedures as CA is a type of research that has to be conducted step by step, and systematically. The first step in a contrastive study is a thorough and systematic description of the two language systems. In this step, the contrastive linguist should see whether a particular subsystem of L1 is present in L2. If it isn't present in L2, the two languages cannot be compared for the lack of this common ground. If the subsystem in L1 is present in L2, then the researcher should check the distribution of items in both languages. In this respect, English and Persian languages both include prepositions at their syntactic levels.

In English, a preposition is an important part of speech which links nouns, pronouns, and phrases to other words in a sentence. It sits before a noun to show the noun's relationship to another word in the sentence. For example in "the eagle soared above the clouds", the preposition "above" shows the relationship between "clouds" and "soared". A preposition usually indicates the temporal, spatial or logical relationship of its object to the rest of the sentence (Guernier, P. Achieving equivalence at the level of grammar: a contrastive.

Study of the use of prepositions in English and French). For instance, 'the book is on the table'. Prepositions are classified as simple (single word) and compound (more than one word) like, in between, except for, because of, on behalf of, etc. The following words are the most common prepositions in English: above, about, across, after, against, along, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, despite, down, during, except, for, from, in, inside, into, like, near, of, off, on, onto, out, outside, over, since, past, till, to, toward, though, throughout, under, underneath, until, up, upon, with, within and without.

On the other hand, a preposition in Persian is an important word which comes to show the functions of other words in a sentence. It does not have an independent meaning, and it functions as a demonstrator or of the function of words preceding and following it in a given sentence. From one perspective, prepositions in Persian, like English, are categorized into simple prepositions consisting of a single word such as "az, be, dar" and complex prepositions that include a group of words that act as one unit. For example, درمقابل ، بعد از ، پس از

Generally speaking, Persian prepositions are divided into two categories: those that come before the words and those that come after the words, like the "Ra" (را) marker that whenever follows a noun, the noun is the direct object of the sentence. However, English does not have the second type of prepositions, i.e., the prepositions in English generally precede their objects. This indicates that the order of using prepositions in the two languages differ in some cases, specifically regarding direct object. The most commonly used prepositions in Persian are: از، با ،به ، بر ، در ، نزد ، بی ، برای، را ، که ، روی ، بین ، بدون ، تا.

After examining the presence and distribution of items through the description of the 2 language systems, the linguist has to select the two subsystems and the items to be compared and contrasted. In this study, it was decided to select prepositions as part of the syntactic levels of English and Persian to be compared .To this end, 11 couples of technical words with their definitions have been randomly searched on the internet and selected. The definitions that had been chosen from online dictionaries and standard texts on the World Wide Web were written in the standard form of both languages and were in the same level. They were put in an order so that every English word's definition could be compared with its equivalent word's definition in Persian. Notice that the title of each Persian paragraph is the Persian equivalence of the title of the preceding English paragraph; however, every paragraph itself is a dictionary entry or a text description of its title, so the paragraphs are not equivalent or translated in the two languages.

The primary purpose of this limited study was to conduct a cross – linguistic analysis of English and Persian in a syntactic category – prepositions – that both share in order to investigate what kinds of problems a native speaker of Persian may encounter when learning English as L$_2$. In fact, the probable types of difficulties of a learner in using English prepositions would be predicted at the end. In the following section, the paragraphs under investigation can be observed with the underlined and bolded prepositions in English and Persian languages.

A. Technology

1. The branch of knowledge that deals with the creation and use of technical means and their interrelation with life, society, and the environment, drawing upon such subjects as industrial arts, engineering, applied science, and pure science.

2. The terminology of an art, science etc.; technical nomenclature.

3. A technological process, invention, method, or the like.

4. The sum of the ways in which social groups provide themselves with the material objects of their civilization. (dictionary.com)

Example Sentence
He writes often about science, technology, and public health. (dictionary.com)

A. فناوری

فناوری همان تسلط و تبحر **(E)** انجامکار است، فناوری توانایی **(E)** انجام کار **در** تمامیسطوح و زمینهها است. یعنی طراحی، ساخت، استفاده، تعمیر و نگهداری و تحقیق و توسعه و غیره میباشد.

امروزه بسیاری **از** فناوریها **در** نتیجه پژوهش**ها** دست میآیند و پژوهشگاههای فناور ی زیادی **در** سراسر **(E)**جهان **بر** پا شدهاست. تکنولوژی **به** معنای اصلی حداکثر استفاده **از** کمترین امکانات موجود میباشد .

فناوری یعنی تکنولوژی، **کهاز** دو لغت یونانی techne و logia تشکیل شدهاست **که** اولی **به** معنی هنر و دومی**به** معنی علم و دانش است.

تکنولوژی یا فناوری **به** معنای کاربرد **(E)** منظم معلومات علمی و دیگر آگاهیهای نظام یافته **برای** انجام وظایف عملی است. **به** بیان ساده تر، تکنولوژی کاربرد **(E)** عملیدانش و ابزاری **برای** کمک **به** تلاش **(E)** انسان است و تأثیر بسزایی**بر**توسعه **(YE)** جوامع بشری دارد.

B. Computer

1. Also called processor, an electronic device designed to accept data, perform prescribed mathematical and logical operations **at** high speed, and display the results **of** these operations. Compare analog computer, digital computer.

2. A person who computes; compotes. (dictionary.com)

Example Sentences

- File sharing was originally intended to help people move data **across** computer networks.
- Actual data will only continue to match the computer models anyhow. (dictionary.com)

B . رایانه

در زبان انگلیسی «کامپیوتر» **به** ماشینی میگفتند **که** محاسبات ریاضی **را**(**بدون** ابزارهای کمکی مکانیکی) انجام میداد. **بر** اساس **(E)** «واژهنامه ریشهیابی Barnhart Concise» واژه **(YE)** کامپیوتر **در** سال ۱۶۴۶ **به** زبان انگلیسی وارد گردید **کهبه** معنی «شخصی **که** محاسبه میکند» بوده است و سپس **از** سال ۱۸۹۷ **به** ماشینهای محاسبه مکانیکی گفته میشد. **در** هنگام جنگ جهانی دوم «کامپیوتر» **به** زبان نظامی انگلیسی و آمریکایی **که** کارشان محاسبه **(YE)** مسیرهای شلیک توپهای بزرگ جنگی **توسط** ابزار مشابهی بود، اشاره میکر د.

دراوایل دهه ۵۰ میلادی هنوز اصطلاح ماشین حساب (computing machines) **برای** معرفی این ماشینها بهکار میرفت. **پساز** آن عبارت کوتاهتر **(E)** کامپیوتر (computer) **بهجای** آن بهکار گرفته شد. ورود این ماشین **به** ایران **در** اوائل دهه ۱۳۴۰ بود و **در** فارسی **از** آن زمان **به** آن «کامپیوتر» میگفتند. واژه رایانه **در** دو دهه اخیر **در** فارسی رایج شده و بهتدریج جای «کامپیوتر» **را** گرفت.

واژه رایانه**از** مصدر ر/یانیدن ساخته شده **کهدر** فارسی میانه **به** شکل *rāyēnīdan* و **به** معنای «سنجیدن، سبک و سنگین کردن، مقایسه کردن» یا «مرتّب کردن، نظم بخشیدن و سامان دادن» بوده است. این مصدر **در** زبان فارسی میانه یا همان پهلوی کاربرد فراوانی داشته و مشتقهای زیادی **نیزاز** آن گرفته شده بوده. **در** زبان فارسی نو یا همان فارسی (دری) این فعل و مشتقهایش به کار نرفتهاند.

C. Management

1. The act or manner **of** managing; handling, direction, or control.

2. Skill **in** managing; executive ability: *great management and tact.*

3. The person or persons controlling and directing the affairs **of** a business, institution, etc.*The store is **under** new management.*

4. Executives collectively, considered as a class (distinguished **from** labor). (dictionary.com)

C.مدیریت

فرایند **(E)** به کارگیری مؤثر و کارآمد منابع مادی و انسانی **در**برنامه‌ریزی، سازماندهی، بسیج منابع و امکانات، هدایت و کنترل است **که برای** دستیابی **به** اهداف سازمانی و **بر** اساس**(E)** نظام ارزشی مورد قبول صورت می‌گیرد.تاکنون، تعاریف متعددی **برای** مدیریت، ارائه شده است. برخی **از** مهمترین تعاریفی **که** ارایه شده، **به** قرار زیر است:

- هنر انجام امور **به‌وسیله** دیگران

- فرآیندی **که** طی آن تصمیم‌گیری **در** سازمان‌ها صورت می‌پذیرد.

- انجام وظایف برنامه‌ریزی، سازماندهی، رهبری، هماهنگی و کنترل

- علم و هنر هماهنگی کوشش‌ها و مساعی اعضای سازمان و استفاده **از** منابع **برای** نیل **به** اهداف سازمانی

- بازی کردن نقش رهبر، منبع اطلاعاتی، تصمیم‌گیرنده و رابط **برای** اعضای سازمان

مدیریت **از** دید کارکردی شامل وظایفی همچون برنامه ریزی، تصمیم گیری، سازماندهی، نوآوری، هماهنگی، ارتباطات، رهبری، انگیزش و کنترل می گردد. این نوع تعاریف **از** مدیریت **اگرچها** کمی و کاستی یا فزونی هایی **در** واژه های بیان کننده ی وظایف روبرو است. اما **به** نظر روان تر **از** تعاریفی است **که** می کوشند مدیریت **را** محصور **به** یک ویژگی خاص نمایند و یا ارزش فلسفی خاصی **به** مفهوم بیفزایند. **با** اینحال تعاریف متعدد **از** مدیریت **یا** توجه **به** کارکرد های آن **از** سوی محققانی چون فایول و یا گیولیک دارای تفاوت هایی است **که به** سادگی نمی توان **از** آنها گذر کرد. آنچه واضح است علم مدیریت هنوز نتوانسته است تعریف خود **را** مدیریت کند.

D. Education

1. The act or process **of** educating or being educated.
2. The knowledge or skill obtained or developed **by** a learning process.
3. A program **of** instruction **of** a specified kind or level: *driver education; a college education.*
4. The field **of** study that is concerned **with** the pedagogy **of** teaching and learning.
5. An instructive or enlightening experience: *Her work **in** the inner city was a real education.* (dictionary.com)

Education **in** its broadest, general sense is the means **through** which the aims and habits **of** a group **of** people lives **on from** one generation **to** the next. Generally, it occurs **through** any experience that has a formative effect **on** the way one thinks, feels, or acts. **In** its narrow, technical sense, education is the formal process **by** which society deliberately transmits its accumulated knowledge, skills, customs and values **from** one generation **to** another, e.g., instruction **in** schools. (dictionary.com)

D. آموزش و پرورش

«آموزش وپرورش» یا «تعلیم و تربیت» **(به** انگلیسی: education) دارای مفهوم و کاربردی گسترده و پیچیده، و **در** نتیجه مبهم است. **در** تعریف **(E)** این مفهوم، نه تنها **میان** مردم عادی، بلکه **میان** صاحبنظران تعلیم و تربیت هم اختلاف‌نظر وجود دارد. همچنین مفاهیمی مانند سوادآموزی، کارآموزی، بارآوردن، پروردن، تأدیب، اجتماعی کردن، و ... **نیز** جزئی **از** «آموزش و پرورش» محسوب می‌شوند یا **با** آن همپوشی دارند.

نخستین اندیشمندانی **که درباره** آموزش و پرورش داد سخن داده‌اند، فیلسوفان یونانی مانند سقراط و افلاطون بوده‌اند. **در** عصر حاضر **نیز** متفکران غربی تعاریفی **از** آموزش و پرورش **به** دست داده‌اند.

جان دیویی: آموزش و پرورش دوباره ساختن یا سازمان دادن تجربه است، **به** منظور **اینکه** معنای تجربه گسترش پیدا کند و **برای** هدایت و کنترل تجربیات بعدی، فرد **را** بهتر قادر سازد.

E. Research

Disquisition - A diligent or systematic search, a thorough investigation or research. Primary - A direct source **of** information or research, a document not emended **by** Secondary source - Information or research that is derivative, such as a comment **by** historian, an encyclopedia article, or a critical essay. Rh factor - Named **for** the rhesus monkeys used **in** research to identify blood types. All effort directed **toward** increased knowledge **of** natural phenomena and environment and **toward** the solution **of** problems **in** all fields **of** science. This includes basic and applied research. (dictionary.com)

The word "research" is used to describe a number **of** similar and often overlapping activities involving a search **for** information. For example, each **of** the following activities involves such a search; but the differences are significant and worth examining. (dictionary.com)

<div dir="rtl">

E. **تحقیق**

این کلمه، مانند کلمه «حق» **از** ریشه «ح ق ق» است. این ریشه **به** معنی ثابت، استوار و مطابق **با** واقع است. بنا **بر** این، «تحقیق» **در** لغت، **به** معنی کشف حقیقت و رسیدن **به** کنه یک امر است.تحقیق، کوششی روشمند **برای** پاسخگویی **به** مسأله‌های علمی است **که** منجر **به** نوآوری و پیشرفت علم می‌شود.

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F. *Anthropology*

1. The science that deals **with** the origins, physical and cultural development, biological characteristics, and social customs and beliefs **of** humankind.

2. The study **of** human beings' similarity **to** and divergence **from** other animals.

3. The science **of** humans and their works.

4. Also called philosophical anthropology. The study **of** the nature and essence **of** humankind. (dictionary.com)

5. The scientific study **of** humans, especially **of** their origin, their behavior, and their physical, social, and cultural development.

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F. **مردم شناسی**

مردم‌شناسی **(به** انگلیسی: anthropology) یا Ethnologie کاربرد **(E)** سنت فرانسوی آن است **که در** مکاتب آمریکایی و انگلیسی **به** «انسان‌شناسی اجتماعی و فرهنگی AnthropologieSociale et Culturelle» تعبیر می‌شود. **در** زبان انگلیسی «انسان‌شناسی Antropologie» مطالعهٔ **(YE)** انسان، **در** زبان فرانسه «مردم‌شناسی Ethnologie» مطالعه **(YE)** اقوام و **در** زبان آلمانی «فولکرکونده Völkerkunde» مطالعه **(YE)** اقوام ابتدایی است. مردم‌شناسی **از** جمله علوم‌اجتماعی عام است **که به** علم مطالعه **(YE)** زندگی انسان**در** مراحل **(E)** ابتدائی تعریف شده است و جنبه‌های گوناگون انسان‌شناسی و فرهنگ‌شناسی **را** مورد توجه قرار می‌دهد. آنچه مردم‌شناسی کنونی **را از** دیدگاه‌های**(E)** کهن جدا می‌سازد و **میان** این دو مرز می‌کشد، همانا روش تحقیق علمی است. مردم‌شناسی علم است و **از این** رو قادر **به** تبیین، پیش بینی و کنترل روابط پایدار بین نمودهای حوزه فرهنگ انسانی یا جامعه بشری است.

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G. *Psychology*

1. The science **of** the mind or **of** mental states and processes.

2. The science **of** human and animal behavior.

3. The sum or characteristics **of** the mental states and processes **of** a person or class **of** persons, or **of** the mental states and processes involved **in** a field **of** activity: the psychology **of** a soldier; the psychology ofpolitics.

4. Mental ploys or strategy: He used psychology **on** his parents to get a larger allowance. (dictionary.com)

The science dealing **with** mental phenomena and processes. Psychologists study emotions, perception, intelligence, consciousness, and the relationship **between** these phenomena and processes and the work **of** the glands and muscles. Psychologists are also interested **in** diseased or disordered mental states, and some psychologists provide therapy **for** individuals. **In** the United States, however, psychologists, unlike psychiatrists, are not medical doctors. (dictionary.com)

Note: The two main divisions **of** psychology are individual or personality psychology and social psychology; social psychology deals **with** the mental processes **of** groups. (dictionary.com)

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G. **روانشناسی**

روانشناسی، علم کاربردی مطالعه **(YE)** رفتار و فرایندهای ذهنی **بر** پایه‌یافته‌های‌علمی‌وتحقیق‌شده‌می‌باشد. رفتار**به** فعالیت‌ها و اعمالی اشاره دارد **که** قابل مشاهده و قابل اندازه‌گیری می‌باشند، مانند صحبت کردن و راه رفتن، اما فرایندهای ذهنی **به** اعمال و فرایندهایی اشاره دارد **که** صورت مستقیم قابل دیدن و درک کردن نیست و نمود آنها **را** می‌توان**در** رفتار و دیگر فرایندها مشاهده کرد، مانند تفکر و یا هیجان و ترس. امروزه، روانشناسی **از** سنین خردسالی و نوجوانی گذشته و پا **به** مرحله جوانی و بزرگسالی گذاشته است و **به** درجه‌ای **از** ثبات و استحکام رسیده‌است (شاملو، ۱۳۷۰). روانشناسی **با**در نظر گرفتن نیازهای**(E)** طبیعی انسان و درک او زمان، **به** عنوان پرچمدار مطالعهٔ **(YE)** پیچیدگی‌های**(E)** بشر امروز است.**در** یک تعریف ساختارشکن **از** روانشناسی، «روانشناسی عبارت **از** کشف دروغهایی است **که** خود می‌گوییم و همچنین تعیین حد و مرز راست هاست» **در** این تعریف انسان موجودی است **که** نخست باید خود **را** فتح کند. **در** نتیجه صداقت تمام عیار **با** خود پایه روانشناسی است. این تعریف روانشناسی را**با** خودشناسی پیوند می‌زند (محمدپور، ۱۳۸۸، ص: ۳۰).

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H. *Philosophy*

Philosophy is the study **of** general and fundamental problems, such as those connected **with** reality, existence, knowledge, values, reason, mind, and language. Philosophy is distinguished **from** other ways **of** addressing such

problems **by** its critical, generally systematic approach and its reliance **on** rational argument. The word "philosophy" comes **from** the Greek φιλοσοφία (*philosophia*), which literally means "love **of** wisdom". (dictionary.com)

H. فلسفه

فلسفه مطالعه (YE) مسائل کلی و بنیادی **پیرامون** موضوعاتی چون وجود، آگاهی، ارزش‌ها، خرد، ذهن و زبان است. وجه افتراق فلسفه **یا** راه‌های (E) دیگر پرداختن **به** پرسش‌های بنیادی این چنینی (راه‌هایی نظیر عرفان و اسطوره)، رویکرد نقادانه و معمولاً سازمان یافته فلسفه و تکیه‌اش **بر** استدلال‌های عقلانی است. فلسفه **در** آغاز **در** دولت-شهرهای‌یونان، به‌ویژه آتن شکل گرفت. واژهٔ فلسفه **به** معنای دوستداری (E) حکمت است و ریشه یونانی (**یونانی**: φιλοσοφία) دارد **که** سپس **به** عربی و فارسی راه یافته است. مشهور است **که** نخستین بار فیثاغورس واژه مذکور **را** به کار برده است؛ زمانی **که** **از** او پرسیدند: «آیا تو فرد حکیمی هستی؟» وی پاسخ داد:«نه، اما دوستدار حکمت (Philosopher) هستم.». **اگرچه** فلسفه پژوهشی تخصصی است؛ اما ریشه اش **در** نیازهای مشترک مردمی است **که** هرچند فیلسوف نیستند، **به** این نیازها آگاهند.

I. Translation

Translation is the communication **of** the meaning **of** a source-language text **by** means **of** an equivalent target-language text. Whereas interpreting undoubtedly antedates writing, translation began only **after** the appearance **of** written literature; there exist partial translations **of** the Sumerian *Epic of Gilgamesh* (ca. 2000 BCE) **into** Southwest Asian languages **of** the second millennium BCE. (dictionary.com)

I. ترجمه یا برگردان

صنعت و هنر ترجمه یا برگردان کار خطیر و دشوار درک و تفسیر موضوعات، معانی، و مفاهیم پدیدآمده **در** یک زبان (زبان مبدأ)، و سپس انتقال، معادل‌یابی، و بازسازی آنها **در** زبانی دیگر (زبان مقصد) **برابر** عهده می‌گیرد.

مترجمان کم‌تجربه **در** این فنّ ظریف، ممکن است **بر** این باورباشند **که** **در** زبان و ترجمه هم، درست همانند علمی دقیق، می‌توان هر واژه و مفهومی را هم به طور دقیق تعریف و درک کرد، و هم آنها **رابه** شیوه‌ای شفاف **یا** پیوندهای متقابل و کاملاً ثابت، **از** دو حوزه زبانی متفاوت **به** هم اتصال داد. هر چند چنین برخوردی ممکن‌است **در مورد** زبان‌های برنامه‌نویسی رایانه‌ای و زبان‌های ماشینی دیگر (همچون هوش‌مصنوعی) **تا** اندازه‌ای میسّر باشد، **در** خصوص زبان‌های طبیعی انسانی دور **از** واقعیّت و امکان‌است.

J. Semantics

Semantics (**from** Greek: sēmantiká, neuter plural **of** *sēmantikós*) is the study **of** meaning. It focuses **on** the relation **between** *signifiers*, such as words, phrases, signs, and symbols, and what they stand **for**, their denotata. Linguistic semantics is the study **of** meaning that is used to understand human expression **through** language. Other forms **of** semantics include the semantics **of** programming languages, formal logics, and semiotics. (dictionary.com)

J. معنا شناسی

معناشناسی، دانش بررسی و مطالعهٔ (YE) معانی **در** زبان‌های انسانی است. بطورکلی، بررسی ارتباط میان واژه و معنا **را** معناشناسی می‌گویند. معنا شناسی گرفته شده **از** لغت یونانی semantika اسم خنثی جمع semantias علم مطالعهٔ (YE) معنا می‌باشد. این علم معمولاً **بر روی** رابطه **بین** دلالت کننده‌ها مانند لغات، عبارتها، علائم و نشانه‌ها و اینکه معانیشان **برای** چه استفاده می‌شود تمرکز دارد. مفاهیم زبان شناسی و زبان شناسی معنایی بررسی معانی است **کهتوسط** انسانها **برای** نشان دادن خودشان **در** طول زبان استفاده می‌شود. دیگر اشکال معنا شناسی زبانها برنامه ریزی شده، منطق‌های مجرد و نماد شناسی **را** شامل می‌شود.

III. COMPARISON AND CONTRAST

As it is observed, a number of prepositions have been found in each English and Persian paragraph. It reveals that prepositions are parts of speech that are frequently used in most of the sentences in English and Persian. After recognizing all prepositions in paragraphs, the frequency of each preposition was calculated. The total number of prepositions used in all English paragraphs was 126 and the total number of them in Persian paragraphs was216. In the following, the frequency of each preposition is demonstrated.

A. Total Number of English Prepositions

Of = 59   with = 8   in = 14   at = 2   into = 1   for = 4   upon = 1   across = 1   about = 2   under = 1   from = 8   to = 6 on = 5   by = 5   toward = 2   between = 2   after = 1   through = 3

B. Total Number of Persian Prepositions

14 =را   11 =برای   25 =که   8 =بر   49 =به   22 = از   27 = در
(E) Or(YE) = 30

8 = با   2 = اگر چه   1 = به وسیله   3 = نیز   1 = به جای   1 = پس از   2 = توسط   1 = بدون

1 = بر روی   1 = بین   1 = در مورد   1 = پیرامون   1 = از این رو   1 = درباره   3 = میان

1 = تا   1 = اینکه

The most frequently used preposition in English was ' *of* ' firstly ; then there were " in , with, from , to , by , on , for , through , about , between , at , toward , into , after , under , across , and upon", respectively.

It is said that there are almost 150 prepositions in English. Since the collected data for the Present study indicates, the most common prepositions used in English sentences are 'of, In,with,to,by,on,etc.' that are 18.On the other hand, 216 prepositions were generally founded in Persian paragraphs from Which the most frequently used was به , then they were میان ، نیز ، با ، بر ، برای ، را ، از ، که ، در.

It is important to notice that (E) or (YE) is not a preposition in Persian, but it is called 'Naghshnemaye Ezafe 'which comes to add one word to the next in order to connect them together . Therefore, it was considered important because it is the semantic equivalent of some English prepositions mostly 'of'. Most of these prepositions are semantically equivalent in the two languages. Possible equivalent prepositions can be seen below:

Of = (E) or (YE) – از   in = در   with = توسط ، به وسیله ، با   from = از   to = به

By = توسط ، به وسیله ، با   on = بر ، برروی ، روی   for = برای   through = از طریق

About = پیرامون ، درمورد ، درباره   between = میان ، بین   at = در   toward = به سوی

Across = در جهت حرکت   upon = بر روی ، بر ، روی   without = بدون   into = به ، در میان ، در   after = به دنبال ، بعد ، پس از ، بعد under = زیر   به سمت

In regard to strict rules of English and Persian for using prepositions correctly in sentences and also regarding the above mentioned semantic equivalents, some probable errors of L$_2$learners of English will be predicted in the following section.

IV. PREDICTION OF LEARNERS' ERRORS

One of the common errors that a Persian speaker may commit in the process of learning English as a L$_2$ may be that the learners may tend to use a preposition where there is no need to use it. As the collected data indicated, the reason is that the number of prepositions used in Persian is more than the number of them in English. It seems that few sentences without any preposition can be found in Persian. Therefore, learners may tend to add an unnecessary preposition (about) to the verb 'discuss' which does not have any specific preposition in the following sentence : 'I discussed *about* my problems in the classroom.'*In such a situation students usually look for an appropriate semantic equivalent to express their idea completely. So, they may choose 'about', an unnecessary addition, to say درباره ی which causes an error.

In English, it is a rule that two prepositions cannot follow each other in a sentence, however it is possible in Persian and there is no such a rule in Persian language. Notice that a preposition like 'into' in English consists of two prepositions of 'in' and 'to', but it works as a single preposition and does not reject the rule. In paragraph 6, line 6, the following sentence includes two separate prepositions one comes after another: آنچه مردم شناسی کنونی را از دیدگاه هایکهن جدا می سازد. This point can cause L$_2$ learners to do the same thing in an English sentence, i.e., to bring a preposition after the other preposition and make an error.

The other remarkable point is that some of English prepositions have more than one Persian equivalent. For instance, 'of' has two semantic equivalents: sometimes Naghshnemaye Ezafe (E) and other times, 'از', but there is no such a Naghshnema among English prepositions. This can make learners commit some errors. In this condition, the learners have to unlearn Naghshnemaye Ezafe because it is not included in the list of English prepositions.

According to Burt and Kiparsky (1975), it is a strict rule in English that after prepositions, a complement takes the gerund form or a nominal form. If the complement of a preposition is a verb, it should appear in its gerund form. A possible difficulty that the L$_2$ learners may encounter here is with 'to' that sometimes can be troublesome. 'To' when used as an infinitive attached is not considered a preposition, so the following verb has to be appeared in its base form. But as a preposition, 'to' belongs to the first verb; in that it is necessary to complete the verbs meaning and so should be followed by a gerund instead of an infinitive. Therefore, 'to' is not a plain infinitive attached, as some students think. A L$_2$ learner, thus, can make the following errors:

His behavior will lead to **go** to prison.* (going)

We look forward to **see** you.* (seeing)

At semantic level, sometimes students may have problem with finding right English equivalents for Persian prepositions. It can be a cause for making some common errors in using prepositions. For instance, more than one English equivalent exists for the same meaning in Persian. g., 'with' and 'by' both mean با ، به وسیله ، توسط which may cause the following error: I played football **by** myfriend.* (with). This is one of the most common errors that Persian students usually make. Other examples are 'of& from' and 'in & at' that each one can be used wrongly instead of the other.

There are many verbs in English that have their own specific preposition. Because students may be unaware of the preposition of a certain verb in English, they may transfer their intended meaning from their mother tongue to English by using a wrong preposition. For example:

Rely <u>too</u>* (on) = تکیه کردن به = afraid <u>from</u>* (of)=ترسیدن از

Composed <u>from</u>* (of)=تشکیل شدن از = married <u>with</u> * (to)=ازدواج کردن با

Most of the predicated errors are rooted in transferring concepts from Persian to English which causes interference in the process of learning.

V. SIGNIFICANCE OF CA IN LANGUAGE TEACHING (PEDAGOGICAL EXPLOITATIONS)

As CA is considered significant in its applied form, it must be borne in mind that it provides insights and carries implications for teaching (Wilkins, 1972, as cited in James, 1980). Applied CA can benefit from consequences of theoretical CA. Therefore applied CAs are interpretations of theoretical CAs rather than independent executions, as James (1980) notes. Teachers will be able to apply theoretical CA to predict some errors that may be committed by learners of English as a L_2. They have to notice that it can be difficult and confusing for students to keep their first language system in mind and to add a completely new language system to it as well. This is due to the fact that the components of learners'L_1 (Persian) don't simply fit the system of L_2 (English). Understanding the systematicity and separation of languages is a remarkable responsibility of language teachers since they have to bear in mind that every language learner is a single individual who should learn two self-contained language systems. By predicting learners' possible errors and understanding language transfer mechanisms, the teachers would be able to handle both language systems in the process of learning.

the most efficient materials are those based on a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner (James, 1980).With respect to this point, careful comparison of L_1 and L_2 can enable material designers to devise materials and learning activities that can control learners' errors in a right way.

VI. CONCLUSION

The findings of this limited cross-linguistic study show that the errors that Persian learners of English mostly commit in using English prepositions have root in their L_1. In other words, using wrong preposition, addition of an unnecessary preposition, or deletion of prepositions are often because students tend to transfer their intended meanings to English in the same way they are expressed in Persian. This is the primary reason of making errors in using prepositions at syntactic level of both languages. However, it does not mean that all committed errors are because of L_1interference; sometimes L_2 learners make errors due to their lack of knowledge. E.g., they use a wrong preposition for a specific verb because they simply don't know what the right preposition for that verb is. In contrast to CA beliefs, it may not be reasonable to recognize L_1 interference as the mere source of L_2 learners 'errors. In this regard, careful examinations of learners L_1 and L_2 and careful observation of errors in classroom environment are required to realize what other sources of errors exist in learning a language as a L_2.

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Seyedeh Sara Jafari received her B.A. degree in TEFL from Sheikhbahaee University, Isfahan, Iran. She continued her M.A. in TEFL at Azad University, Abadeh, Iran. She has been teaching English to Iranian EFL learners at several language institutes for more than four years. She has also taught General English courses at Azad University of Safashahr, Fars. Now, she is the deputy of research department of kharazmi-international institute in safashahr, Fars. As a researcher, she has contributed to some local and international journals such as *national conferences in Iran*, *journal of English teaching in Iran*, *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, th*eory and practice in language studies,* and *Horizon Research Publishing, USA (HRPUB).*Her main areas of interest include second language acquisition, first language acquisition, language teaching methodology, the role of affective variables in language teaching, psycholinguistic and contrastive analysis.

EFL Learners' Cognitive Styles as a Factor in the Development of Metaphoric Competence

Yi-chen Chen

Department of Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics, Yuan Ze University, Taiwan

Chia-Yen Lin

Department of Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics, Yuan Ze University, Taiwan

Shuchang Lin

Department of Foreign Language and Applied Linguistics, Yuan Ze University, Taiwan

Abstract—The study aims to investigate the effects of EFL learners' cognitive styles on the development of their metaphoric competence, and to examine effective methods of teaching and learning figurative language. The study's participants were 53 university students in Taiwan. Two measuring instruments were developed and adopted: the Metaphoric Competence Test (MCT), to measure the participants' metaphoric competence, and the Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT), to examine their cognitive styles. The participants were separated into two groups, and each group received one of the following cognitive-oriented methods: instruction adopting conceptual metaphors (CM) or instruction involving metaphoric mappings (MM). The effects of learning, including the participants' performance on awareness and retention, were cross-examined with the participants' cognitive styles. Findings from the study showed that learners with a holistic/field-dependent cognitive style benefited more from CM instruction, while learners with an analytic/field-independent cognitive style performed better when receiving MM instruction. Moreover, through both methods of instruction, learners with an analytic/field-independent cognitive style improved significantly in the delayed posttest; such a finding suggests that learners with a field-independent cognitive style tend to be more reflective in what they have learned. These findings provide new insight into aspects of figurative language studies and pedagogical applications.

Index Terms—metaphoric competence, cognitive styles, conceptual metaphor, metaphoric mappings, English as Foreign Language

I. INTRODUCTION

While cultural globalization is considered one key factor for language learning (Kumaravadivelu, 2008), English learners in a Foreign Language (EFL) context, such as in Taiwan, suffer from limited exposure to an authentic English environment and from rare opportunities of direct language use, and thus they may encounter difficulties in acquiring an advanced level of English proficiency. One noticeable difficulty is learning and using *figurative language*, the language whose intended meaning does not coincide with the literal meanings of the words and sentences used (Glucksberg, 2001). Figurative language can be witnessed through its prevalence not only in art, music, sculpture, and literature, but also in ordinary language (Jakobson, 2003). Contemporary views of figurative language contend that it does not occur primarily in language but rather in thought; people understand the world using metaphors (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). That is to say, figurative language is believed to be an inherent part of culture in that it reflects the intangibles in a culture (Kövecses, 2005). However, these culture-bound figurative expressions may hinder EFL learners in their comprehension of these expressions, as well as lead to possible consequences like miscommunication (Cakir, 2006) and misinterpretations (Mohammad & Assiri, 2011).

Regarding L2 figurative language learning, research carried out by cognitive linguists (e.g., Boers, 2000a, 2000b; Boers & Demecheleer, 2001; Boers, Demecheleer, & Eyckmans, 2004; Boers, Eyckmans, & Stengers, 2007; Deignan, Gabrys, & Solska, 1997; Dong, 2004; Kövecses, 2001) has made significant progress in this area. Cognitive linguists contend that figurative expressions are motivated by the process of mapping corresponding traits from one conceptual domain to another (Lakoff, 2006); thus, to learn figurative language efficiently, L2 learners need to raise their awareness of such semantic motivation, rather than rely on the rigid memorization of fixed forms (Boers & Lindstromberg, 2006). Among the proposed awareness-raising methods, a cognitive-oriented method proposed by Boers (2000a, 2000b), which adopted the idea of metaphoric themes (a.k.a. *conceptual metaphor* in Lakoff & Johnson's (1980) term), has already received plenty of empirical evidence on its beneficial effects on L2 learners' awareness, as well as on retention enhancement in learning figurative expressions. On the other hand, another cognitive-based method proposed by Kövecses (2001) suggested using *metaphoric mappings* to elaborate the systematic correspondences between two concepts in order to assist awareness and to facilitate comprehension. Both methods are founded on the

operations of learners' cognitive abilities during the process of learning.

Since figurative language learning involves cognitive operations which learners perform during the thinking and learning process, learners' individual characteristics, such as cognitive styles, should be considered an important part of this process. Researchers (e.g., Boers & Littlemore, 2000; Littlemore, 2001a) have claimed that learners with different cognitive styles process metaphors at different speeds and with different strategies, and thus have different learning effects: learners who have a holistic/field-dependent cognitive style are more likely to blend the conception of the target domain with the source domain and thus process metaphors more quickly, whereas those with an analytic/field-independent cognitive style are more likely to draw maps across two distinct domains and hence take more time to process metaphors. These different learning preferences may also influence the ways in which learners deal with difficulties caused by cultural specificity. To suit learners with distinct cognitive and learning styles and to facilitate learning, the learning effects of the two types of instruction methods mentioned above should be investigated.

The present study aims to investigate the effects of EFL learners' cognitive styles and learning strategies on their development of metaphoric competence, and to examine effective methods of teaching and learning figurative language. The following three research questions will be addressed:

Research Question 1: Regarding raising learners' awareness of figurative expressions, which teaching method would be more effective for learners with a field-dependent cognitive style and which would be more effective for learners with a field-independent cognitive style?

Research Question 2: Regarding facilitating longer-term retention of figurative expressions, which teaching method would be more beneficial for learners with a field-dependent cognitive style and which would be more beneficial for learners with a field-independent cognitive style?

Research Question 3: In what ways do EFL learners' cognitive styles and learning strategies influence their development of metaphoric competence?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Development of Metaphoric Competence

Metaphoric competence refers to the ability that a language learner needs in terms of understanding figurative language, including metaphors and metonymies (Littlemore, 2001a). Low (1988) pointed out that if L2 learners hope to be seen as competent users of the language, they need to develop certain metaphor-related skills, in which native speakers are expected to be fluent. Littlemore and Low (2006) have even suggested that *metaphoric competence* should be equal to *communicative competence* in terms of importance; they further argued that metaphoric competence has a great influence on second language learners' development of communicative competence. Thus, metaphoric competence is indispensable for L2 language learners in acquiring a higher level of proficiency.

Figurative language used to be regarded as a serious problem for L2 students. For one thing, figurative expressions are considered fixed usages with non-compositional meanings, which were mainly learned through a noticing-and-memorization approach in an EFL context (Chen, 2010). However, rote learning may result in short retention and impracticability of what has been taught (Brown, 2000, p.84). In addition, specific cultural conventions that exist in figurative expressions may lead to learning and comprehension difficulties (Deignan, et al., 1997; Littlemore, 2001b, 2011), especially for foreign language learners who rarely have direct access to a target culture. To overcome the binding power caused by L1 entrenchment, L2 learners first should be aware of the existence of new construal systems in the target language (Littlemore, 2009).

Cognitive perspectives on second language acquisition provide promising solutions to the problem of teaching figurative language to EFL learners. Cognitive linguists believe that raising learners' awareness can be beneficial: awareness of similarities and differences between L1 and L2 can help EFL learners to take advantage of universal concepts, as well as to breach the cultural boundary created by the lack of equivalent L1 expressions (Deignan et al., 1997; Dong, 2004). On the other hand, awareness of the semantic motivations behind figurative expressions, namely conceptual metaphors, can assist EFL learners to make logical and systematic inferences between the conceptual domains that are mapped (Boers, 2000a, 2000b; Kövecses, 2001).

The cognitive-oriented approach is realized in various forms of activities, including learning the etymology of the metaphorical language (Boers, 2001; Boers, et al., 2007) and guessing the meanings of imageable metaphorical expressions (Boers & Demecheleer, 2001). However, just because figurative meaning extensions are believed to be motivated rather than arbitrary does not mean that the origins or the etymology of figurative expressions are fully predictable (Boers et al., 2007). Difficulties mainly come from the degrees of conventionalization in the target language and a discrepancy between the cultures of the two languages. Therefore, two methods which draw on more fundamental cognitive operations are suggested: conceptual metaphors (CM) instruction and metaphoric mappings (MM) instruction. These methods mainly follow cognitive linguists' contention that figurative language formulates the conceptual system that employs conceptual mechanisms "by which we understand and structure one domain of experience in terms of another domain of a different kind" (Johnson, 1987, p.15).

CM instruction complies with the contention of cognitive linguistics that language is motivated when it is neither arbitrary nor fully predictable (Lakoff, 1987) and that insightful L2 learning through the process of understanding metaphoric themes (a.k.a. conceptual metaphors) should be implemented often in language classrooms. Boers (2000a,

2000b, 2001) has conducted several studies on this method and has claimed positive effects on EFL learners' awareness, comprehension, and retention.

However, this method of providing conceptual metaphors is still limited because it focuses mainly on raising learners' awareness of semantic motivation but pays less attention to possible gaps between different cultures and languages, which may lead to greater difficulty for L2 learners (Kövecses, 2001). In Boers' studies, the participants were either French (Boers, 2000a, 2000b) or Dutch (Boers, 2000a, 2001) speakers whose native language originated from a language family similar to English, which suggests that the differences between their cultures and languages were relatively smaller than between other cultures and languages. When considering Asian EFL learners whose native languages are relatively more distant from English in origin as well as in typology, difficulties caused by cultural gaps may be more serious for these learners. For instance, in Vasiljevic's (2011, 2012a, 2012b) studies with Japanese EFL learners, although the learners' retention and recall were both improved through CM instruction, with finer analysis, those learners who studied conceptual metaphors in Japanese, their L1, outperformed those who learned conceptual metaphors in English, their L2. Vasiljevic claimed that the conceptual metaphors were more transparent to EFL learners when they were delivered in their native language. Such a finding suggests that for Asian EFL learners, the distance between native Asian languages and English is great.

MM instruction was proposed by Kövecses (2001) as explicit instruction to facilitate domain-linking processes between L1 and L2 figurative concepts. Metaphoric mappings comprise two types of mappings: *ontological mappings* that characterize the correspondences between basic constituent elements in the source domain and in the target domain, and *epistemic mappings* that carry knowledge about elements in the source domain to elements in the target domain. This method combines two main variables: conceptual metaphors and the universality and specificity of cultures and languages. If two languages have the same conceptual metaphors but different linguistic instantiations, ontological mappings may help learners create links between the distinct linguistic expressions of the two languages. On the other hand, if two languages have different conceptual metaphors, or if one language has a conceptual metaphor that does not exist in the other language, epistemic mappings can help learners relate their knowledge of the used and abstract to the unused and concrete. Chen's (2011) study with 115 Taiwanese EFL learners provides evidence to the beneficial effects of the MM instruction on overcoming difficulties caused by cultural specificity. Chen claimed that the MM instruction provided structural, systematic, and logical mapping processes, and thus it was helpful in facilitating learners' awareness and retention of expressions involving abstract and unfamiliar concepts.

B.   Metaphoric Competence and Learners' Cognitive Styles

The correspondence between cognitive styles and learning styles is considered close (Brown, 1987). *Cognitive style* refers to an individual's preferred approach to organizing and representing information (Riding & Rayner, 1987). Many dimensions of cognitive styles have been proposed, but they are considered different manifestations of the same basic cognitive style continuum, as shown in Table 1 (Littlemore, 2001a). Among the dimensions of cognitive styles, field-dependent and field-independent are the most frequently studied styles (Kim, 2001: 326). Field-dependent (FD) style is a perceptual cognitive style dominated by the overall organization of the surrounding field, where parts of the field are experienced as embedded in the field. On the other hand, field-independent (FI) style is a perceptual cognitive style in which parts of the field are perceived as discrete from the surrounding field as a whole (Witkin et al., 1977). The fact that FD learners tend to look at a learning task comprehensively while FI learners are better at analyzing and using rules leads to different learning strategies: FD learners may prefer deductive learning, whereas FI learners may prefer inductive learning (Abraham, 1985).

TABLE 1.
COGNITIVE CONTINUUM BASED ON LITTLEMORE'S (2001A) MODEL

Holistic/Field-dependent	Analytic/Field-independent
Divergent/Memory-based	Convergent/Analysis-based
Loose analogical reasoning	Tight analogical reasoning

Studies have found that learners with different cognitive styles would lead to distinct learning preferences, such as preference of communicative strategies (Littlemore, 2001c), language learning strategies (Oxford, 1990; Shi, 2011), and types of classroom interaction (Yang, 2011). When using L2 to describe an object, holistic/FD learners prefer communication strategies which were based on comparison between familiar and unfamiliar objects; on the other hand, analytic/FI learners use more strategies that involved focusing on individual features of the target object (Littlemore, 2001c). Moreover, analytic/FI learners tend to use more often the memory, cognitive, and metacognitive learning strategies (Shi, 2011), and may be better at lexical, grammar, reading and writing in second language learning (Oxford, 1990). Though many individual differences have been identified as influential in second language learning (Oxford, 2003), cognitive style is generally viewed as "less malleable" (Littlemore, 2001c: 256). Thus, language teachers are suggested to be more interactive in adapting teaching pedagogies to students' needs (Yang, 2011).

Findings from research (e.g., Boers & Littlemore, 2000; Hashemian *et al.*, 2012; Littlemore, 2001a) also suggest that people process conceptual metaphors in different ways: learners who have a holistic/FD cognitive style are likely to blend the conception of the target domain with the source domain and thus process metaphors more quickly, whereas

those with an analytic/FI cognitive style are likely to draw maps across two distinct domains and hence take more time to process metaphors. In other words, holistic/FD learners are more likely to treat conceptual domains as one integrated entity, where the associated characteristics are developed deductively, while analytic/FI learners are more likely to conceive of the source and target domain as separate parts and induce several conceptual mappings together to arrive at a representative conceptual metaphor. Boers and Littlemore (2000), in their study with 71 French EFL university students, found that the participants with holistic cognitive style were more likely than those with analytic cognitive style to blend their conception of the target domain with the source domain. Littlemore (2001a) in her study with 82 French EFL university students also found that, when the given time was limited, holistic students managed to recognize metaphors more quickly than analytic students did; she claims that learners with holistic cognitive style, due to their preference of processing metaphors as whole blending concepts rather than discrete individual fragments, could react faster than learners with analytic style. Hashemian and the colleagues (2012), based on the analysis of 80 Persian EFL learners' performances in a metaphor recognition test, claim the similar results as the previous studies that significant differences exited between the FD and FI cognitive styles in the test.

C. Potential Effect of Cognitive Styles on the Development of Metaphoric Competence

The differences in the learners' cognitive styles and in their responses to figurative expressions imply that different types of instruction are needed in order to help EFL learners to acquire metaphoric competence. Both CM instruction and MM instruction have empirical evidence that proves their benefits for EFL learners in learning figurative language. However, they are different both in the way they assist learners in learning and in their cognitive operations. CM instruction requires learners to imagine the relationship between two conceptual domains by giving them the topic (the target domain) and the foundation (the source domain). Learners need to develop the structures of both domains and then link corresponding traits between the two domains. On the other hand, MM instruction facilitates learners to link the corresponding traits between domains by showing them the relationships; learners then need to collect all the correspondences and elaborate the patterns. In other words, CM instruction is more deductive-oriented, whereas MM instruction is more inductive-oriented. The two different orientations may thus suit learners with different cognitive styles and learning styles.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in this study were 69 Chinese learners of English from universities in Taiwan. They were native Chinese speakers and had learned English for at least six years in junior and senior high schools. The participants' English proficiency levels ranged from intermediate to high-intermediate. Learners with such levels of English proficiency possess sufficient English lexical knowledge, although they are still unfamiliar with more advanced language use, and they are believed to be the most responsive group.

The participants were categorized into four groups based on two sets of variables: FD/FI and CM/MM. However, to avoid possible bias caused by researcher expectancy or a suspected Hawthorne effect, the *double-blind* technique was used. The participants were divided into two groups according to two different cognitive styles. The participants in each group were randomly separated further into two groups and received one of two types of instruction. Because the participants were kept from knowing which instruction they would receive, this minimized the influence resulting from the participants' speculations. In addition, it reduced the possibility of bias by the researchers.

B. Instruments

Measure of metaphoric competence. The Metaphoric Competence Test (MCT) used in the present study was developed based on Littlemore's (2001) model of metaphoric competence and was adapted from Chen's (2011) study. The test had been pilot-tested three times before it was administered in Chen's (2011) study; the reliability of the test was consistently high (Cronbach's alpha > .8, n = 48), which indicated good internal consistency. As for validity, the test was reviewed by three native English speakers to ensure grammaticality and authenticity. In sum, the MCT was found to be highly reliable and valid judging from its previous experiences; thus, it was chosen to measure the participants' metaphoric awareness in the present study.

Chen's Metaphoric Competence Test consists of 48 English sentences collected from dictionaries, a corpus (the British National Corpus), and the internet. Among the 48 sentences, 24 contained figurative expressions, while the other 24 did not; key words or phrases were chosen from the 24 sentences with figurative expressions to create their counterparts, which had no figurative intentions in the expressions. These 48 test items were used as the database for the test used in the present study to create three sets of tests, one each for the pretest phase, the one-week posttest phase, and the three-month posttest phase. To preserve the tests' reliability and validity, 30 test items, which contained 15 sentences with figurative expressions and their 15 counterparts, out of the total 48 items were randomly chosen to create a test set.

The participants of the study were given 15 minutes to finish the test. They were asked to first read each sentence, and then determine whether the sentence contained figurative expressions or whether it needed to be understood by thinking figuratively. The participants were required to rate the certainty of their judgments on a scale of 1 to 5: (1) The

sentence obviously has no metaphor/metonymy; (2) The sentence may not have metaphor/metonymy; (3) This is the middle of the scale. I'm not sure whether it is a metaphor/metonymy or not; (4) The sentence may have metaphor/metonymy; (5) The sentence obviously has metaphor/metonymy. To avoid reading problems caused by unknown vocabulary, one extra option (0) was given as well. The results of the test were interpreted as the effect of raised awareness on figurative language: if awareness was raised, learners would be able to find figurative language uses and to respond more affirmatively. The mean total scores were deemed an indication of a participant's ability to notice and interpret expressions in a figurative sense.

Measure of cognitive styles. The Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) was adopted in the present study. It was originally designed by Oltman, Raskin, and Witkin (1971), and is acknowledged as "the most widely used version of test in the second language acquisition research" (Hhatib & Hosseinpur, 2011: 641). The test was later modified and translated into Chinese by Wu (1987); the present study adopts Wu's version. The GEFT is a perceptual test developed to examine a subject's cognitive ability to locate a simple shape embedded within a complex figure, and thus to distinguish FD styles from FI styles.

The participants were required to finish 25 items within 12 minutes. They were asked to trace with a pen the simple figures embedded in the complex geometric figures. In the first two minutes, they were given seven practice items to familiarize themselves with the procedure of the test. In the following 10 minutes, they needed to complete the 18 items that comprised the actual test. The completed tests were collected and scored: one point was given if the shape asked was correctly identified. The full score of the test was 18 points.

The participants who scored greater than one-half standard deviation above the mean were considered FI, while the participants who scored less than one-half standard deviation below the mean were considered FD. The participants who scored one-half standard deviation above or below the mean were considered field neutral.

C. Instructions

The instruction phase consisted of two parts: the first part is for the instructor to explain the idea of *metaphor*, and the second part is for the participants to practice ways of learning proposed by the instructions. A short article written in English was given to both the CM group and the MM group. The article was about how to control emotions and included several figurative expressions of distinct conceptual metaphors or metonymy, such as bottle up the emotions of emotions are the heat of a fluid in a container, (someone) explode of anger is fire, and (the rage) pump up in the arousal of anger is body heat. The participants were asked to read the article first, and then the teacher led a discussion in Chinese about the metaphoric/metonymic expressions used in the article. Students were asked to circle any metaphoric/metonymic expressions used in the article and to categorize those expressions into groups with similar ideas or concepts.

Then, the participants would be given an exercise to guide them through the mapping process. In the CM group, the participants received a list of 15 figurative expressions. The written instructions asked them to categorize these expressions into groups according to the common themes and to identify the clues. Examples are shown in (1) below.

(1) Instructions: The followings are 15 expressions. Categorize these expressions into groups and identify the clues. The first one has been done for you.

He has a *ferocious* temper.	She *blew up* at me.	He made *inflammatory* remarks.
She *exploded*.	I am *boiling* with anger.	He was *hot under the collar*.
Don't *snap at* me.	He *unleashed* his anger.	Don't *bite* my *heat off*.
She was *breathing* fire.	She is all *steamed up*.	He was *breathing fire*.
She *flipped her lid*.	*Simmer down*.	~~What he said *added fuel to the fire*.~~

Anger is fire.
What he said added <u>fuel</u> to the <u>fire</u>

In the MM group, the participants received the same 15 figurative expressions, which had already been categorized under conceptual metaphors, and the written instructions asked them to point out the corresponding traits between the source and target concepts. Examples are shown in (2) below. After 20 minutes, the handouts were collected, thus ending the procedure for the first week.

(2) Instructions: Think about the corresponding characteristics and relationships between anger and comparable concepts, and briefly write down these relationships. The first one has been done for you.

ANGER IS FIRE	
If you add fuel to the fire, the fire will rise up and become stronger. ➔ *add fuel to the fire = make angry person much angrier!*	~~What he said *added fuel to the fire*.~~
	He made an *inflammatory* remark.
	He was *hot under the collar*.
	She *exploded*.

D. Data Collection Procedure

The study's experiment included three phases. In Phase One, the participants were asked to complete the GEFT in 12 minutes. Then, they were given the first set of the MCT and were required to finish the test within 15 minutes. CM

instruction or MM instruction was given after these two tests. One group of participants received a list with randomly arranged expressions and written instructions asking them to categorize those expressions into conceptual metaphors by recognizing their corresponding traits; this half of the participants was the CM group. The other group of participants received a list which had already categorized the same 18 expressions under conceptual metaphors and written instructions asking them to point out the corresponding traits of the source domain and the target domain; this half of the participants was the MM group. The participants spent 20 minutes completing the lists; Phase One was then complete.

Phase Two was held one week after Phase One. The participants received the second set of the MCT and were given 15 minutes to complete it. At the beginning of the test, the participants were asked whether they had self-studied relevant subjects during the week; answers to this question were to ensure that the participants' performances were the result of the effect of learning.

Phase Three was held three months after Phase Two. The participants received the third set of the MCT and took 15 minutes to complete it. As in Phase Two, the participants were asked at the beginning of the test whether they spent time studying relevant subjects during the past three months; the answers to this question not only minimized the possible bias from the participants' self-studies but also offered a clue to whether the participants' interest in figurative language was enhanced.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Results of the GEFT

The performances of the participants in the GEFT were analyzed and used to determine the participants' cognitive styles. Although 69 students initially participated in Phase One, due to occasional absences and those who dropped the class during the semester, only 53 students participated in all three phases of the experiment. The results of the GEFT are reported in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS OF THE GEFT

	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
GEFT Scores	53	3	18	13.34	4.24

According to the test criteria, the participants who scored greater than one-half standard deviation above the mean (i.e., those who scored 15 or higher) were regarded as FI learners; on the other hand, those who scored less than one-half standard deviation below the mean (i.e., those who scored 11 or lower) were considered FD learners. The remaining learners were deemed field neutral.

Among the 53 participants, 40 participants were found to be learners with FD or FI cognitive styles. The distribution of the participants with different cognitive styles in each instruction group is displayed in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS FOR EACH COGNITIVE STYLE IN THE CM GROUP AND THE MM GROUP

	CM Group[a]	MM Group[b]
Field-independent (FI)	14	12
Field-dependent (FD)	8	6
Total Number	22	18

a The number of participants judged as field neutral was 8.
b The number of participants judged as field neutral was 5.

B. Results of the Metaphoric Competence Test

To investigate the learning effects of the participants after receiving the different types of instruction, the differences between the mean total scores of FI and FD participants in each instructional group were calculated. Table 4 shows that, in both groups, the FI and FD participants did not have significant differences between them before receiving their respective instruction ($t = .30$, $p > .05$; $t = 0.64$, $p > .05$). In the CM group, the mean total scores of both FD and FI participants in the two posttests were improved; however, the mean scores of the FD participants were consistently higher than those of the FI participants, although not significantly ($t = -1.34$, $p > .05$; $t = .55$, $p > .05$).

On the other hand, in the MM group, the mean total scores of the FI participants in the one-week and the three-month posttests increased, whereas the mean total scores of the FD participants increased in the one-week posttest yet decreased in the three-month posttest. The mean total scores of the FI participants in the three-month posttest were significantly higher than those of the FD participants. Since the two groups of participants did not differ in their metaphoric competence before receiving their respective instruction, the significant improvement in the scores of the FI participants regarding their ability to find figurative intentions in expressions could be reasonably attributed to their learning experience during MM instruction.

To further determine the reason why the FI participants outperformed the FD participants significantly in the three-month posttest, a comparison of the participants' performance on test items with and without figurative expressions was carried out. Table 5 shows that the FI participants performed significantly better than the FD

participants in judging sentences with figurative expressions ($t = 3.84$, $p < .01$). On the other hand, no significant difference in judging sentences without figurative expressions was found between the FI and FD participants. The results indicate that the FI participants achieved significantly higher mean total scores than the FD participants in the three-month posttest due to the significant improvement in their awareness of figurative intentions.

TABLE 4.
COMPARISON OF MEAN TOTAL SCORES BETWEEN FI AND FD PARTICIPANTS

Stage	Cognitive Style [a]	M	SD	t [b]	p
Performances of the Participants Receiving CM Instruction					
Pretest	FI	80.57	9.12	0.30	0.76
	FD	79.12	13.50		
One-week Posttest	FI	80.07	14.05	-1.34	0.19
	FD	87.75	10.31		
Three-month Posttest	FI	85.07	15.02	-0.55	0.58
	FD	88.37	9.97		
[a] For FI group, $n = 14$; for FD group, $n = 8$. [b] For all the tests, $df = 20$.					
Performances of the Participants Receiving MM Instruction					
Pretest	FI	83.25	13.38	0.64	0.53
	FD	79.00	13.02		
One-week Posttest	FI	87.00	12.25	0.28	0.78
	FD	84.67	23.94		
Three-month Posttest	FI	97.75	14.09	2.83	0.01*
	FD	79.67	9.24		
[a] For FI group, $n = 12$; for FD group, $n = 6$. [b] For all the tests, $df = 16$. * $p < .05$					

TABLE 5.
COMPARISON OF MEAN TOTAL SCORES OF SENTENCES WITH AND WITHOUT FIGURATIVE EXPRESSIONS BETWEEN FI AND FD PARTICIPANTS IN THE MM GROUP IN THE THREE-MONTH POSTTEST

Stage	Group [a]	M	SD	t [b]	p
Sentences with Figurative Expressions	FI	64.83	5.36	3.84	0.00**
	FD	53.17	7.41		
Sentences without Figurative Expressions	FI	32.92	9.78	1.50	0.15
	FD	26.50	4.93		
[a] For FI group, $n = 12$; for FD group, $n = 6$. [b] For all the tests, $df = 16$. ** $p < .01$					

To ensure the effect of the two different instructions on the participants with different cognitive styles, comparisons of the participants' performances in each group of instruction were conducted. Table 6 shows that the FI participants of the MM group achieved higher mean total scores than those of the CM group in all three tests; particularly, in the three-month posttest, the FI participants of the MM group performed significantly better than the CM group ($t = -2.21$, $p < .05$). As for the FD participants, the mean total scores of the CM group were consistently higher than those of the MM group in all three tests, although no significance was reported.

TABLE 6.
COMPARISON OF MEAN TOTAL SCORES BETWEEN CM INSTRUCTION AND MM INSTRUCTION

	Instruction	M	SD	t [b]	p
Performances of the FI Participants					
Pretest	CM	80.57	9.13	-0.60	0.55
	MM	83.25	13.38		
One-week Posttest	CM	80.07	14.05	-1.33	0.20
	MM	87.00	12.25		
Three-month Posttest	CM	85.07	15.02	-2.21	0.04*
	MM	97.75	14.09		
[a] For CM group, $n = 14$; for MM group, $n = 12$. [b] For all the tests, $df = 24$. * $p < .05$					
Performances of FD Participants					
Pretest	CM	79.13	13.51	0.02	0.99
	MM	79.00	13.02		
One-week Posttest	CM	87.75	10.32	0.33	0.75
	MM	84.67	23.94		
Three-month Posttest	CM	88.38	9.97	1.67	0.12
	MM	79.67	9.24		
[a] For CM group, $n = 8$; for MM group, $n = 6$. [b] For all the tests, $df = 12$.					

V. DISCUSSIONS

The first research question examined the preferred instruction to raise metaphoric awareness for each type of cognitive style. For the FI participants, the instruction involving metaphoric mappings was more beneficial in raising their awareness of figurative language, compared to the instruction adopting conceptual metaphors. More specifically, MM instruction helped the FI participants to become more attentive to figurative intentions of expressions. On the other hand, the FD participants performed better than the FI participants in the short-term and the long-term posttests after

receiving the instruction adopting conceptual metaphors, although not significantly. Moreover, the FD participants performed better after receiving CM instruction rather than MM instruction. Such findings, though they may not be conclusive due to the lack of statistical significance, suggest that the instruction adopting conceptual metaphors was more beneficial to the FD participants than the instruction involving metaphoric mappings.

The second research question considered the preferred instruction to enhance retention for each type of cognitive style. Although the FD participants who received CM instruction did not outperform those who received MM instruction in the beginning, they showed greater improvement in the delayed posttest, which suggests that CM instruction was beneficial to enhancing retention for learners with an FD cognitive style, who tended to look at the learning task comprehensively. On the other hand, the FI participants showed significant improvement in the three-month posttest, which suggests that MM instruction led to a greater metaphoric awareness for learners with an FI cognitive style. Interestingly, the FI participants also gained important improvements in the delayed posttest even when receiving CM instruction. The findings also correspond to Brown's (1987) claim that FI learners tend to be reflective in what they have learned, and thus the FI participants managed to perform well even after a period of time.

The third research question investigated the ways each method benefitted the participants. MM instruction, which illustrated the detailed relationships between target domains and source domains, and thus provided learners more structural, systematic, and logical clues to relate their knowledge to finding and comprehending metaphoric and metonymic expressions, proved useful in raising awareness of figurative expressions for learners with an FI cognitive style. This suggests that MM instruction may have facilitated construal buildings when learners encountered culturally-specific expressions. Moreover, the detailed mapping processes may have compensated for the vague analogical relations between subject concepts, which is lacking in CM instruction.

Contrarily, CM instruction provided general mapping relationships rather than logical mapping processes; therefore, learners needed to utilize their analogical reasoning to retrieve mappings between two subject concepts. If the conceptual metaphors encountered were missing from the learners' native language, they may have had a hard time perceiving and establishing a new construal system due to the lack of clues. Such a method was beneficial for blending and relating the conception of a target domain with a source domain for learners with an FD cognitive style.

However, MM instruction proved effective in fostering retention, no matter what cognitive styles the learners possessed. Regardless of the degree of improvement made by either groups of participants, both FD and FI participants who received MM instruction managed to perform better in the three-month posttest. Since metaphoric mappings organize the embedded cognitive structures systematically and hierarchically, according to Asubel's meaningful learning theory (1968), the subsumption process of new concepts and stored concepts facilitates learning and retention. In other words, MM instruction resulted in a deep level of cognitive processing on learners with whichever cognitive styles and thus enhanced a longer-term retention.

VI. IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORIES AND PEDAGOGIES

The present study aims to suggest a promising way of helping EFL learners develop and improve their metaphoric competence. Findings from this study may shed light on several perspectives. In terms of figurative language studies, the present study provides empirical evidence for two cognitive-oriented methods. Moreover, this study takes learners' individual variables into consideration, and the findings of the learning effects of MM instruction complement the findings from previous research that focused mainly on CM instruction. The associations drawn by the present study between cognitive styles and cognitive-oriented methods also provide.

In terms of the development of metaphoric competence, the present study provides further insight into and comments on the Metaphoric Competence Test, which was originally developed by Chen (2011). Since metaphoric competence is an inevitable competence that L2 learners have to acquire, the development of a reliable and valid measurement is also needed. Chen's version has been used in her own studies many times, and it is claimed to be highly consistent in reliability. However, Chen also admits that the test has limitations, such as the number of test items might lead to the participants' exhaustion in answering them. The present study reexamines the reliability of the test items, which may provide suggestions for future revision. Given the growing importance of metaphoric competence in the globalized world, a valid and reliable measurement of metaphoric competence should be developed.

Last but not the least, the results of this study provide pedagogical implications for EFL teachers in teaching figurative expressions and for EFL learners in acquiring metaphoric competence. Individual differences on cognitive styles and learning strategies have been considered influential for L2 learners' performances and learning effects (Green & Oxford, 1995; Flowerdew et.al., 2008; Riding & Sadler-Smith, 1997; Tuan, 2011). Particularly in the ubiquitous EFL contexts which lack exposure to authentic texts in the surroundings, extra considerations should be given to learners themselves. EFL teachers should thus accommodate students' cognitive styles as well as their preferences of learning strategies in order to improve the effectiveness of training. Moreover, EFL teaching materials should adapt both instructional methods in order to support learners with different learning styles.

VII. CONCLUSION

The study aims to investigate the impact of EFL learners' cognitive styles on their development of metaphoric

competence. The results indicated that cognitive-oriented methods are effective in facilitating EFL learners' development of metaphoric competence, i.e., awareness and retention. The finer-grained analyses showed that EFL learners with Field-dependent cognitive style learned better and had relatively longer retention when learning though the instruction adopting the idea of conceptual metaphor. On the other hand, EFL learners with Field-independent cognitive style performed better and retain what had learned for the longer time when receiving the instruction of metaphoric mappings. Such findings suggest that, for EFL learners of distinct cognitive styles, an adaptive instruction should be provided.

Though the present study gains a better grasp of EFL learners' acquisition of figurative language, the results of this study should be interpreted with caution. First, the small number of participants in this study may limit the generalizability of the results. Unexpected classroom incidences, such as unexpected dropping or occasional absence, increased the difficulty of the control of the experiment. Besides, the study chose FD and FI as two cognitive styles under examination; other relevant individual factors, such as genders, learning strategies, or other dimensions of cognitive styles like verbal and imagery dimension, could be also taken into consideration. Future studies should expand the scope of research and investigate complicated factors involving in EFL learners' learning process. With the understanding of figurative language, EFL learners can advance not only language proficiency but their communicative competence, which is indispensable for learners in their quest to become globalized.

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Yi-chen Chen obtained her MA in Education at University of Pennsylvania, USA, and Ph. D. in TESOL at National Chengchi University, Taiwan. She is currently an Assistant Professor of the Department of Foreign Languages and Applied Linguistics, Yuan Ze University, Taiwan. Her major research interests cover areas from TESOL theories and practices, second language acquisition, cognitive semantics, and metaphor and metonymy; she has published papers in *Language Awareness*, *Asian EFL Journal*, and *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, etc. She has been teaching at college level for more than seven years; courses taught include general English, four-skill trainings, and linguistic related courses such as sociolinguistics and TESOL theories.

Chia-Yen Lin received her PhD in Applied Linguistics from Lancaster University and is currently assistant professor at Yuan Ze University. Her research interests include pragmatics, discourse analysis and English for academic purposes (EAP). She has published papers in *Journal of Pragmatics*, *English for Specific Purposes*, etc.

Shuchang Lin obtained her MA and Ph. D. in Language Sciences at The University of Tokyo, Japan. She is currently an Assistant Professor of the Department of Foreign Languages and Applied Linguistics at Yuan Ze University in Taiwan. Her major research interests cover areas from Discourse Analysis theories and practices, Pragmatics, Politeness, and Functional Grammar; she has published papers in *Taiwan Japanese Education Journal*, one chapter of Kenkyusya Japanese Education Encyclopedia, and three academic books. She has been teaching at college level for more than ten years; courses taught include general Japanese, four-skill trainings, and linguistic related courses such as Corpus Linguistics and Pragmatics theories.

A Study on Advertisement Translation Based on the Theory of Eco-translatology

Ting Bo

Faculty of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Institute of Technology, 223003, Jiangsu, China

Abstract—With the development of market economy and globalization, advertisement has become more and more important, and meanwhile, it is an indispensable part in people's daily life. Therefore, the translation of advertisement has attracted a lot of attention of domestic and foreign experts and scholars. A variety of research has been done on it. However, there still exist many problems in the advertisement translation. This paper tries to use the theory of eco-translatology proposed by Professor Hu Gengshen to study the translation of advertisement. Combined with actual cases analysis, the study is proceeded from several dimensions, such as language, culture, communication and so on. It is greatly hoped that this study can offer some help and reference for other translation activities.

Index Term—advertisement, translation, eco-translatology, adaptation and selection

I. INTRODUCTION

With the reform and opening up and the economic development, China is playing a great role in the world. What's more, the world has been smaller and smaller with the trend of globalization. The trade communication between different countries has been more and more frequent in order to meet the need of ascending consuming desire. We can see advertisements in all aspects of our daily life, such as the TV shows and the billboard. Therefore, advertisement has been an indispensable element in this modern world. So the advertisement translation has been a great importance. In recent years, studies from different direction on the translation of advertisement are accelerating, such as the Scopos Theory, the Schema Theory, the Framework Theory and so on. But this paper tries to study from another direction which is still new in China, that is, eco-translatology. Eco-translatology attaches much importance to the leading role of translator and the principle of multi-dimensional transformation, namely the language dimension, the culture dimension, and the communication dimension and so on. All these elements compose a whole eco-environment. If the translator can play his leading role and do the right selection and adaptation in the whole eco-environment, then he can make a translation of high quality.

Eco translatology deals with the translation in terms of ecology, which develops from the theory proposed by Hu Genghen in his book *An Approach to Translation as Adaption and Selection*. As far as the advertisement translation is concerned, there are a numbers of articles regarding languages features at the micro-level not at the macro-level. As a matter of fact, the person who makes the advertisement is the operator who manipulates the whole process and fulfills the function of the advertisement by ways of adaption and selection, considering all the factors related to the advertisement. Therefore, a translator is required and expected to reproduce the advertisement at the macro-level. The eco-translatology, based on the ecology, is accordingly applied as the guidance of translation activities. There are few theories covering the advertisement translation at the macro-level and instead a large number of papers studying the advertisement translation just cope with words, phrases and sentences and rhetorical devices at the micro-level.

The author has made a lot of effort to study the advertisement translation under the theory of eco-translatology, hoping that the study can help to find the beauty of advertisement translation in an all-round way and more specifically. In the meantime, the author also wishes that this paper will make its contribution if it can be regarded as a reference to the other people who also attempt to study the advertisement translation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

At abroad, the studies on advertisement translation have experienced many changes from linguistic translation to the functionally and social-culturally-oriented translation theories since the late 1970s. The advertisement translation mainly goes through three stages. At the first stage, the advertisement translation was regarded as a syntactical and grammatical transformation focusing on translation equivalence. At the second stage, the text analysis and the equivalence between the source text and the target text were greatly studied. The third stage was marked by Mathieu Guidere's Study from 1995 and he emphasized effects on the target audience, stressing the function of the target text rather than the loyalty to the source text.

At home, the study on the advertisement translation has attracted scholars' attention in a lager scale. The person who first wrote paper about the advertisement translation is Zhou Jingwen, researching in the field of foreign trade many years. The paper *Translation of Export Advertisement* was published in *International Trade Journal* in 1984, which

mainly discussed his own experiences in the advertisement translation and put forward his ideas on the specific and practical translation in terms of translating long or repeated sentences or the sentence without subject (Zhou, 1984). Li Guoqing, in his paper *Achievement of Social Purpose and Choice of Translation Strategies—from the Perspective of Holliday's Functionalism to Study Strategies of Parody Advertisement and Sets of Advertisement Translation*, put forward his views on the advertisement translation from the perspective of functionalism. "the evaluation of translation should be placed in a cultural context. As long as the translation achieves equivalence in a culture and has the same effect in context, compared with the source language, it is s good translation; as for the translation strategy, the methodology should be flexible and as long as it can achieve purposes of advertisement, it works."(Li, 2009, P.5). In recent years, eco-translation has been drawing more and more attention among scholars. For example, Paper *Public Signs Translation from the Perspective of Eco-translation ---Take Slogan Theme of Shanghai world Exposition as an Example*, published in *Shang Hai Journal of Translators*, was written by Su Huijun in 2010.

Although there are lots of studies on the advertisement translation, most of them only focus on language and rhetorical features. One of the reasons is that there are few macro-level translation theories which can guide the advertisement translation. Eco-translatology which is proposed by Hu Gengshen can fill the gap. It is from a higher and more macro point of view to analyze the translation process and it regards ecology theory as a basic principle in translation. "As primary and integrated knowledge, ecology is of inclusive significance in that it can provide some practical perspective for research. Eco-oriented thinking is a kind of synthesis-oriented understanding." (Hu, 2009, P.2)

III. ON ECO-TRANSLATOLOGY

Eco-translatology is a specific course which study translation from an ecological point of view. This definition is based on the theory of translation as adaptation and selection, which comes from the book *Theory of Translation as Adaptation and Selection* written by Professor Hu Gengshen, who is an authority in the field of eco-translatology. The book tells that the theory of translation as adaptation and selection originally comes from Darwin. It maintains that translation is just a procedure of adaptation and selection under the guidance of the translator who is treated as the core in the whole translation procedure, and one also should have the ability to translate the original version to a new one. In other words, the theory of translation as adaptation and selection define translation as a kind of selective activity during the process which the translator tries to adapt to the eco-environment. Eco-environment involves the original text, language, and the world the words have reflected, like a whole party in which the language, the communication, the culture, the society, as well as the writer and reader combine and interact with each other. All these elements in the eco-environment have a decisive influence on the translation. Professor Hu thought that translation actually is an alternative process between the translator's adaptation and selection in the whole eco-environment of translation. He gave priority to the measure of three-dimensional transformation. Therefore, such theory has also been called multi-dimensional selective adaptation and adaptive selection. A good test is the one which has a successful transformation on all these dimensions, and the one which has a good reader feedback.

Conclusions about Eco-translatology as Follow:

Translation process	An alternative process between the selection and adaptation of the translator.
Principle of translation	Multi-dimensional selective adaptation and adaptive selection.
Way of translation	Three-dimensional transformation—language, culture and communication
Criteria of appreciation	The degree of multi-dimensional transformation, the reader feedback and the quality of translator.

As a result, eco-translatology has broken many kinds of limitation in the study of translation, and put translation into a more spacious space.

The following are several important concepts related to eco-translatology. (1) "eco-environment of translation refers to the whole situation and condition presented by the source text, the source language and the target language, including the corresponding part of language, communication, culture and society aw well as the author, the reader and the sponsor." (Hu, 2006, P.3) (2)Principles of translation—selective adaption and adaptive selection from multi-dimensions. In other words, "the principle of eo-translatology maintains multi-dimensions of adaption and adaptive selection, indicating that a translator bears this principle in mind to adapt and select correspondingly with a focus on all kinds of elements and factors involved in the translation process." (Hu, 2006, P.3) (3) Methods of translation---switch of three dimensions among three factors: language, communication and culture. Put it in another way, "the method of eco-translatology, guided by the macro-principle of multiple dimensions of adaption and adaptive selection, regards translation as a conversion and transformation of the language, culture and communication." (Hu, 2006, P.3) (4) Standards of translation review—"in order to have a perfect translated text, a translator should integrate his or her adaption and selection at the highest level. This is the translation standard put forward in eco-translatology" (Hu, 2006, P.4).

To make a successful study of the advertisement translation under the theory of eco-translatology, we should know the characteristic and function of the advertisement translation. It's crucial to this study.

IV. CHARACTERISTICS AND FUNCTIONS OF ADVERTISEMENT AND ITS TRANSLATION

The superficial meaning of advertisement is making the products be well-known. The famous American Marketing Association defined advertisements as an impersonal communication of information usually paid for and persuasive in nature about products, services or ideas by identified sponsors through the various media. Generally speaking, advertisements can be divided into two types: public relation ads and commercial ads. However, all kinds of advertisement have the same characteristics and functions.

A.   Functions and Characteristics of Advertisement

Advertisement is prevailing nowadays; we can see or hear all kinds of ads everywhere, from the wall outside the road to the main media such as TV or radio. In business, the importance of advertising has been paid more and more concern than before, and whether an advertisement is attractive or not would determine how many products have been sold. Recent study indicates that customers' desires to buy things are greatly affected by advertisement. The more advertisements there are about the product, the more impressive the product is, and the more likely they will buy it. In view of these facts, businessmen are increasing the investment in advertising in order to grasp the public's attention and impress them.

A survey of advertisement abroad indicates that the following three advertisements are always accepted as the most acceptable and effective advertisement in western countries (1) An advertisement which often introduces the function of products and proves ins quality by experiments. (2) An advertisement which can often grab consumers' attention and move the audience. (3) An advertisement which make full use of the lovely animals and kids.

To sum up, advertisement has the function of spreading information, persuading consumers, stimulating consumption and show the image of the company. The functions of advertisement require advertisement should have following characteristics.

Good advertisement is right to the point, brief and unforgettable. It is based on the so called principle of "KISS", which means to keep it simple and short. During the process of translation, these characteristics should be remained.

B.   Translation of Advertisement

Firstly, the translation of advertisement should be simple and easy for consumers to bear it in mind.

For example:"要想皮肤好，早晚用大宝"(An advertisement about the product of facial cream)

The translation is "Applying "Dabao" MORNING and NIGHT makes your skin soft and bright . —Dabao —you will prefer, sooner or later. The translation is consisted of simple sentences which is easy to understand. The word "soft" and "bright" are also rhymed, which make the sentence beautiful and fluent.

Secondly, try to make the words in the translation colloquial, but keeping the original meaning unchanged.

For example:"城乡路万千，路路有航天"(it is an advertisement of car named Hang Tian)

It is translated into: "East, west, Hangtian is best." It meets the foreign culture perfectly. Using the word "east" and "west" to illustrate hundreds of roads in the country display another picture of country filled of roads. The two words are also more oral.

Lastly, try to make the translation short.

For example: "要买房，到建行(建设银行)" (An advertisement of bank)

The translation is: "Wanna a house of your own? Buy one with our loan." It is a sentence of rhetorical question, which is not only short, but also more persuasive.

Therefore, the quality of advertisement translation is highly required. However, the current situation of advertisement translation is not so good. There are still many problems existing. When making and translating advertisement, the writer or translator is required to master both the laws and regulations of import and export, but also consumer's lifestyle and experience, culture background and other knowledge.

V.   AN ANALYSIS OF CURRENT SITUATION OF ADVERTISEMENT TRANSLATION

As whether advertisement is well translated is related to many parts of people's life, we pursue the maximum effect of the advertisement translation. So it is greatly meaningful to discuss the current situation of the advertisement translation. There exist problems in advertisement translation in terms of language expressions and culture, which is regarded as a key point in our discussion.

A.   Analysis in Terms of Language

The translation of advertisement is based on its original version, but it has never been a simple job of word to word translation. The translator should first have a deep comprehension of the original text, a right analysis of the property of the product, and a sound grasp of the objective market, before making an optimal translation.

Problems in terms of language often lie in three main parts: words usage, grammar and pragmatics.

The abuse of words is very common to see in the translation of advertisement. It is all because of the bad quality of the translator, their weak groundwork in translation and careless collation. For example, Chinese people like to use "cheap" to describe the low price of the products, While, in foreign country, the word "cheap" often refers to the products of bad quality. The word "cheap" has already been replaced by the word "economic".

The problem in grammar lies in the sentence structure of the advertisement. The two sentence structures in Chinese and English are totally different. Therefore, when doing a translation, the sentence structure should have a relevant change. However, such transformation will easily cause grammar errors and make the translation stiff. There is an advertisement saying: the products features high speed, high performance, and high efficiency, underscoring the usefulness in actual manufacturing scenes. The advertisement is a simple sentence, but the translation should transfer into coordinated compound sentence to meet Chinese habit. So the translation has such characteristics like high speed, high performance, and high efficiency.

The pragmatic errors often refer to those improper or inefficient expressions in translation which will lead to the failure of understanding. The exact meaning of the original language often becomes fuzzy when it is translated.

Here is an example of Chinese advertisement:"开放型大学让你展翅飞翔"(He Jianju, 2010). If it is translated into "Open universities let you spread your wings and fly.", few foreigners can understand it. Because there is no such phrase of "开放型大学" in foreign culture. The phrase actually means open study. Therefore, the sentence should be translated into "You can spread your wings with open study".

B. Analysis in Terms of Culture

Advertising translation is a kind of cross-culture and cross-language activity. The advertisement will be read by two kinds of different people who are in two different cultures, different locations and different eras. The culture, the thoughts and aesthetic idea of a country have been rooted in its language.

Translators should know much about the taboos in the targeting market, particularly in language. For example, goats in china are propitious animals, while in England, goats refer to lascivious man. Tortoise in china is used in abuse. While in Japan, tortoise is a very lucky word. The flower of crane and chrysanthemum are also typical examples that have two contrary meanings in different countries. Therefore, translators should take much care about such words and avoid them if it is possible.

Religion is a very important part in culture which has a very big influence on people's aesthetics and value perspective. In other words, different religion has different behavior habit and consumption mode. Translator must study the differences among religions so as to adapt to the differences and make a relevant change. Only in this way, the translation of the advertisement can be accepted by the consumers in different religion.

To adapt to the foreign cultural background and custom, translators sometimes must change the length or delete some senseless content a bit under the allowance of the advertiser. There is one example in Chinese as follow:

"某公司自1981 年成立以来,在改革开放,加快企业转换机制方针指引下,以强烈的竞争意识,勇于开拓,积极进取,出口额逐年上升与世界80 多个国家和地区的120 多家厂商建立了良好的业务关系。"

Translation: "ABC Corporation has built up excellent business relations with more than 120 companies and manufacturers in over 80 countries and regions since it was founded in 1981. We make progress actively with a strong sense of competition. Our exports have been increasing year after year".

Obviously, some content has been deleted in the translation. However, such deletion doesn't affect the customers' thought about the products, and also make the translation more concise and efficient.

VI. ENLIGHTENMENTS FOR ADVERTISEMENT TRANSLATION

It is not easy to make a good conversion in translation while keeping the original meaning unchanged. To make a good translation, one should make conversion in all-dimensions, such as language, culture, communication and aesthetics. And then make the best adaptation and selection. Such translation will win the attention of the audience. Eco-translatology offers a chance to make up the defects on language, culture and other aspects in advertisement translation. This will be discussed in detail in the following parts.

A. Language Dimension

Under the whole eco-environment, translator should think more about whether the language in the translation is adaptively selected when facing different languages. Many mistakes happen in the translation because translators think too little about the language or expressions they choose.

To make a good translation, translator is better to avoid the using of ambiguous words, and use some soft words, paralleled sentences, or some homophonic words.

Here is one example:

"Give a Timex to all, and to all a good time" The translation is "人带天美时表，准时乐道" (Jia Liping, Li Xiaoxia，2010)

This is an advertisement of watch. The original text made a pun on the phrase "good time". It means the exact time, and also means "to have a good time". While "表" and "道" in Chinese are homophonic from which we can see conversion in terms of language dimension. What's more, the sentence is fluent to read. Seen from the communication dimension, the translator has grasped consumers' purposes of purchasing, and put emphasis on the function of the watch. It is regarded a perfect translation.

B. Culture Dimension

The translators should not neglect the cultural dimension. They should pay attention to the differences between two different cultures.

For example, the advertisement: "To me, the past black and white, but the future is always color." The Chinese translation is "对我而言，过去平淡无奇，而未来却是绚烂缤纷。" The translator didn't translate the color directly, because it doesn't meet the language and culture in China. In China, the color white and black can not be equal to monotony. It can not refer to colorful as well. Only by skillful conversion, can the translation be of great vitality. Some skin care products claim that they have the function of whitening. It contradicts to the international aesthetic perspective. Because in western country, rosy black is a symbol of health and wealth, while white color refers to poverty and disease. Therefore, a good translator should know the culture background of the relative country.

C. Communication Dimension

The superficial purpose of advertisement is making the target products known by the public. But in fact, how consumers think decide whether the information can be well expressed. Therefore, the translation of advertisement should think more about the target consumers, or who the investors are making service for. So, translators should care more about the intercourse when doing the translation of advertisement, so that the translation can achieve the same effect as the original text.

In the actual advertising translation, we can see good translations use many soft words. For example, "prohibit" is rarely seen in advertisements, because it often leaves consumers an impression of aggression. So we often use "no" to replace it. A more soft and easy-going word will get a perfect result.

Here is an example:

"where there is a way, there is a TOYOTA" The translation is "车到山前必有路，有路必有丰田车"

This is an advertisement of the car—TOYOTA. The advertisement is obviously a piece of proverb. While the Chinese translation is skillfully combined with a piece of Chinese old saying—车到山前必有路, 船到桥头自然直。 In 1980s, the biggest car importer in China is Japan, while TOYOTA is the biggest car company in Japan. The translation not only meets the actual situation of TOYOTA, but also reflects the confidence of that car company. Seen from the eco-translatology point of view, the translation met the eco-environment that the original text described. The translation also made a very good conversion in terms of communication.

Of course, good translation of advertisement often takes all of the three elements into consideration, that is, culture, language, and communication.

Advertisement translation which has many characteristics in common with advertisement creation is influenced by many ecological environment factors such as cultural difference, language habits, beliefs, market rules. Therefore, a translator is supposed to have the above knowledge in the process of translation so as to achieve the purpose of advertising. The most important issue the translator should take into consideration is whether the translated advertisement is legal or not in target countries. In other words, a translator needs to know the bilingual culture, advertisement law, as well as the target language. For example, in Britain, the place of products is prohibited to appear in the advertisement according to its brand law. However, there is no such prohibition in Chinese advertisement law. Instead, Chinese people tend to demonstrate the place of products when advertising. For example, you may see advertisement like *SiChuan PaoCai*(四川泡菜), *BeiJing KaoYa*(北京烤鸭). Meanwhile, a translator is expected to meet all the elements involved in the process of translation. Taking proper and flexible strategies to adapt and select. For example, pansy(紫罗兰) represents "elegance" in Chinese, while it means feminine men in English, which is a insulting term. If the brand name of men's clothing, "紫罗兰男装" in China has been literally translated into *Pansy men's clothing*, no men should show any interest in such product in Britain. In translation practice, a translator always meet the challenge from ecological environment. To meet the desire and taste of target readers, the translator should make proper adaption and selection. With the above analysis, it is apparent that the translation process is centered by the translators' activities including taking the translation as a source text reader or a receiver who keeps the translation task in mind. Furthermore, a translator should have bilingual competence covering advertisement, culture, language and advertisement law.

VII. Conclusion

It has been more and more common to see advertisements in our daily life. Advertisements become popular in every social class by all kinds of media. With the development of economic globalization, the spreading of advertisements has been beyond of language and national boundaries. In order to publicize the function and service of the products, as well as its corporate culture, the quality of the advertisement translation plays a critical role in the exploiting of the new markets. How to achieve translation of high quality has caused heated discussion in translation research field.

So far, translators have studied translation from many points of view, while studying advertisement translation under the theory of eco-translatology is still new in China. Eco-translatology is based on the theory of translation as adaptation and selection, which asks translator to play his leading role in doing a series of selective activities during the process of adapting to the eco-environment. The translator should stick to the principle of conversion in aspects of multi-dimensions, and make a good conversion in terms of language, culture, and communication and so on.

Eco-translatology puts translation into a more spacious space. It will make up all the defects existing in advertisement translation in many aspects, such as language, culture, communication, esthetics and so on. Therefore, to study advertisement translation in the view of eco-translatology will receive an unexpected good effect.

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Ting Bo was born in Jiangsu, China in 1980. She got the MA of Arts at East China Normal University, China in 2009. She was currently a lecturer in Faculty of Foreign Languages in Huaiyin Institute of Technology, Jiangsu, China. Her research interest is intercultural communication, teaching method.

Machine Translation and Skopos Theory: Post-modernist Approach to Interlingual Translation

Biook Behnam
Department of English language, college of Humanities, Tabriz branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Farhad Azimi
Department of English language, college of Humanities, Tabriz branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Peyman Hajarizadeh
PNU university of Iran, Iran

Abstract—**Translation, as an international channel of communication between different nations, should not be regarded as a simple matter, but should be contextualized as a multi-dimensional system of interconnected networks. Machine translation (MT), a modern and commercial approach to interlingual translation, has placed translators at the fingertips of the people who need quick and low-cost translations, but at the expense of appropriateness of the output. The commissioner and the translator, who determine the skopos and dimensions of adequacy according to the translation commission, play a pivotal role in the translation process. The purpose of this study is to show the efficiency of MT according to modern and capitalistic world's needs and expectations which influences the translation commissions in the movie industry. To this end, the English version of nine movies are sampled, and the Persian translations of certain parts of these movies, provided by MT, are selected and closely compared with the appropriate use of equivalents within the context of the movies. After data analysis, the appropriateness and accuracy of the translations will be discussed in terms of relativity and context dependence of the choice of translation strategy.**

Index Terms—**Machine Translation (MT), Skopos, commissioner, translation commission, adequacy**

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation is a multi-dimensional activity which tries to connect people from two different cultural, social and lingual backgrounds. As Toury (1978) puts it "translation is a kind of activity which inevitably involves at least two languages and two cultural traditions", (P.200). Translation of movies from one natural language into another is a field which, as modern as it may be, does still demand a great deal of attention. To this end certain problems arise.

Exchanging films and TV productions on an international level, has become increasingly asymmetrical. English is the all-dominant foreign language on the big screen, and even those major languages such as Spanish have lost their importance in comparison with English. In Europe, France, Denmark and Sweden are the only countries which have a domestic film production capable of keeping the United States and other imports below a market share of 80%. Meanwhile, audiences in the United States and the UK are rarely bothered with foreign-language productions. Like people almost all over the globe, they enjoy Anglophone productions. However, unlike all others, the American and British audiences do not often enjoy foreign-language productions, whether dubbed or subtitled. This phenomenon has created an ever increasing need for faster and less costly practices of translation.

The most fundamental criterion in business is the rule of supply and demand. Halliday (1990) notes that "when new demands are made on language… [and when] we are making language work for us in ways it never had to do before, it will have to become a different language in order to cope", (P.82). The modern capitalistic expectations and demands on translation have made machine translation a suitable choice, especially, in commercial translation projects.

In any translation transaction, whether machine or human translation, there are two sides to this transaction. The first party to this transaction is the translation commissioner and the second party is the translator. The skopos of translation, pre-determined and negotiated by the commissioner and the translator, determines the adequacy of the translation output. As Vermeer (1989) states:

An expert must be able to say- and this implies both knowledge and a duty to use it- what is what…. The translator is such an expert. It is thus up to him to decide, for instance, what role a source text plays in his translation action. The decisive factor here is the purpose, the skopos, of the communication in a given situation. (P.174)

In this study, it is aimed to show that despite the use of inappropriate equivalents by the machine translation in the process of subtitling of the movies used as the corpus of the study, the translations have been deemed to be adequate by the translation commission.

II. A GLANCE AT MACHINE TRANSLATION (MT)

Translating of texts from one natural language into another using computer is known as machine translation (MT). It requires the precise specification of bilingual equivalences and of the process of conveying the meanings of expressions from a source language (SL) text into a target language (TL) text (Hutchins & Somers, 1992). Can machines replace human translators, or they just are useful as aids to their human masters? These questions and many others similar to them are asked more often than not.

In her paper on exploring user acceptance of machine translation output, Bowker and Ehgoetz (2007) cite evidence of a growing demand for translators coupled with a death of qualified translation professionals. This is one of the main reasons for the renewed interest in machine translation (MT) (pp. 209-224). Other reasons such as the need to penetrate new markets, being required to publish translated material at the same time as source language material, an on-going need to reduce the cost of translation, and last but not the least, need to correspond with one another across the lingual and the cultural barriers, have made the need for quality machine translated texts, if not vital, an important one.

A. Advantages and Disadvantages of MT

The suitability of machine translation for any particular task depends on the nature of the source text and the intended purpose (skopos) of the translation. For instance, poetry and industrial parts lists represent two extremes in this spectrum, for while it would be meaningless to use machine translation for the former, one could reasonably expect a perfect result (requiring no post or pre-editing) for the latter; given, of course, that all the related nomenclature was in the system's dictionaries. It is clear then that machine translation cannot be used indiscriminately. Many source texts have to be excluded from MT on the grounds that their text typology precludes anything but the attention of a skilled and highly specialized human translator. However, movie transcripts provide type of texts which fall somewhere in the middle of this spectrum. Indeed, for this category, translation alone will not normally suffice; a complete adaptation is needed to take account of the native aspirations, susceptibilities and prejudices of the target market.

Based on a panel at conference held in 13th of December, 2007, machine translation's problems and issues were categorized as follows:
1. Inherent linguistic problems due to bilingual lexical differences;
2. Non-linguistic problems of reality;
3. Problems which come about due to stylistic differences;
4. Hybrid systems.

The first category is what this study is what this study aims to concentrate on. Bilingual lexical differences can be divided into two groups: bilingual lexical ambiguity and lexical gaps. Bilingual lexical ambiguity poses a far greater challenge in translating a text from one natural language into another. In other words, one lexicon in the source language can have more than one semantic equivalent lexicon but only one contextually correct semantic equivalent in target language. One of the best possible examples of this type of problem is the presence of more than one semantically equivalent lexicon for the English word 'cousin' in Persian language.

Presence of such ambiguities gives rise to significant shortcomings like inadequacy in using machine translation for subtitling. If subtitling of movies using machine translation is not semantically and lexically adequate, then, how inadequacies in using accurate or contextually correct equivalents can be justified by the movie industry. It is here that implementation of a theory in translation, namely 'skopos theory', proves to be practically functional.

B. Practical Functionality of the 'Skopos Theory'

Hatim (2001) states:

Skopos (Greek: 'purpose', 'goal'), is an appropriate name for a theory which focuses on such aspects of the translation process as interactional dynamics and pragmatic purpose. The theory holds that the way the target text eventually shapes up is determined to a great extent by the function, or 'skopos', intended for it in the target context. Such a strategy can and often does run counter to orthodox equivalence-based procedures since here the end essentially justifies the means. (P.74)

'Skopos theory' is a new trend towards the target-focused and culturally-oriented theories of translation studies which can be very helpful in the modern world of translation studies since the target text readers are the main concerns of translators and also translation commissioners recently. If all the criteria defined by the skopos of the translation project are fully met, then the translation project is accepted, by the commissioner of that project, as an adequate one. Reiss and Vermeer (1984), cited in Munday, (2001) state:

Adequacy describes the relations between source text and target text as a consequence of observing a skopos during the translation process. In other words, if the target text fulfills the skopos outlined by the commission, it is functionally and communicatively adequate. (P.80)

According to this definition of adequacy, it is not important which translation method and strategy is used by the translator. The only thing which is significant is the accordance of the target text with the commission expectations.

Based on the 'skopos theory', it is the commissioner who defines the adequacy level expected from the translation project, and since the commissioners in the movie subtitling industry such as media companies operate under the influence of capitalism rules, namely time, cost and feasibility, machine translation becomes a valuable tool at their disposal. To this end, translations which would otherwise be considered inadequate and inaccurate are found to be adequate and accurate enough by the translation commissioners.

C. Case Study

In this case study, it is tried to show the accuracy the above statements by taking a close look at the dilemma of lexical ambiguities and inaccurate use of lexical equivalents in the subtitles of nine movies in English language and their Persian subtitles. By doing so, we tend to prove that despite of the inaccuracy of these Persian subtitles from an expert human translator's point of view, the commissioners of these translation projects have found them adequately accurate for introducing to the target language audience.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design

This study is an exploratory research project which analytically looks into the correct use of equivalents used in Persian subtitling of nine movies in English language using machine translation.

B. Corpus

Nine movies in English with Persian subtitles were chosen as the corpus of this study. Each of these movies' choice is based on a series of justifications which are as follows:

1. 'The Bucket List', with its genre being drama, is a true representative of pure machine translation without any human interference. This is a perfect example of word-for-word translation strategy.

2. 'Blonde Ambition', with the comedy-drama genre, is a representative of a combination of word-for-word and literal strategies of translation. The unit of translation for this movie is at times word and at other phrase, and the message of the source text is rendered roughly.

3. 'Private Valentine', is a comedy which is showing the characteristics of a literal strategy of translation. The message of the source text rendered by the subtitles of this movie is vague and the unit of translation used in the translation of the subtitles is phrase.

4. 'Obsessed', somewhat, represents another strategy in translation. Its genre is drama, and its translation is still source-text-oriented; in other words, it is what is called 'faithful translation'. The form of machine translation used in this movie focuses on words and phrases as the corpus for translation.

5. 'Step up 2, the Streets', represents the features of drama genre. The strategy of translation used in this movie is a combination of faithful and semantic translation. The limitation of the translation to the words and phrases' structures and the maintenance inside the borders of source language culture can be considered the main characteristics of the translation strategy utilized for this movie.

6. '88 Minutes', is of action genre, and its translation, mostly, follows the semantic translation strategy. In other words, the machine translation of the movie does correspond to the Source Language's (SL) culture. It is syntactically beautiful and the translation shifts are well considered.

7. 'The Reader', which its genre is drama, is translated based on the parameters of the communicative translation strategy. In other words, the thought and the message of the Source Text (ST) and the use of dynamic equivalents constitute the main objectives of the MT.

8. 'Knowing', is a movie with science fiction genre, and the translation strategy used by the MT is idiomatic translation. In other words, the culture of the SL had a pivotal role in the selection of the adequate equivalents with respect to the 'skopos theory'.

9. 'Last Dance', is a movie with drama genre, and the dominant translation strategy used in its subtitling is communicative translation. In other words, the unit of translation is proposition and direct rendering of source language items and syntactic structures are not the main concerns of this type of translation. The only significant issue is transferring the thoughts and messages of the source text to the audience.

IV. PROCEDURE

After viewing 30 movies, the following nine movies were selected based on six translation strategies which are often used by translators: The Bucket List, Blonde Ambition, Private Valentine, Obsessed, Step up 2, the Streets, 88 Minutes, The Reader, Knowing and The Last dance made up the corpus of the study. Each movie was viewed carefully, and the equivalents which were used inaccurately in Persian subtitles were selected. The source language lexicons, the time frames, the inaccurate Persian translation of the source text words and their accurate Persian equivalents were compiled in tables 1-9.

V. RESULTS

The source text lexicons and their machine translations equivalents in Persian were mined from the corpus and were tabulated in tables 1-9. In these tables, across from each Persian translation by the done by the machine, a more accurate Persian translation was entered in the tables. The contents of these tables are self-explanatory and show the significant difference which exists between the machine translation output and the more accurate equivalent for the source language lexicon provided by the researchers.

1. SELECTED SUBTITLES FROM THE MOVIE, KNOWING

Locations in the movie (H/MIN/SEC)	Source text (ST)	Target Text (TT)	Correct Equivalent
0:37	Time capsule	محفظه آثار فرهنگي	کپسول زمان
10:29	Universe	جهان	دنیا
11:56	Randomness	اختیار	تصادف
29:24	Janitors	نظافت چی	نگهبان
34:41	Bye	باي	خداحافظ
52:59	East Coast city	خاور شرق	شهر ساحلي شرقي
59:12	Put back	برگرد	برو عقب
1:39:36	Safe	امنه	جاش امنه
1:50:33	Safe	امنه	جاش امنه

2. SELECTED SUBTITLES FROM THE MOVIE, THE READER

Locations in the movie (H/MIN/SEC)	Source text (ST)	Target Text (TT)	Correct Equivalent
Chapter 1			
05:05	Find out	توانستن	پیدا کردن
05:57	Keep away	جاي دیگه رفتن	دور شدن
08:11	Bed	جا	رختخواب
08:45	Hall	راهرو	سالن
29:12	Flesh	آلت	بدن
30:51	Danger	خطر	ریسك
31:02	Live life	خارج شدن از زندگي	زندگي کردن
38:47	Little	ملوس	کوچولو
52:50	Rephrase	دوباره تکرار کردن	جور دیگري بیان کردن
Chapter 2			
31:57	Romance	عاشقانه	داستان عاشقانه
43:21	Will	خواهش	وصیت نامه
54:38	Ill	بد	مریض

3. SELECTED SUBTITLES FROM THE MOVIE, 88 MINUTES

Locations in the movie (H/MIN/SEC)	Source text (ST)	Target Text (TT)	Correct Equivalent
07:01	Idiot	عوضي	احمق
09:23	Can I help you?	کاري داشتین؟	میتونم کمکتون کنم؟
17:25	Gay	گي	هم جنس گرا
17:52	Publicly	از طرف جامعه	در ملا عام
22:40	Doc	دکتر جون	دکي
26:38	Dean	خانم	رئیس- مدیر
43:17	Sufficient grounds	دلیل قانوني	مدارك کافي
46:43	Working class	طبقه متوسط	طبقه کارگر
46:44	Rock star	ستاره	ستاره گروه راك
49:24	Show up	آمدن	سر و کله کسي پیدا شدن
50:00	That's good	خدا رو شکر	خوبه
57:36	That's horrible	باور نکردنیه	وحشتناکه
1:40:25	Intersect	به هم برخوردن	به هم رسیدن
1:41:51	Sister	عزیز	خواهر

4. SELECTED SUBTITLES FROM THE MOVIE, OBSESSED

Locations in the movie (H/MIN/SEC)	Source text (ST)	Target Text (TT)	Correct Equivalent
3:18	Movement	رفتن	اسباب کشي
5:46	Appointment	کلك	وقت ملاقات
5:55	Allusion	کلك	اغفال
5:56	Temp	وسوسه	کار آموز- کارمند موقت
8:55	Punk	بي ارزش بودن	سر کار گذاشتن
20:08	Get around	گذشتن	دوره چرخیدن
29:39	Fool	اشتباه	احمق
44:26	Bye	باي	خداحافظ
50:24	Worried	متاهل	نگران
54:14	Oversleep	خوابیدن	خواب ماندن
1:04:25	Psychiatric evaluation	سنجش	آزمایش رواني
1:18:13	This means a lot to me	این منو برام خیلیه	این برام خیلي اهمیت داره
1:26:10	Security system	سیستم فعال	سیستم امنیتي
1:28:00	The police knocking at the door	باید با درها باشه	پلیس دم در است
1:30:05	Get fired	زدن	اخراج شدن

5. SELECTED SUBTITLES FROM THE MOVIE, THE BUCKET LIST

Locations in the movie (H/MIN/SEC)	Source text (ST)	Target Text (TT)	Correct Equivalent
2:05	Invent	آوردن	اختراع کردن
2:12	Get you	آدرس دار شدن	گیرت اوردم
3:59	Hold on	دوست داشتن	صبر کردن
4:12	Well?	و؟	خب؟
4:18	Really good	خیلی زیبا	واقعا خوبه
4:37	Supervisors	انجمن	سرپرستان
4:52	Donations	موفقیت	کمک های مالی
4:53	Atrophy	دور	کم
5:25	Health spa	مرکز سلامتی	چشمه آب معدنی درمانی
7:24	Intelligent	زنده	هوشیار
8:15	Tube	مار	لوله
9:20	Paralyzed	بی حس	فلج
9:42	Surgery	تحقیق	عمل جراحی
12:30	Visitors	معاینه ها	عیادت کنندگان
13:38	Operation	عملکرد	عمل جراحی
17:43	Interesting	زیبا	جالب
19:41	Try	خسته بودن	امتحان کردن
20:32	Take care	تنها با خودته	مواظب خودت باش
23:07	Key hole	سوراخ در	سوراخ کلید
23:48	So waste	چی به هدر رفت	خیلی بیهوده است
23:57	Devil	جهنم	شیطان
24:26	Denial	دنیل	انکار
27:03	You're blocking my view	تو فکری	جلوی دید منو گرفتی
27:15	Find	شناختن	پیدا کردن
28:22	Survey	جفت	تحقیق
29:20	Play cards	کارت داشتن	پاسور بازی کردن
31:26	Kick the bucket	پیپ قبا این که بریم بیرون	به درک واصل شدن
33:19	Month	زبان	ماه
37:05	Give up	امیدوار بودن	دست برداشتن
40:48	Pull	گرفتن	کشیدن
48:46	What do you believe in?	کجا می ری؟	به چی ایمان داری؟
48:51	Big bang	محکم به هم زدن	تصادم/ برخورد بزرگ
48:53	Random	اختیاری	تصادفی
51:20	Cross off	در زدن	خط زدن
52:58	Hot bath	شستشو	حمام داغ/ گرم
55:27	Buoyant	عالی	شناور
1:01:32	Good-looking	زرنگ	خوش تیپ
1:04:02	Arranged marriage	ازدواج سفارشی	ازدواج از پیش تعیین شده
1:09:21	Silk suits	ابریشم مناسب	لباسهای ابریشمی
1:15:50	I miss her	او اشتباه می کند	دلم براش تنگ شده
1:25:51	One man deal	واسه مرد مشکل نیست	کار یک نفر
1:25:55	I'm afraid	می ترسم	متاسفم که
1:28:02	Owe	تشکر کردن	مدیون بودن
1:29:59	Complete strangers	قوی تر	کاملا غریبه
1:31:48	Open	بزرگ بودن	باز بودن

6. SELECTED SUBTITLES FROM THE MOVIE STEP UP II (THE STREETS)

Locations in the movie (H/MIN/SEC)	Source text (ST)	Target Text (TT)	Correct Equivalent
04:24	Get off	بلند شو	ولش کن
04:44	Why are you pushing me so much, man	چرا این قدر من را فشار می دی	چرا این قدر من را هل می دی
07:06	They are in good shape	من می گم واقعا جالبه	من فقط دارم می گم آنها آدمهای خوبی دارن
09:04	Breaking and entering	در شکستید و وارد شدید	ورود غیر قانونی به
12:54	We were hoping to the fundraiser to the fall showcase	امیدوارم یه جوری بتونیم اونا رو به سالن نمایش وصل کنیم	امیدوار بودیم بتونیم برنامه جمع آوری پول برای امور خیریه را با نمایش پاییز برگزار کنیم
13:27	You have no idea about the consequences of your action, do you?	به عاقبت کارات فکر کرده بودی	تو از پیامد های کارات خبر داری
13:30	Actually, there is a little more to it	فکر کنم باید بیشتر فکر می کردی	در واقع بیشتر از اونی هست که می گی
13:46	You just cost someone their future	یعنی قیمت زندگی آینده یک نفر	تو باعث نابودی آینده یک نفر شدی
14:29	Intern	همکار	کارآموز
15:14	Fine	خوب	خوش قیافه
16:00	Rehearsal	نمایش	نمایش تمرینی
16:29	Uniform	لباس	لباس فرم
17:06	Look like	اینطوری هستن	شبیه باشن
22:36	Whats up man	صبرو می خورم	چه خبرا
27:07	Regret	عصبانی	پشیمان
30:10	Rehabilitation	استراحت	بازآموزی
31:20	Froze out	آدم نشودی	ممنوع الورود
33:37	Obvious	مشهود	معلوم
34:12	Irritating	عصبانی	آزار دهنده
34:15	Defensive	آزار دهنده	دفاعی
40:55	Quit	رفتی	متوقف کردن
43:31	Screwed	پیچوند	درمانده
46:28	Old school	مدرسه قدیمی	متعلق به نسل قدیم
66:05	Kick me out	من را نزن	منو بیرون نکن
67:22	Kick, kick	بزن بزن	لگد لگد
81:09	Tight	تنگ	عالی و قشنگ

7. SELECTED SUBTITLES FROM THE MOVIE, PRIVATE VALENTINE

Locations in the movie (H/MIN/SEC)	Source text (ST)	Target Text (TT)	Correct Equivalent
2:28	freak	نترس	کنترل از دست دادن
3:26	Stir	بد کردن	راهنمایی کردن
8:32	Kiss some ass	دهن سرویس کردن	چاپلوسی کردن
9:28	Cash out	جمع کردن	نقد کردن
19:29	Scorned	مریض	دل شکسته
27:14	Crashed	سوار ماشین	تصادف کردن
28:32	Insecure	مشکوک	آسیب پذیر
39:34	Yell	گریه	داد زدن
40:48	Gang	بازی	گروه
55:02	Body shot	بدن الکلی	بادی شات
78:52	Turn in	بیدار شدن	خوابیدن
91:27	Priority	شرایط	اولویت

8. SELECTED SUBTITLES FROM THE MOVIE, BLONDE AMBITION

Locations in the movie (H/MIN/SEC)	Source text (ST)	Target Text (TT)	Correct Equivalent
3:07	engaged	مستقل	نامزد کرده
4:31	Carved	نگه داشتن	حک کردن
12:06	Crash	افتادن	خوابیدن
17:03	Pumpkin	کدو تنبل	عزیزم
17:09	Right	مستقیم	حق
18:09	Tie	بو	کروات
18:36	Fire	آتش	اخراج کردن
22:44	Smile	لب	تبسم
39:40	Horn	شاخه	خار / مشکل
41:57	Amber	کهربا	امبر (اسم خاص)
56:58	Lord	ارباب	خدا
62:30	Bored	تخت	هیئت مدیره
70:07	Dog	سگ	سوسیس

9. SELECTED SUBTITLES FROM THE MOVIE, LAST DANCE

Locations in the movie (H/MIN/SEC)	Source text (ST)	Target Text (TT)	Correct Equivalent
4:14	Resume'	شروع کردن	سابقه کار
5:37	Solid	سخت	خوب
27:51	Dead set	مرگ تو	مصمم
42:35	Fused	ذوب شدن	به هم چسبیدن
42:58	Wild	وحشی	شلوغ
45:44	Beat cop	پلیس بی رمق	پلیس
61:00	Recess	عقب نشینی	تعطیلات
63:32	Fancy	تخیلی	تجملی
64:28	Let it go	اجازه رفتن بده	فراموشش کن
78:09	Capital punishment	مجازات اصلی	اعدام

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the arguments made by the researchers from the introduction section on, using machine translation for subtitling movies from English into Persian, despite lacking accuracy, is found to be adequate by those who have acted as the commissioners of these translation projects. It is obvious from the results of this exploratory case study, compiled in tables 1-9, that accuracy was not and could not have been one of the criteria which were selected as the skopos of these translation commissions. The capitalistic point of view which places the emphasis on cost and bottom line, has dictated the choice of criteria by the translation commission. In other words, since machine translation provides the translation commission with a more feasible, less costly and less time consuming alternative to using expert human translator who would have been able to produce far better output, it was chosen as the translation alternative by the commissioner. As the old saying in the capitalistic circles goes, "time is money, so if you save time, you have saved money and padded your bottom line." As we all know, the bottom line is all that matters in business in a capitalistic world.

Considering what the results in tables 1-9, so boldly, put into display, to improve upon the quality of such machine translation outputs, two important steps could be taken. First, better data banks of lexicons, phrases, propositions and idioms could be developed, so that the machine can have access to a more comprehensive resource. Secondly, a better programming could be done to better apply various translation strategies to the process of machine translation.

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Biook Behnam is an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics at Islamic Azad University, Tabriz branch, Iran. His current research interests cover Discourse Analysis, ELT and Translation Studies. He has been involved in a wide range of projects in the area of Applied Linguistics and Discourse Analysis as a project director, consultant and researcher. He has widely presented papers to national and international conferences in North America, Australia, Europe, China, India and South East Asia. He is currently the Editor-in-Chief of the Journal of Applied Linguistics published by IAU, Tabriz Branch.

Farhad Azimi was born in 1964, in Tabriz. He finished high school in Tabriz and moved to the U.S. to continue his education. He has an MA degree in translation studies. Currently, he is serving as the literary editor for two well-known journals in the field of architectural engineering & urban planning. He also has been teaching at the PNU in Qazvin and Meshkin Shahr since 2010 and in Islamic Azad University since 2013. He has translated over a dozen documentaries for the use in national TV. He, currently, is working on his PhD in TEFL at the Islamic Azad University of Tabriz, Iran.

Payman Hajarizadeh is 30 years old. He was born in Tehran. He graduated from high school in Tehran and got his MA degree in translation studies. Currently, he is teaching English at a well-known Language Institute in Tehran.

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