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Map of Reading and Re-reading: Many Voices, Female Voices, Plath's Voices

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Abstract—Pointing towards the variety of possible interpretations of any literary text, we shall briefly explain the focus of feminist readings of the work of Sylvia Plath, with an intention to problematize the way that even this one very specific and challenging corpus of criticism diverges into countless reading avenues. In a chronological context, the critical theory we are observing, i.e. the subject of our interest, belongs to the last three decades of the twentieth and the first decade of the twenty-first century. We shall also demonstrate, by way of illustration, that the lump characterization, proposed by some authors, may hold for the concrete examples which accompany our analysis.

Index Terms—interpretation, text, context, American poetry, Sylvia Plath

Certain anthologies, which map the development of literary critical theory during the last decade of the twentieth century, take as a starting point important conclusions while, at the same time, maintaining an analytical focus on all the solutions and perplexities pertinent to this research corpus. The nineties in general, as is obvious from the provided bibliography,¹ represent an era of reconsideration and, therefore, an era represented by contemporary theoretical cogitation. More precisely, this era is comprised of texts inspired by various factors and authored by figures influential in the domain of the growth of literary critical theory in the last three decades of the twentieth century. These critically conceived volumes have inaugurated a more frequent sprouting of new literary readings and re-readings in connection with a number of relevant issues recurrent within the corpus. While introducing one of these anthologies, Julian Wolfreys maintains, and we strongly consent with him that,

no one single manner of reading will do, so heterogeneous is the world, so diverse are its peoples and cultures, so different are the texts, whether literary, cultural or symbolic by which we tell ourselves and others about ourselves, and by which others speak to us about their differences from us, whether from the present, from some other culture, or from the past, from whatever we may think of as our own culture. (Wolfreys, 1999, p. xii)

While reviewing literary criticism published in the last few decades, such as that authored by Iain Chambers, Susan Sontag or Walter Benjamin, another analogy has lent itself to our observation, and this time it exhibits a cartographic nature. Moreover, this is a supportive analogy, particularly when it comes to the precise mapping of numerous tensions and contradictions that literary scholars face nowadays, and which, at their best, turn into a productive dialogue – occupying the spaces of our discernment of the far-reaching changes in literary studies. These are the spaces where senior scholars encounter their junior colleagues. In other words, it is in these mapping loci where representatives of the same generations that have uncompromising attitudes towards the study of text meet. These encounters encode the map function or culture testimony precipitating literary and theoretic registers vis-à-vis the intended literary interpretation. By applying them to this corpus, readers seem to be encouraged, as Kenneth Womack (1999) mentions in his text “Theorising Culture, Reading Ourselves”, while looking at the synthesis of social, artistic, political, economic, and linguistic perceptions that have dominated contemporary criticism and the politics of difference defining our recognition of the individual and cultural identity. Furthermore, Womack argues that cultural studies have manifested themselves in a broad range of interpretative dimensions, including a range of research fields, such as gender studies, post-colonialism, race and ethnic studies, pedagogy, eco-criticism, the politics of nationalism, popular culture, postmodernism and historical criticism. Bearing this diversity of interpretative dimensions in mind, it has been increasingly recognized that cultural studies are said to be,

¹ Our critical-theoretic approach to Plath's poetry has been informed by the following titles:

Leitch, Vincent A., et al., ed., *The Norton Anthology of Theory and Criticism*. Second Edition (New York: W.W. Norton and Company, 2010).

Julian Wolfreys, ed., *Introducing Literary Theories: A Guide and Glossary* (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2001).

Julian Wolfreys, Ruth Robbins, and Kenneth Womack. *Key Concepts in Literary Theory*. Second Edition – Revised and Expanded (Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2006).

the international and interdisciplinary phenomenon, the interpretative lens of cultural studies provides us with a means for exploring the cultural codes of a given work, as well as for investigating the institutional, linguistic, historical and sociological forces that inform that's work's publication and critical reception. (Womack, 1999, p. 593)

In one of his papers, also published at the turn of the century, Hillis Miller (1997) asserts that we cannot avoid intertextuality reading at the time of rapidly growing cultural studies, while Womack overwhelmingly supported the premise that critical reading had contributed to the domination of the theory upon entering the twenty-first century. While emphasizing their manifestation within a wide range of interpretative dimensions, Miller chronologically posits them in the rapid transition period of a post-national state. At the same time, explaining miscellaneous segments of contemporary literary theory, including "a wide range of interpretative dimensions", Wolfreys assumes positions similar to Ruth Robbins (1999)². More precisely, by problematizing the singular in this context, he focuses on the concept of 'literary theory', which he sees as problematic, not only because it names the singular object or focus, but because it,

names a single focal point, rather than something composed, constructed or comprised of many aspects or multiple, often quite different identities. If we name several identities or objects as one, not only do we not respect the separateness or singularity of each of those subjects or identities, we also move in some measure toward erasing our comprehension of the difference between those objects and identities, making them in the process invisible. (Wolfreys, 1999, pp. x-xi)

As can be seen from this quotation, Wolfreys' indication is similar to that proposed by Roland Barthes who, according to K. M. Newton (1999), was a critic never standing still, and whose various work phases can be approached from a variety of perspectives, making him difficult to "locate" and classify. Nonetheless, as Newton further perceives, the structuralism of Barthes is closely connected to his being fond of modernism, his interest in the politics of writing and reading, his rejection of the division between art and criticism, but also with his awareness of the post-structuralist achievements. Consequently, the burden of locating and classifying reappears in literary theory through constant probes and queries, writes Newton, while Montenegrin scholar Marjana Đukić points to this specific event in theory by stating how the answers pass away while the questions remain: the answers are always interrogated anew, while the questions are summoned repeatedly.

In a similar manner, apart from arguing against the justifiability of the capitalist enactment in its various appearances, Marxist criticism asserts that there is a strong bond between word and world, theory and practice³ (1999, pp. 99-109). At the same time, according to Wolfreys, deconstruction announces reforms and is, therefore, imminent to the conceptual languages of the Western metaphysics, which really, as Derrida argued, has unavoidable inner effects (1999, pp. 267-282). Similarly, the psychoanalytical approach to literature combines the methods that literary theory uses in describing texts with the psychoanalytical methods of approaching uncanny verbalizations and treating them as a source of information from the unconscious mind of the speaker for therapeutic reasons⁴ (1999, pp. 201-211). John Brannigan (1999, pp. 417-428), on the other hand, understands that literature and history cannot be separated and that history is not understood as a coherent compilation of objective knowledge that can be simply applied to a literary text with the intention of discovering what the text is supposed to reflect or not reflect. According to new historicists, literature reveals processes and tensions leading to historical changes, although it never remains in a passive relationship towards history: on the contrary, as Brannigan writes – literature models and constitutes historic change, literary texts influence historical flows, as well as social and political ideas and the beliefs of the times during which they are being produced, thus not seeing a text or its context as its sole subject of research, as not only does literary history constitute its main interest, but it is rather literature *in* history. This means that it perceives literature as an inseparable part of history in the process of its development and as being pregnant with creative and deconstructive powers, and together with all the contradictions of history. (1999, pp. 417-428) Furthermore, as we read in Brannigan's text, the role of historical contexts in the process of interpreting text and the role of literary rhetoric in the process of intermediating history are among the most crucial issues that critics coming from this theoretical corpus are dealing with. Still, discussing the reader-response theory in the aforementioned anthology, Martin McQuillan maintains that regardless of whether one studies literature or is a literary critic, one must above everything else be a reader. For that reason, he goes on to elaborate, if literary theory insists on denying the assumptions about the importance of the personal experience of a work of literature, it would be correct then that it reinvestigates what naturally belongs to literature and that is the very process of reading. Without reading and readers, he concludes, literature would not be. (1999, p. 139, pp. 139-149)

When it comes to feminist criticism in particular, we shall look at the opus of Sylvia Plath in order to show that even that one school of criticism must depart from its interpretative centre and arrive at diverse and sometimes opposing interpretative avenues, never capable of avoiding any of the schools mentioned above. Thus, in her text about feminism

² Ruth Robbins, among others, takes an affirmative position towards the existence of literary feminisms. Her paper is published in Wolfreys' anthology, published in 1999.

³ See, for example, the following authors:

Terry Eagleton, *Marxism and Literary Criticism* (London and New York: Routledge, 1976).

Fredric Jameson, *Marxism and Form: Twentieth-Century Dialectical Theories of Literature* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1971).

Raymond Williams, *Marxism and Literature* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1977).

⁴ See, for example, the following authors:

Maud Ellmann, ed., *Psychoanalytic Literary Criticism* (London: Longman, 1994).

Anthony Elliott, *Psychoanalytic Theory: An Introduction* (Oxford: Blackwell, 1994).

in critical theory and its efforts to contribute against the dominance of the patriarchal social structures, Ruth Robbins (Wolfreys, 1999, pp. 49-59) draws attention precisely to the improbability of levelling feminism to a singular discipline. It is essential, she believes, for the third wave or the post-feminist chronological framework, to bring the use of the plural form as regular – beginning with the very term ‘feminisms’ into all the other aspects of theory, which is compliant with the contemporary situation of critical theory in general. This is because “it is not a unified theory with a single corpus of work that has to be read before you can begin: there is no feminist Marx or Freud whose oeuvre defines feminism as theory and methodology. This fact is the strength and the frustration of feminism.” (1999, p. 49) According to Robbins, feminist theory is best understood if it is defined as an incessant series of interventions within the reading practice, which develops specific politics of reading and presupposes that reading practice can transform the way we experience the world. She identifies feminist theory as being based on the existence of relations between the text and the world. In addition to this, she points out the relationship between the texts and the worlds as being primarily political because they deal with the question of power, as will be exemplified further in the text, in the case of Sylvia Plath, whose work constantly overlaps with her status in the culture, “or between her own status in the culture and the cultural phenomena of which she writes”, remaining aesthetic, sexual and cultural-political in scope (Rose, 1992, p. 8, p. 24). After this, the attention is shifted to the position of the woman author, which Robbins defines as significant for a number of practical reasons (education, publishers, reviewers, writing spaces, language):

The project of rediscovery was inaugurated to find the women writers who had become hidden from literary history, to republish their works, to edit them in scholarly editions and to make a female tradition of literature to set beside the so-called ‘great’ tradition of great men. (1999, p. 52)

With the ambition of preparing the reader for the portentous aptitude of literary theory registers, we have emphasized their intertwining with histories, languages, and cultures, as well as their underlying global tendencies and local specifics. Imminent to this register is a tendency, typical of intellectual concepts in general, to keep hold of a position of dependence and stability. Although these fixed referents and measures have become the main agents when maps are brought to our attention, there are also unavoidable fluctuations as well as changeability in considerations of literary reality⁵. The best introduction to this branching story, which at moments, seems to lose its awareness of its roots, we find in *Feminisms: An Anthology of Literary Theory and Criticism* edited by Warhol and Herndl (1997).

The concept of *Feminisms*, based as it is upon multiplicity, depends, as we have said, upon accepting heterogeneity within feminist literary studies. This does not mean that we, as editors, position ourselves as “pluralists”, or as theorists who think that “anything goes”. As independent critics, each of us agrees with some of the pieces in this collection, and each disapproves of others. [...] We do always believe that each essay here represents a viable – and important – voice in contemporary feminist literary studies, one that should be heard. Still we recognize that the diversity of views represented here sometimes leads to irreconcilable logical conflicts. There is no way to force these many voices into a unison performance, or even – in some cases – to make them harmonize. (1997, p. xii)

The impossibility of reducing this story to a monologue resulted also from an attempt at synthesizing the reactions to various phases in the development of feminist critical theory, such as concentrating on a woman as a writer, writes Robbins: however, this is prone to glamorizing textuality, gynocriticism that risked essentialism, to which Toril Moi devoted some pages (Wolfreys, 1999, p. 52). Besides, third-wave feminism finds the question of interdisciplinarity of special interest, as it focuses on alternatives to issues that were previously the focus of feminist scholarship, thereby strengthening its methodological reach and concentrating beyond the implications of the first- and second-wave problematic, with each term questioning the other. This kind of knowledge production acquires the structure of a patchwork, which presents one of the possible paths that feminist philosophy could take, as emphasized by Stella Sandford (2002, pp. 139-160), whose focus on Levinas has attracted diverse feminist perspectives. Sandford confirms that one of the reasons for the pull of this depth is historical coincidence, according to the interest that philosophy has displayed in the work of Levinas and bearing in mind that it strikingly blossomed in the late eighties and the early nineties thus coinciding with the optimization of “feminist philosophy”. Feminist interest, too, includes other aspects of Levinas’s work, such as the role and the nature of the concept of the “feminine”, as well as major issues of feminist controversies brought with the said concept – ranging from the unreservedly affirmative to the absolutely rejective, but that one must also have in mind the fact that, in turn, Levinas’s position has also changed in the context of feminist reading, as Sandford emphasizes (Bernasconi, 2002)

In the third wave of feminist criticism, reflections on body, sexuality, and gender are considered closely related entities. Moreover, all concepts are perceived as transgressing with regard to a particularly contested third-wave space, when several variants of feminism developed, as perceived in the essays published at the turn of the century that deal with paradigms such as the body and “writing the body” presenting the body as a cultural medium⁶. (2010, pp. 2240-2245) The body, as anthropologist Mary Douglas says (2010), as a powerful symbolic form, defines a surface ruled by what is essential, which is the hierarchies of a culture, while, even the culture’s metaphysical vows, are written upon it

⁵ In this context, Ian Chambers’s text titled “Cities Without Maps” has been useful to us. (1999, pp. 611-626)

⁶ For example, see:

Ann Rosalind Jones, “Writing the Body: Toward and Understanding of *L’Écriture Féminine*,” in *Feminisms*, ed. Robyn R. Warhol and Diane Price Herndl (New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 1997), pp. 370-383.

Rosemarie Tong, *Feminist Thought: A Comprehensive Introduction* (New York: Routledge, 1997).

and thus toughened by particular bodily language. This conception also dates back to very early texts, such as one from 1913 entitled ‘Why I Wrote *The Yellow Wallpaper*’, by Charlotte Perkins Gilman⁷ (2007), in which the author writes how “for many years [she] suffered from a severe and continuous nervous breakdown tending to melancholia and beyond.” During the third year of this problematic and troublesome time the author went,

in devout faith and some faint stir of hope, to a noted specialist in nervous diseases, the best known in the country. This wise man put me to bed and applied the rest cure, to which a still-good physique responded so promptly that he concluded there was nothing much the matter with me, and sent me home with solemn advice to “live as domestic a life as far as possible,” to “have but two hours’ intellectual life a day” and “never to touch pen, brush, or pencil again” as long as I live. (2007, p. 119)

Sylvia Plath’s poetry was widely interpreted in the decades following her death, and those readings were under the huge influence of the aforementioned interpretative models. For the purpose of this paper and the obvious lack of space, we will work with the three pivotal studies, which are listed in the text that follows, as it is *Revising Life: Sylvia Plath’s Ariel Poems* (1993), in which Susan R. Van Dyne maps the fifties and the sixties as a period of significance in Plath’s life history⁸ and emphasizes two major objectives that remained emblemized: to become a perfect mother and a renowned poet, despite the cultural myths that define feminine self-expression as most perfectly realized within the first domain. Likewise, the early feminist reading of Plath’s work logically strongly supported these endeavours. This, for many, predominant theme of Plath’s poetry has never been overlooked or denied after the first postulated wave of interpretations, but was enriched, as we pointed out at the beginning, by continuous reinterpretations. In the poetry written after the birth of her children, as Van Dyne explains, Plath had to revise the purpose she had set at the beginning and this new literary venture was identified as the central metaphor of her work by the new wave of feminist critics. Unrelenting questions started forcing themselves into the lyrical vision of the poet: do motherhood and writing stand in a harmonious or conflicting relationship? is the metaphor analogous to motherhood? does it stand in an ambivalent defence against it? (1993, p. 144) Van Dyne observes that for Plath motherhood was not a stable, unified, or a transparent category and what it may have meant had to be incessantly re-modified. Likewise, a study by Jacqueline Rose (1991) makes a shift into feminist reading revealing new semantic arches of Plath’s texts. Her *The Haunting of Sylvia Plath* provoked the most ardent reaction in Ted Hughes, as it talks about Hughes’ role in Plath’s life and in his editing of her collection of *Ariel* poems, while he is presented as silencing her, transforming her voice so as to suit his own interests, Rose writes, further emphasizing: “In my reading, Plath regularly unsettles certainties of language, identity and sexuality, troubling the forms of cohesion on which ‘civilised’ culture systematically and often oppressively relies. My suggestion that this might be the case, specifically in the field of sexuality, has provoked the strongest reactions from the estate. The question then arises – who is to decide the limits of unacceptable? Who is to decide what it is acceptable for the unacceptable to be?” (1991, p. xii)

In his mapping of Plath’s unsettling of “certainties of language, identity and sexuality”, Butscher (2003) acknowledges that the *Ariel* poems contain means by which Plath rid herself of the poison that had been her bane for years and explains how the poems served as a catharsis for repressed feelings. This poetry collection, he claims, grew into a perfect metaphor for the newly freed being and for the art it was about to institute, the art that is both desperate and exciting, surprisingly finding its true expression in the masculine will to power. For Van Dyne the whole collection presents Plath as an impudent voice directing its poetics through a passionate transubstantiation of the female subject, while the creative freedom is highlighted through the figures that are symbolically carnal and transgressively sexual. According to Rose, who explains how Plath was constituted as a literary subject on the battlefield of cultural survival, “Lady Lazarus” most frequently locates Plath’s transcendental femininity, alluding to the origin of myth and recapitulating the cyclical scheme of dying and regeneration. Not being the only critic who have perceived the correspondence between Plath’s speakers and her personal crisis, Alvarez has depicted his fascination with the objectivity with which the poet treats personal material: not only does she write about her personal worries, but she brings closer the locality and vicinity of pain.

In her highly subtle elaboration of the poem, Linda K. Bundtzen defines “Lady Lazarus” as “an allegory about the woman artist’s struggle for autonomy”: “The female creature of a male artist-god is asserting independent creative powers. Next to Lady Lazarus’s miraculous rise at the end, the male god’s art is an inept engineering feat. Where at the beginning of the poem the Lady merely manifests his potency – indeed, postulating her imagination by playing the role of female exhibitionist – by the end of the poem she is a creator in her own power” (2001, pp. 86-87). For Christina Britzolakis, Plath’s rhetoric, foregrounding in that way questions of sexuality and power, can be read as encoding a spectacular relation between poet and audience: “As ‘Lady Lazarus’ demonstrates, the ironic secularity at work in Plath’s language is an effect not merely of literary history, or of a gendered literary market, but also of a culture of consumption in which images of women circulate as commodities. Among the personae which appear most frequently in Plath’s poetry are those of the prostitute, the female performer and the mechanical woman. In ‘Fever 103’, as in ‘Lady Lazarus’, the speaker occupies all three of these roles, oscillating between the positions of artist and artefact,

⁷ See also:

Helen Lefkowitz Horowitz, *Wild Unrest: Charlotte Perkins Gilman and the Making of “The Yellow Wall-Paper”* (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2010).

⁸ Susan R. Van Dyne, *Revising Life: Sylvia Plath’s Ariel Poems* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press, 1993).

consumer and commodity-spectacle. Indeed, *Ariel* situates itself as part of a culture in which self-revelation or self-expression has itself become a cliché: what ‘Lady Lazarus’ calls ‘the big strip tease’.” (2006, pp. 114-115)

Reading Plath’s poems against the background of contemporary history and politics continues to be a popular practice, as we perceive in the most recent books devoted to the exploration of “many layers of her often unreliable and complex representations and the difficult relationship between the reader and the text” (Bayley, Brain, 2011), while also evaluating “the historical, familial and cultural sources that Plath drew upon for material: from family photographs, letters and personal history to contemporary literary and cinematic Holocaust texts” (2011, p. i), offering “no singular form or vision” (Rose, p. 4), but utterances that are different, “each one contradicting as much as completing the others, each on no less true for the disparity which relates them and sets them apart (Rose, pp. 4-5). These pointers defined by Rose as always talking about “the implication of the psyche in history, and of history within the psyche”, are clearly stated in Plath’s “Context” (2007, pp. 167-169), in which she defines her poems as deflections, not as an escape: “For me, the real issues of our time are the issues of every time – the hurt and wonder of loving; making in all its forms – children, loaves of bread, painting, buildings; and the conservation of life of all people in all places, the jeopardizing of which no abstract doubletalk of ‘peace’ or ‘implacable foes’ can excuse.” (2007, p. 169) Rose (1991) points out that Plath was often criticized because of the way she intertwined her personal mythology with events of historic significance, especially with fascism and the Holocaust, and that she was condemned for trivializing history and aggrandizing her own being, transforming real terror into fantasy, using the terror as a metaphor for searching into and revealing for the outside world her own being. In addition, Alvarez (1971) perceives that this is precisely the relevant element in her work mainly due to different reasons, while poetry and death remain inseparable: “The one could not exist without the other. And this is right. In a curious way, the poems read as though they were written posthumously.”

We have not, of course, depleted the possibilities of meanings within Plath’s work, neither was it our aim, but we were hoping to prove not only that they are inexhaustible but also that each advancing fashion of critical discourse modified what Foucault defined as the author-function, hence inaugurating significant (although often not too obvious) cultural changes. With their textual references and indications, the books from which we have quoted and paraphrased in this text, help us fixate the flow of time in its mosaic structure of political, economical, and cultural relapses, as they equally look back at the opposition of centre/core and the periphery/margin. Thus, they introduce us to the analysis of contemporary critical thinking and offer us a better understanding of the present. As Fredrick Jameson once said, they will invoke in us nostalgia for the present and a desire to approach it in an urgent manner in order to leave valuable textual traces behind us. Finally, their pages will also inspire us to dream of the future, which most probably will be defined by subversion and innovation, but also by more formal approaches displaying extravagant idiosyncrasies of the new, because sometimes new threats are transformed into banal and trivial ones.

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Word Formation Processes in Nigerian Short-message Service

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Abstract—One of the features of a living language is that it constantly changes with new words finding their way into the vocabulary of the language. Languages' vocabularies grow from time to time as a result of new innovations that continuously spring up in different sectors of life and human endeavour; one of which is the Global System for Mobile Communication (GSM), in the recent century. This study, therefore, explores the various processes employed by Nigerian Short-Message Service (SMS) writers in generating new words, by critically sampling and analysing some of these new words to see the processes employed by these GSM users. It is discovered in this paper that these GSM users have the capability of reducing any form of expression to the starker abbreviation. Generally, the new words analysed are in one way or the other in their reduced forms and this may not be far from the characteristic SMS requirement of limited number of characters.

Index Terms—word formation, GSM, SMS, clipping, alphanumeric and coinages

I. INTRODUCTION

The current computer literacy level in the society has made text-based communication, which comes in various forms; assume a vital position among many people. These text-based communication techniques include chat on-line, text messaging, e-mail, among others. This form of communication (text-based communication) comes with its peculiar style of writing, creating and re-creating new ways of writing. This paper is an attempt in analysing the various word formation processes employed by Nigerians using the Global System for Mobile Communication (GSM) in text messaging.

GSM, which is an abbreviation for Global System for Mobile Communication, is a communication system that does not use wires and cables. It rather uses radio waves according to Homby (2001), and as such, it can be carried about and be used anywhere. Though GSM can be used for many purposes, it is majorly used for call making and text-messaging. However, this paper focuses on text massages.

Temple (2013) observes that technical ideas (with respect to GSM) from various numbers of sources are gathered over the period from 1982-1985. According to him, Europe produced the very first GSM Technical Specification in 1987, which marks the birth or the pivotal year of GSM. However, GSM was introduced in Nigeria in 2001 following the January 2001 auction for GSM which attracted mobile phone operators like MTN Nigeria, Econet Wireless Nigeria (now Airtel), MTEL, Globacom and Etisalat to operate digital mobile service in the country. Econet Wireless Nigeria and MTN Nigeria launched their GSM on 7th and 8th of August 2001 respectively. Obviously, GSM subscription rate and phone calls were extremely expensive at inception. However, with the advent of days, they have become relatively affordable that an average household in the country can afford to own as many GSM phones as the number of persons in the household. This makes it possible for young people (even children) to have access to GSM. Consequently, from observation there are innovative ways/styles of writing that accompany the use of GSM to compose text messages, especially by the younger generation in order to reflect local colouration and to, save time, space and cost. In this paper, we look at these innovative styles to find out the word-formation processes employed by Nigerian users of this information technology gadget in their text messages.

Short Message Service (SMS) is a text messaging service component of web, phone or mobile communication systems that makes use of standardised communication protocol which makes it possible for fixed lines or mobile phone devices to exchange short text messages. SMS sends and receives messages of up to 160 characters per page to and from GSM handsets. In other words, there is a limited number of characters that can be sent or received through SMS. This may explain the need to create and re-create new words. This study is inspired by this new form of writing and the styles with which it comes.

Language is in constant change with new words coming into it almost on a daily basis. Though not every new word survives, some eventually find their ways into the vocabulary of the language. Word formation is simply the creation of new words in a language. Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2011) observe that new words have quite a number of ways by which they can enter the language. Scholars like Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2011); Aronoff and Fudeman (2008); Gries (2006); Peña (2010), among others, have identified these various processes of word formation to include:

compounding, derivation, coinage, acronym, blending, clipping, back-formation, etc. However, the focus of this paper is on how Nigerian mobile phone users employ these and other processes in forming new words as are evident in their test messages.

For clarity of purpose, this paper is divided into five sections, with the first and the second sections bordering on introduction and views of various authors on the topic respectively. In the third section, the methodology adopted in the paper is discussed, while the various word-formation processes, alongside the resulting new words as identified in SMS, are provided and discussed in the fourth section. Finally, the fifth and sixth sections respectively summarise and conclude the paper.

II. WORD FORMATION PROCESSES: AN OVERVIEW

A word-formation process may be either or all about the following: a way in which an entirely new word comes into a language and/or a way in which a speaker creates complex words from already existing simpler word(s). In line with this view, Lieb (2013) defines word formation as forming new lexical words from already existing words using a word-formation process.

Bryson (1990) cited in Peña (2010) identifies six ways of creating new words which include: by adding to them, by subtracting from them, by making them up, by doing nothing to them, by borrowing from other languages and by mistake. This paper is not interested in the mechanism of doing nothing to them because it is an aspect of historical semantics. Moreover, in addition to the six mechanisms identified by Bryson (1990), Peña (2010) adds another which is: by combining them. Peña (2010) further explains that when we talk of adding to existing words, we mean the use of processes like derivation and compounding. Scholars like Peña (2010); Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams (2011); Aronoff and Fudeman (2008); etc posit that derivation and compounding are the more productive ways of adding new words into English. Subtracting from them refers to word formation process as clipping; then borrowing and mistake refer to backformation or misspelling while combining them has to do with acronyms and blending or portmanteaus.

Peña (2010) asserts that blending is a word formation process that involves the removing and joining of residues of two or more words in order to create a new word that has form and meaning, which have resemblance with the source words. The meanings and sounds of the two words combined; and the combination may or may not be in their full forms. Little wonder, Gries (2006) and Aronoff and Fudeman (2008) while observing that blending is a highly creative word-formation process explain that this is so, because it is a process that does not adhere to any specific productive rule. In the same vein, Bauer (1983) opines that the blender is actually free to take either as little or as much as he deems necessary to form a blend. Consequently, one can rightly say that blending is the most unpredictable process of word formation.

Peña (2010) also defines borrowing as a process that involves the copying of a word from one language (to which it originally belongs) to another. For there to be a case of borrowing, the two languages involved must have come in contact with each other. Borrowed words often do not remain the way they are in the original/source language. However, they are modified to adhere to the phonological, morphological and syntactic patterns of the borrowing language. Languages that are in contact with one another tend to take-on terms they lack from each other.

In the case of compounding, Olsen (2007) calls the process of forming compounds, composition and posits that two stems from the vocabulary are combined to form a new word. On the other hand, Katić (2013) notes that initialisms and acronyms are shortenings which are derived from the initial letters in a phrase or name, explaining that

... while acronyms are pronounced as "single words" (NASA, AIDS), initialisms are pronounced "as a sequence of letters" (DNA, USA). The difference between these two types lies in how the resulting word is pronounced in spoken language, namely letter by letter or without intermission, (p. 3).

In essence, Katić (2013) is saying that initialisms (also called alphabetisms by Zapata 2007), and acronyms are words that are formed from the initial letters of words, (usually names of organisation or a scientific term, etc), which are pronounced as sequences of letters and as words respectively.

Clipping as another word-formation process, according to Peña (2010), is a process that involves the deletion of a part (usually, one or more syllables) of a word and leaving a certain part of the said word. In clipping, the deletion may take place at any position, initial, final or medial. In other words, any part of the word can be clipped off. Shahla and Amir (2013) posit that it involves abbreviating an already existing word.

In back formation, which is another word-formation process, Shahala and Amir (2013) say that it is a word-formation process where a shorter word (base) is being formed by deleting a supposed/imagined affix from an already existing word in a language. This type of word-formation process is, for instance, used to create verbs from nouns ending in '-tion/-sion' or '-or/-er'. Kwary (nd.) says it is a creative reduction of a word due to wrong morphological analysis. This is a process of forming a new word by deleting what looks like a typical affix in the language. Shahla and Amir (2013) later summarise their view by saying that back formation is a process that is motivated by analogy.

Furthermore, Gries (2006) studies the underlying mechanisms for the coining of intentional morphological blends and complex clipping where he asserts that the two word-formation processes are clearly different in relation to the extent to which the source words they involve relate to the output. While the absolute magnitude of this effect is specifically strong in speech, complex clipping behaves nearly like a random word pair when it comes to writing. He states that:

- (i) the formation of blends is in fact substantially correlated with corpus-derived SPs (Selection Points) and that
- (ii) a superficially very similar word-formation process, complex clipping, does not exhibit such a tendency, (p. 549).

Furthermore, Gries (1989) opines that this is an indication that “the intentional creation of blends at least suggests that their coiners make use of a general mechanism involved in the comprehension of words when they form a neologism, as if trying to anticipate comprehenders’ strategies” (p. 549).

As it concerns the empirical findings of other scholars, Peña (2010) carries out a contrastive study of word-formation processes in the English and Spanish languages with a view to contrasting the mechanisms used by the two languages in coining new words. She does this by describing each of the processes with examples in order to determine the frequency and productivity of the mechanisms in each of the languages. The work shows that both languages have corresponding coinage mechanisms which vary in frequency and productivity. Peña (2010:408) goes on to state,

These processes are derivation, compounding, clipping, borrowing, backformation, acronyms and blending. Derivation and borrowing are highly prolific mechanisms in both languages; compounding is very much used in English but not so common in Spanish; the rest are less prolific and more or less equally frequent in both languages.

Shahla and Amir (2013) have carried out a comparative study of the different word-formation processes used in Ilami, a dialect of Kurdish and that of the English language to see if there are similarities or differences in the ways these two languages form new words. By looking at different strategies of word formation like derivation, compounding, blending, abbreviation, etc, they discover that Kurdish makes use of compounding more than English. They also observe that Ilami makes less use of derivation to form new words. In addition, other processes of word formation were discovered to be rarely or never used in Ilami. Shahla and Amir (2013:83) believe that “Kurdish (as a whole and Ilami as a dialect of it), unlike English does not have a written form and is not an official language; these factors remarkably decrease the level of word-formation productivity in this language (and dialect).” Therefore, they are of the view that since word-formation processes have some kind of relation with written language, it should not be surprising that these processes are rare in Ilami.

Plag (2002) writes on word formation processes in English computer mediated communication (CMC and SMS). The summary of his findings show the following:

- a. that native languages/dialects influence patterns of writing in CMC and SMS
- b. that pronunciation spelling (which usually manifests in SMS/CMC) is not considered as a method of creating new words, but non-standard orthographic representation of words motivated by mother tongue interference

In conclusion, there are various ways by which new words find their ways into the vocabulary of a language – by adding to them (through the use of processes like derivation and compounding); by subtracting from them (through the use of process like clipping); borrowing; mistakes (which involves a process like back-formation) and combining them (through processes like blending and acronyms). We can also have outright coinage, where an entirely new word is coined. In this case, it does not involve an already existing word. On this basis, as we can see above, linguists have carried out researches on word-formation processes in different languages of the world and also in various aspects of language.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study is a descriptive survey. The researchers engaged the assistance of six field assistants. Two persons each were appointed for the three locations that serve as the areas of the study. Moreover, the youths (within the age bracket of 15-35) make up the population of the study. The youths are purposely chosen because they are more involved in the use of ICT. The researchers observe that these ‘new words’ in Nigerian SMS are common among the youths and do not necessarily cut across the entire GSM users. With the use of purposive cluster random sampling method, the researchers sampled two urban and one rural area within the southern, northern and western parts of the country. Data were collected from these locations viz: Enugu (for the South) and Kano and Lagos (for North and West respectively), with SMS from mobile phones serving as the primary source of data. The respondents were approached and they granted the researchers and field assistants access to the text messages they sent out within a period of two weeks. Additionally, library and the internet serve as secondary sources from where books, articles and papers relating to the topic were reviewed.

Within the selected locations, five respondents were randomly selected; making a total of fifteen respondents in each area. Eight hundred and ten messages (messages in the English language) were extracted from their phones. This number gives an average of about ten messages per respondent. However, only one hundred and forty (140) items were seen to contain the kind of words the paper is interested in, (i.e. words that are not in normal Standard English forms). Consequently, 140 words were used for this study. The data so collected were descriptively analysed, viz.: clipping, sound reduction involving deletion, alpha-numeric, and initialisms involving abbreviations. In the analysis, emphasis is on what actually happens to the source word (the words from which the new ones emanate). In other words, the analysis focuses on the patterns adopted by the respondents in creating the ‘new words’ from the already existing ones.

IV. WORD FORMATION PROCESSES IDENTIFIED IN NIGERIAN SMS

A. Clipping

1. cred	credit	12. coz/bcos	because
2. oft	often	13. takia/tkia	take care
3. sis	sister	14. bhind	behind
4. val	Valentine	15. bday	birthday
5. gen	generator	16. pple	people
6. esp	especially	17. lil	little
7. moro	tomorrow	18. hols	holidays
8. ope	hope	19. abt	about
9. ave	have	20. pix	picture
10. api	happy	21. bros	brother

11. xtian (clipping involving sound deletion) Christian

A look at items 1 – 19 above suggests that there is a pattern by which some letters are laid off and others retained for the respective clips to be formed. 1 – 6 above show that what is clipped off are letters that are at the end of the words with the consequent clip coming from the remaining part of the word-initial letters, back-clipping/apocopation; while in examples 7 - 10, what are clipped off are letters that are at the beginning of the respective words, fore-clipping/aphaeresis, retaining the final part. It is important to note here that example 10 does not adhere strictly to this rule. Apart from reducing the double ‘p’ to a single one, the letter ‘y’ is also substituted for ‘i’, depicting its sound. In examples 11 - 16, clipping takes the form of the first letter of the first syllable (or a letter that sounds like it as in example 11 above) and the whole of the subsequent syllable or a representation (what sounds like it as in 12-13 above) of the syllable. However, in examples 17-19 above, clips are formed by taking letters partly from the beginning as well as the ending of the words. On the contrary, there is no exact pattern involved in forming clips in examples 20-21 above except that the first, second as well as the first, second and third letters in the respective words are retained. It is also noteworthy to point out that ‘pix’ and ‘bros’ in the context of SMS in Nigeria can be used for both singular and plural. Summarily, in all the instances, words are reduced to some of their parts.

B (i) Sound reduction involving deletion of letters

22. wit	with	43. dis	this
23. wat	what	44. dat	that
24. wen	when	45. dem	them
25. wud	would	46. fada/moda	father/mother
26. wot	what	47. dey	they
27. fon	phone	48. dose	those
28. tym	time	49. tanx	thanks
29. gal	girl	50. eva	ever
30. tot	taught	51. ova	over
31. kip	keep	52. tite/tyt	tight
32. kia	care	53. nite/nyt	night
33. kot	caught	54. shud	should
34. skul	school	55. buk	book
35. bak	back	56. luv	love
36. unik	unique	57. xpanñ	expansion
37. gud	good	58. evry	every
38. hapi	happy	59. b	be
39. beta	better	60. n	and
40. laf	laugh	61. u	you
41. suxes	success	62. y	why
42. pis/pisful	peace/peaceful	63. c	see

In the group of words above (examples 22 – 63), ‘new words’ are formed based on the sounds that make up the individual words. Though they are not exact transcription of the ‘original words’ (the words from which they are formed), the pronunciations of the ‘newly formed words’ represent typical Nigerian phonemic realisations of the said words (applied linguists may call this pronunciation – spelling error. For instance, Plag (2002) classifies words in example (Bi) as a product of pronunciation spelling based on the respondents’ native language/dialect). Here, ‘wh’ is represented by ‘w’ (see examples 32 – 36 above); ‘c’, ‘ch’, ‘ck’ and ‘que’ are simply represented by ‘k’ since they are pronounced /k/ in the words where they occur. Interestingly, ‘th’ which is pronounced as /ð/ in 43 – 48 and /θ/ in (49), is represented by ‘d’ and ‘t’ letters respectively. This may likely be as a result of the absence of the two interdental fricatives in Nigerian languages; hence, the sounds are always mispronounced as /d/ and /t/ respectively, using the nearest equivalent in their native languages. Therefore, it is not a surprise that GSM users in Nigeria would do such substitution as we see in examples (43 – 49) above. The reduction of somewhat complex spellings with the nearest letter that also depicts pronunciation is also evident in group B(i) above. Words in examples 59 – 63 are seen as depicting sound because they are intended to be realised when pronouncing the letters used in representing them and, as such, the letters then stand for the words. We should also note that examples B(i) (59 - 63) do not fall into a neat category. They

also belong to another category (observe example C below). However, we will not also be wrong to present and analyse them as abbreviations of the original words. Observe B (ii) below.

B (ii) Sound reduction involving deletion and alphanumeric

64. 2	to/too	74. 4	for
65. 2giv	to give	75. 4eva	forever
66. 2d	to the	76. 4giv	forgive
67. 2day	today	77. 4c	fore-see
68. 2suxes	to success	78. b4	before
69. 9ce	nice	79. 4rm	from
70. 9ite/9t	night	80. 8	ate
71. 1	won	81. gr8	great
72. som1	someone	82. 0	nothing
73. any1	anyone		

The final products from examples 64 – 81 are instances of neologism involving alphanumeric. It involves the special use of numerals to represent sounds in words, such that when the numeral is pronounced (sometimes, alongside other letters), the intended word (or something close to it), is realised. The figures ‘1, 2, 4, 8, and 9’ have been observed as being used to represent the words, ‘to’ - /tə/, ‘one/won’ - /wʌn/, ‘night’ - /naɪt/, ‘four/for/fore’ - /fɔ:/ or /fə/ and ‘ate/eight’ - /eɪt/ respectively. These figures are consequently added to form part of spellings of the words where such sounds they represent are found. In (82), SMS senders reduce ‘nothing’ to ‘0’, which is its equivalent in figures.

C. Initialisms involving abbreviations (Coinages)

83. y	why	111. gf	girlfriend
84. b	be	112. bf	boyfriend
85. d/di	the	113. sth	something
86. u	you	114. swthrt	sweetheart
87. r	are	115. fym	for your mind
88. n/nd	and	116. oyo	on your own
89. hr	hour	117. IJN	in Jesus name
90. bt	but	118. asap	as soon as possible
91. nt	not	119. ftf	face to face
92. rd	road	120. cwot	complete waste of time
93. frnd	friend	121. np	no problem
94. pls	please	122. dnt	do not
95. jst	just	123. omg	oh my God
96. wk	week	124. cul	see you later
97. bk	back	125. btw	by the way
98. hw	how	126. lol	laugh out loud/lots of love
99. yr	year	127. pcm	please call me
100. wr	were	128. idnts	I don't think so
101. rm	room	129. b4n	bye for now
102. ur	your	130. hand	have a nice day
103. bdy	body	131. mu	I miss you
104. nxt	next	132. ltns	long time no see (colloquial)
105. msg	message	133. hru	how are you
106. urs	yours	134. ruok	are you okay
107. mth	month	135. idd	I don die (pidgin English)
108. bc	because	136. txt	text
109. a/c	account	137. brb	be right back
110. av/v	have	138. tlc	tender loving care
		139. hml	happy married life
		140. lwkmd	laugh wan kill me die (pidgin)

In example C, some of the renditions are acronyms while most of them are not. When we consider ‘nd’ in (88) and (89 – 105), we discover that the abbreviations are formed by simply retaining the consonant letters or sounds in the original words while deleting the vowels by that effect. Examples (111 – 114) are formed from the first letters of the two words that respectively make up the compound words. Others (like 106 – 110) are ordinary abbreviations that do not actually have a specific pattern. Moreover, we can also see examples (83 – 87) and ‘n’ in (88) as abbreviations that can be pronounced to realise the words they represent, by ordinarily pronouncing the letters as if in isolation (also observe examples 59-63 above). Moreover, phrases, clauses and even whole sentences are also reduced to abbreviations (see 115 -140 above for illustrations).

V. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

This paper looks at how GSM users manipulate words and spelling symbols to re-create new words while writing their text messages. The previous section shows that GSM users make use of clipping, sound-reduction and initialisms involving abbreviation in forming these words. Example ‘A’ above shows that clipping in text messages comes in various forms. While some can be said to have a pattern, others are without any identifiable pattern. However, they are understood by the communicators. This can be proved by the communication flow observed in the data extracted from the respondents.

Again, there is a notable difference as well as irregularities that exist between the English sounds and their corresponding spellings. This, from the result of the findings, may be the reason behind the new form of writing exemplified in B above. Here, new words are formed on the basis of one-to-one correspondence between the pronunciation of words and their spelling. It is worthy of note to state that what is done is not outright transcription but a rendition of words is a typical Nigerian pronounceable way that still portrays the original word. Typically, the nearest letters that depict the speech sounds of the words are chosen in the representation and this is usually clear where the actual sound segment is not present in any of the native languages. As observed earlier, Plag (2002) sees it as pronunciation spelling which is not considered as a word creating process, rather to represent non-standard orthographic variants. But our findings see it as a word creating process. This conclusion was reached by observing other text messages (still within the 810 messages collected) sent by the same group of respondents to their elder ones and official colleagues. In these official text messages, the above instances of clips, abbreviations, alphanumeric, etc were written in Standard English forms. This is a clear indication that the respondents are not motivated by non-standard spelling. Furthermore, B (ii) shows a pattern of sound-reduction, which can be called alphanumeric, where numerals like 1, 2, 4, 8 and 9, are used to represent sounds. These can either be used in isolation or alongside other letters in the original word to form words in the language of Nigerian SMS users.

This study also discovers that there is a wide range of abbreviations in use among the SMS writers in Nigeria. As against the general notion that initials are being formed from names of organisations and technical names, we see these GSM users’ ability to reduce almost anything they desire to initials. These abbreviations range from single words to phrases, clauses, as well as sentences. Therefore, we can say that Nigerian GSM users reduce both simple and complex expressions to the starker abbreviation.

It is also evident from the data presentation and analysis that what we have are all forms of reducing words and expressions because of lack of space, (which may not be far from the characteristic limited number of characters that are required in SMS), impatience on the part of GSM users to type full words (obviously to save time), and cost. As it concerns cost, it was only last year (2013) that the Nigerian Communication Commission (NCC) reached an agreement with network providers that inter network SMS charge be a flat rate of N4.00 per SMS. Before 2013, it costs N15.00 and above.

Furthermore, this paper discovers that these ‘new words’ are generally interpreted in context. For instance, what is obtainable in the Nigerian context may be different from the Ghana or American context and vice versa. Also, the manner in which words are shortened in the sampled SMS shows that, except within context (i.e., context of use now), these expressions may not be understood. Even though interpretation of SMS is outside the scope of this paper but the analysis reveals that context is the major factor that provides lucid interpretation of these new created forms of writing, which people usually refer to as ‘the language of the GSM.’ Again, (though it is not within the scope of this paper), it is equally important to note that the users of these short forms are mostly youths. Adult GSM users, most times, do not understand this “new language”, and are not usually involved in it. Therefore, the usage is more among the youth, who apparently understand the language. Again, new words are not actually created in that sense of word formation. What we have is a unique writing system in Nigerian SMS that involves the recreation of existing words through clipping, alphanumeric, and sound reduction and deletion.

VI. CONCLUSION

Every human society depending on its needs require new words from time to time to satisfy such needs. Therefore, new innovations make it needful for new words to come into a language in order to name new things and take care of their present communication needs. Every language needs new words almost every day. However, these words are got by borrowing, derivation, conversion, etc. The most important thing is that new concepts are taken care of in the vocabulary of a language. This is why language cannot remain static – since innovations will not cease. Hence, language keeps growing and developing to meet up with the changes in the society. In recent times, many words have entered the vocabularies of many languages as a result of many innovations; for example, the turn-around in the information communication technology (ICT) requires a great deal of new words to meet the demands of the industry since the words we have presently are not adequate to take care of the new things that come with it. ICT makes it necessary for new words like ‘internet, website, ping, cookies, blog, bookmark, download, etc to enter the vocabulary of the English language as well as for old words like *web*, *surf*, and *bug*, etc., to acquire new meanings. Also, there is need to reduce the number of characters in a text since the number of characters in a mobile phone is restricted. This encourages the use of clipped words, abbreviations and the reduction of series of letters to a single letter or figure that will take care of the sound(s) represented by the series of letters as we saw in the paper. Of all the processes of word

formation available, Nigerian GSM users make use of clipping, initialisms, abbreviation, alphanumeric, sound-reduction and deletion to create ‘words’ in their SMS.

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Questioning Academic Success through Self-regulation, Self-esteem and Attitude in Foreign Language Learning (A Case Study)

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Abstract—The present study investigates the relationship between self-regulation, self-esteem, attitude and foreign language achievement (FLA). The research was conducted with 383 students from Gaziantep University Higher School of Foreign Languages. The data were collected through a modified questionnaire adapted from three different questionnaires. The statistical results showed that there was a positive relationship between self-regulation and foreign language achievement ($r = .319$ $p > .01$), self-esteem and foreign language achievement ($r = .404$ $p > .01$), and attitude and foreign language achievement ($r = .425$ $p > .01$). Moreover, when self-regulation, self-esteem and attitude came together, a statistically significant positive relationship with foreign language success was observed ($r = .540$ $p > .01$). Self-regulation, self-esteem and attitude in relation to academic success have been analyzed together for the first time in this study.

Index Terms—attitude, self-regulation, self-esteem, foreign language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

With the increasing importance given to individual differences, the field of psychology has witnessed a deal of great interest recently. Humanistic approaches regard individual differences as an indispensable part of interpreting individuals' behaviors. It is a widely known truth that there are lots of underlying reasons behind human behaviors. In order to understand these reasons, individual differences should not be underestimated. Psychology's findings on individual differences have introduced many concepts to the field. Among these concepts are self-esteem, self-regulation and attitude. These concepts, the importance of which has recently been recognized in education may also be among the determinants of foreign language learning.

Self-regulation, self-esteem and attitude are closely related to cognitively based motivations which explain the reasons of human behaviors. However, the effect of social incentives can't be denied on the constructs mentioned above. These concepts which are contributed to learning with the increase of interest in learner psychology in education may account for the individual differences in learning. They also explain why some learners are more successful than others in the same learning environment.

Self-regulated learning refers to "the self-directive processes and self-beliefs that enable learners to transform their mental abilities, such as verbal aptitude, into an academic performance skill, such as writing" (Zimmerman, 2008, p.1-30). Social Cognitive Theory emphasizes the importance of self-regulation because it functions as a bridge between external factors and internal actions of an individual (Bandura, 1989). Self-regulation capability an individual has helps him to adapt himself to the environment with his inner potential. An individual's degree of self-regulation affects how he interacts with external area, because self-regulation occurs as a result of reciprocal interaction between personal (covert), environmental and behavioral determinants (Bandura, 1977). Most researchers who are seeking to find the relationship between self-regulation and success have found a positive relationship (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1986; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990; Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994; Purdie & Hattie, 1996; Perry and Van de Kamp, 2000; Dignath & Buttner, 2008; Zimmerman & Schunk, 2008; Denham, Bassett, Way, Mincic, Zinsser & Graling, 2012, Cleary & Platten, 2013).

Self-esteem is defined as how valuable an individual finds himself (Malbi & Reasoner, 2000; Bosson, Brown, Zeigler-Hill & Swan, 2003; Korkmaz, 2007). Self-esteem has received great interest among researchers investigating personality development. Nearly all of them agree that self-esteem is an important factor which explains reasons of human behaviors (Beck, 1974; French, Story & Perry, 1995; Brown & Marshall, 2002). Although the relationship between self-esteem and achievement has been concern of much research, there are not many studies investigating self-esteem in relation to foreign language learning. Most of the studies have indicated a positive relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement (Rosenberg, 1965; Purkey's, 1970; Kugle, Clements and Powell, 1983; Güngör, 1989; Nurmi and Pulliainen, 1991; Robinson and Tayler, 1991; 1996).

Attitudes toward learning are defined as "emotional precursors of the initiation of learning behavior (Kormos, Kiddle & Csizér, 2011). Attitude is both input and output according to Garner's socio-educational model. Gardner (1985) strongly stresses the importance of motivation and attitude in language learning. He suggests that two classes of attitudes increase one's motivation to learn a foreign language:

- Integrativeness
- Attitudes toward learning situation.

Foreign language research indicates that motivation and attitude are closely related (Dörnyei, 2001; Masgoret & Garner; 2003; Bernaus, Masgoret, Gardner & Reyes, 2004). Gardner defines motivation as "a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes towards the learning the language" (Williams and Burden, 1997). As closely linked to motivation, language attitude has an undeniable effect on foreign language achievement (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Prodromou, 1992; Lightbown & Spada, 1993; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Mejias and Carlson, 2003; Brantmeier, 2005; Huguet, Lapresta & Madariaga, 2008; Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi & Alzwari, 2012).

Self-regulation, self-esteem and attitude were the foci of the present study because they drew great attention in much research. The relationship between these concepts and foreign language success was the main point of this research. This starting point of the study led these research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between self-regulation and foreign language achievement?
2. To what extent does self-regulation predict foreign language achievement?
3. Is there a relationship between self-esteem and foreign language achievement?
4. To what extent does self-esteem predict foreign language achievement?
5. Is there a relationship between attitude and foreign language achievement?
6. To what extent does attitude predict foreign language achievement?
7. Is there a positive relationship between self-regulation, self-esteem, positive attitudes and foreign language achievement?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

383 volunteers out of 1867 preparatory level students from Gaziantep University Higher School of Foreign Languages participated in this study in 2011-2012 academic year. Most of the students (49.6%) are aged between 17-19. 59% of the learners were male. Majority of them graduated from public high schools (40%). Participants in this study were from three different proficiency levels. More than half the students (58%) have been studying English for more than four years.

Procedure

Data collection method of the study was questionnaire. The questionnaire used in this study consisted of three different questionnaires each of which separately proved reliability and validity. These three questionnaires were adapted and modified according to the aim of the present study. The self-esteem questionnaire was adapted from Rosenberg's self-esteem questionnaire which originally consists of ten items and the reliability was originally found as .92 (Rosenberg, 1965). Self-regulation part of the questionnaire was adapted from Brown, Miller, & Lawendowski (1999). Self-regulation questionnaire was originally proved reliability value of .94. The self-regulation questionnaire which had originally 63 items was modified and reduced to 16 items. While choosing a questionnaire to measure language attitudes, it was important to choose a questionnaire which was previously designed for Turkish students because the present study is also with Turkish students. With this aim, in the present study language attitude was measured through an adapted questionnaire by Karahan (2007). Karahan also adapted this questionnaire from Buschenhofen (1998) to measure attitudes of learners towards foreign language in Turkish context. The final form of the questionnaire included 42 items and the reliability of the new questionnaire was .849. Lastly, students end of year scores including midterm, final results and teacher evaluations were used in order to measure academic success of students.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The effect of age, proficiency level, gender and duration of students' learning English on self-regulation, self-esteem and attitude of them was searched. Among these factors only gender factor was found to affect attitude.

According to Levene's test results, female students showed more positive attitudes toward foreign language learning than male counterparts.

TABLE 1
EFFECT OF GENDER ON ATTITUDE

Attitude	Levene's Test for Equality of variances		t-test for equality of means		
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	.674	.412	-2.58	381	.01
Equal variances not assumed			-2.58	335.72	.01
Attitude	Gender	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
	Male	226	56.84	8.09	.54
	Female	157	38.19	59.01	.65

The result of the table is parallel with other studies which report that girls have more positive approach towards foreign language than boys (Bacon & Finneman, 1992; Kobayashi, 2002; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Shams, 2008; Elkılıç, Akalın & Salman, 2010; Soku, Simpeh & Osafa-Adu, 2011; Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi & Alzwari, 2012).

According to the table 2, there is positive relationship between self-regulation and academic success at medium degree ($r = .319$ $p > .01$). Furthermore, the positive relationship between self-regulation and achievement indicates that the increase in self-regulation affects the increase in foreign language success. Many other studies also confirm that there is a strong relationship between self-regulation and achievement (Grolnick & Ryan, 1989; Pintrich, 2000; Howse, Lange, Farran & Boyles, 2003; Ee, Moore & Atputhasamy, 2003; Nota, Soresi & Zimmerman, 2004; Senko & Harackiewicz, 2005; McClelland & Wanless, 2012).

TABLE 2
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-REGULATION AND FLA

		Self-regulation	Foreign language achievement
Self-regulation	Pearson Correlation	1	.319**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	383	383
Foreign language achievement	Pearson Correlation	.319**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	383	383

Regression model summary of self-regulation and success

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of The estimate
1	.319 (a)	.10	.10	14.83

a. Predictors: (Constant) Self-regulation

ANOVA^b

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	9335.05	1	9535.05	43.30	.000a
Residual	83893.60	381	220.19		
Total	93428.66	382			

a. Predictors (constant), self regulation

b. Dependent variable: foreign language achievement

COEFFICIENTSA

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
1 (Constant)	24.68	5.99		4.11	.000
Self regulation	.68	.10	.319	6.58	.000

a. Dependent Variable: foreign language achievement

Regression model summary also indicates that self-regulation is a meaningful predictor of foreign language achievement ($R=.319$, $R^2 = .10$, $F = 43.30$). Moreover, self-regulation explains 10% of academic success in foreign language achievement.

According to the table 3, there is a positive relationship between self-esteem and foreign language success in medium strength of association ($r = .404$ $p > .01$). This result is consistent with many studies (Hassan, 2001; Hayati & Ostadian, 2008; Bagheri & Faghah, 2012; Liu, 2012). Moreover, the table shows that self-esteem accounts for the 16 % of academic success of the students in this study. In other words, self-esteem predicts foreign language achievement to a significant extent.

TABLE 3
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-ESTEEM AND FLA

		Self-esteem	Foreign language Achievement
Self-esteem	Pearson Correlation	1	.404**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	383	383
Foreign Language Achievement	Pearson Correlation	.404 **	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	383	383

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

Regression model summary of self-esteem and success

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of The estimate
1	.404a	.16	.16	14.32

a. Predictors: (Constant) Self-esteem

ANOVA^b

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	15223.75	1	15223.75	74.16	.000a
Residual	78204.90	381	205.26		
Total	93428.66	382			

a.Predictors (constant), self esteem

b. Dependent variable: foreign language achievement

COEFFICIENTSA

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
1 (Constant)	27.32	4.30		6.35	.000
Self esteem	.97	.11	.404	8.61	.000

a. Dependent Variable: foreign language achievement

In Table 4, it is seen that attitude has a mildly positive correlation with academic success like other variables in this study ($r = .425$ $p > .01$). Many other studies also reached the same results (Trylong, 1987; Kuhlemeier, van den Bergh & Melse, 1996; Onwuegbuzie, Bailey & Daley, 2000; İnal, Evin & Saracaloglu, 2005; Ushida, 2005; Petrides, 2006; Youssef, 2012). It may be interpreted that the more positive attitudes students have toward language learning, the more they are successful at foreign language learning. Regression model summary shows that 18% of the achievement is explained by attitudes toward language. In other words, attitude is a good predictor of foreign language achievement ($R=.425$, $R^2=.18$, $F= 83.86$).

TABLE 4
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTITUDE AND FLA

		Attitude	Foreign language achievement
Attitude	Pearson Correlation	1	.425**
	Sig. (2- tailed)		.000
	N	383	383
Foreign Language Achievement	Pearson Correlation	.425**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	383	383

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

Regression model summary of attitude and success

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of The estimate
1	.425a	.18	.17	14.17

a. Predictors: (Constant) attitude

ANOVA^b

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	16854.87	1	16854.87	83.86	.000a
Residual	76573.78	381	200.98		
Total	93428.66	382			

a.Predictors (constant), attitude

b. Dependent variable: foreign language achievement

COEFFICIENTSA

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
1 (Constant)	16.78	5.19		3.23	.001
Attitude	.81	.08	.425	9.15	.000

a. Dependent Variable: foreign language achievement

According to the table 5, all constructs of the study has positive relation among them.

There is a mid positive correlation between self-regulation and self-esteem ($r = .541 p > .01$). The correlation between them has the highest correlation coefficient of all the variables in the study. This positive relationship is also confirmed by Crocker, Brook, Niiya and Villacorat, (2006). Self-regulation is also correlated with attitude positively, but this relationship is at low level ($r = .258 p > .01$). There is a low positive relationship between self-esteem and attitude, too ($r = .188 p > .01$). In the present study self-regulation, self-esteem and attitude affected achievement and each other positively. According to the multiple regression model of summary, there is a mid positive relationship between self-esteem, self-regulation, language learning attitude and academic success ($r = .540 p > .01$). It means that academic success at foreign language is not independent from self-esteem, self-regulation and language attitude of students. In other words, self-esteem, self-regulation and language attitude may be used while predicting students' success.

The table also reveals that self-regulation, self-esteem and attitude account for 29% of foreign language achievement.

TABLE 5
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-REGULATION, SELF-ESTEEM AND ATTITUDE

		Self regulation	Self esteem	Attitude
Self regulation	Pearson Correlation	1	.541**	.258**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	383	383	383
Self esteem	Pearson Correlation	.541**	1	.188**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	383	383	383
Attitude	Pearson Correlation	.258**	.188*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	383	383	383

Multiple regression model summary of self-esteem, self-regulation, attitude and foreign language achievement

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of The estimate
1	.540a	.29	.28	13.21

a. Predictors: (Constant) self-esteem, self-regulation and attitude

ANOVA^b

Model	Sum of squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	27289.69	3	9096.56	52.12	.000a
Residual	66138.96	379	174.50		
Total	93428.66	382			

a.Predictors (constant),self-regulation, self-esteem, attitude

b. Dependent variable: foreign language achievement

COEFFICIENTSA

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Beta	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
1 (Constant)	-10.40	6.49		-1.60	.110
Self-regulation	.13	.11	.06	1.24	.216
Self esteem	.73	.12	.30	5.87	.000
Attitude	.67	.08	.35	7.83	.000

a. Dependent Variable: foreign language achievement

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The uniqueness of the present research lies in examining the relationship between self-regulation, self-esteem, attitude and foreign language achievement. The study shows that there is a meaningful positive correlation between self-regulation and success, self-esteem and success, attitude and success. In addition, there is a positive relationship between self-esteem and self-regulation, self-esteem and attitude, self-regulation and attitude. Moreover, when these constructs come together, they contribute to foreign language achievement significantly.

The positive relationship between self-esteem, self-regulation, and language attitude gives important clues for foreign language classrooms. Educators should be aware of that, thus take measures. They can plan their educational activities by promoting learners' self-regulation, self-esteem and attitude. Teachers can also encourage students' self-esteem and self-regulation in the class and outside the class. They can affect students' attitudes toward learning a foreign language by being good models of the target language. Not only being competent at teaching methods and techniques but also knowing learners' psychologically readiness and needs do improve foreign language teaching. Moreover, the present study suggests pedagogical implications for teacher trainers. Teacher training curriculum, in-service teacher training programs, seminars and webinars can be designed and implemented so as to help teachers to develop their students' self-esteem, self-regulation and attitude toward language. Furthermore, these programs need to aim to promote higher self-esteem, self-regulation and positive attitudes toward language learning in teachers themselves. Teachers who are

with high self-esteem, self-regulation capacity and positive attitudes can be more fruitful for their learners, and help their learners to improve self-esteem, self-regulation and adopt positive attitudes toward language learning.

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Jordanian High School EFL Teachers' and University EFL Instructors' Perceptions of the Reading Comprehension Content in EFL Textbooks

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Abstract—The study aimed to examine the attitudes towards the appropriateness and the difficulty level of the reading content in secondary stage EFL textbooks in Jordan and an introductory EFL textbook taught in the Jordanian universities. The study involved EFL university instructors, secondary EF teachers, secondary stage students, and freshmen university students. The researcher developed a questionnaire to survey students' perceptions on the appropriateness of the reading material in the secondary stage and for preparing students to university level reading demands. The researcher also interviewed university EFL instructors and secondary EFL teachers to add more credibility to the findings of the study. The results of the questionnaire showed that the students viewed "the appropriateness of the reading content in AP11 and AP12 as "suitable", their "preparation for the university reading level" and their "preparation with reading strategies and their experience with the reading content in NHWP" "fairly suitable". Moreover, EFL teachers and instructors viewed the reading content in the three textbooks as generally easy but still difficult for the students. EFL teachers indicated that the majority of the students leave the secondary schools unprepared for the university. Similarly, the university EFL instructors indicated that the majority of the freshmen university students were usually unprepared for the reading demands at the university level.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, reading skills, postsecondary reading

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is appreciated in any community because, among other reasons, it is the skill that distinguishes literate from illiterate people. Without adequate reading comprehension, students pursuing higher education are vulnerable to failure (Giuliano and Sullivan, 2007). Therefore, students' ability to read well becomes essential for their academic success.

In the past decades, researchers discovered a mutual relationship between a student's academic reading skills and academic success. Williamson (2008) contends that successful students can be unprepared after high school because their reading skills are insufficient for postsecondary texts. He concludes that there is a substantial gap in text demand between widely used high school textbooks and typical postsecondary textbooks. Sengupta (2002) states that the teaching of reading in schools has not helped foster the ability to interpret and evaluate texts and has left the undergraduate who comes to university with an insufficient inheritance from the school system. These learners have minimal reading skills and strategies and are ill equipped to handle demands of academic reading.

Textbooks have a major influence on what is learned in classrooms. In the foreign language situation the textbook is an essential part in the teaching process. Thus, it is essential to ensure that students' reading be efficient and that all reading material be at an appropriate level of difficulty; that is, it must be neither too difficult for the students nor too easy to provide challenging practice (Leslie and Caldwell, 1997).

The teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Jordan is an important objective which aims at developing different language skills. Although English in Jordan has received a great emphasis, and although reading is the core of Jordan's EFL curriculum in schools and universities, the use of English is still on the professional scale. On the other hand, a large number of freshman university students in Jordan complain about the difficulty of the reading component in EFL courses and there is an observable weakness on the part of students in the reading comprehension skills.

One of the compulsory courses taught at Jordanian universities is the English Language Course (LC) 099 which is the first introductory EFL course students study at the university in case the student could not pass an EFL proficiency test. By teaching LC 099, universities exert an effort on the improvement of reading comprehension. In spite of this emphasis on reading comprehension, many instructors of English in the Jordanian universities complain that many of their students are poor readers. In spite of all the changes that are taking place in the Jordanian educational system, there is an observable weakness in reading comprehension skills on the part of the students. A number of university students

fail to deal with the whole text as a unit. This weakness impairs their utilization of texts within and outside the academic context (Al Haddad, 1996).

A. Statement of the Problem

In Jordan, many university students, after studying English for twelve years at school, suffer real problems because of the new demands placed on them. This means that a percentage of university students is somehow unable to conform to the situation at the university. The deficiency in the students' reading can be attributed to different factors including the preparation of the students at school and the gap between the school and the university textbooks. To ascertain whether the gap is purely a performance gap or whether there is also a textual gap requires that students' performance and the perceptions of secondary school EFL teachers and Language Center instructors be studied. The researcher selected LC 099 textbook for analysis because it is the first course taught for a large percentage of university students who cannot pass the English language proficiency test. The researcher assumes that the reading content in LC 099 textbook is more difficult and more demanding than the reading content of grade 11 and grade 12 textbooks. This study addressed the following questions:

1. To what degree do LC 099 students feel Action Pack (AP) 11 and AP 12 prepared them for the reading demands of university courses?
2. To what degree do secondary school EFL teachers and Language Center (LC) 099 instructors feel that their students are prepared for the reading demands in university courses?

B. Purpose of the Study

This study aimed at finding out how the secondary school EFL curriculum in Jordan prepares students for university level reading skills. In other words, the study aimed to examine the perceptions of grade 12 EFL teachers, students at Yarmouk University studying LC 099, and instructors of LC 099 at Yarmouk University towards the preparedness of high school students to university with EFL reading skills.

C. Significance of the Study

The findings of this study are significant for those who are concerned with teaching reading comprehension in secondary schools and at universities, selecting EFL courses, and evaluating students' performance in reading.

The study becomes more important when one considers the importance of the transitional period between the last year at school and the first year in the university. This study came out with results that make the transition of the learners from school to university smoother. This study presents recommendations for textbook selection and for the teaching of reading comprehension at this critical stage.

In addition, considering the views of secondary school students and teachers, LC 099 students and instructors about the appropriateness of the reading material added more insights to the study. These opinions presented data that can be used by The Ministry of Education, Universities, and EFL teachers and instructors for improving the teaching of reading and the selection of the appropriate textbooks.

Moreover, to the best of the researchers' knowledge, no study has been conducted in the Jordanian EFL situation that tackles whether or not AP 12 prepares students to university reading demands. Therefore, it was a primary purpose of this study to identify the extent to which AP 11 and AP 12 prepare students for the university reading demands. Such a study provided essential data about the alignment between the reading content in AP series and New Head Way Plus Pre_intermediate (NHWP).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The current study investigated the appropriateness and the difficulty levels of the reading content in the Jordanian secondary stage EFL textbooks (Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12) and in an EFL textbook taught for first year students at Yarmouk University (New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate). This stage constitutes students who move from secondary school (high school) to postsecondary education and known as "Transition to postsecondary education".

The secondary school provides the last opportunity for most students to obtain guidance in reading proficiency. Macklin (1978) indicates that reading instruction at the secondary level might be perceived as helping the reader to acquire information and develop specific techniques needed for handling the reading materials in each discipline. Roe, Stoodt and Burns (1978) report that secondary level textbooks in various areas tend to have high readability levels in relation to the reading abilities of the students who are expected to read them. They add that evidence indicates that a wide variety of difficulty exists within single texts and that many texts do not have a gradation of difficulty from the beginning to the end.

Adelman (1999) states that for a large number of students, the years they spent at high school are not enough to prepare them to be successful at college. He reports that previous research shows that the most important predictor of success in college is the quality of the high school curriculum. Therefore, it is essential that the content of high school textbooks be evaluated time to time to ensure that they are focused on the demanding skills needed by postsecondary education.

The American College Testing Program (ACT, 2006) stresses the importance of reading for success in college and workplace yet reports that half of high school graduates are ready for college level reading. A frequently heard criticism of secondary school students and university freshmen is their weak reading ability. Although reading may not be the main source of information for many university students, it is still a vital learning tool. Poor readers struggle to learn and are frequently blocked from taking more challenging courses. Therefore, reading is considered an essential component of college or university readiness. ACT Inc.

It is essential that the difficulty of the textbook be appropriate for the reading abilities of the students for whom the books are intended. Harris- Sharples (1983) indicates that one needs to consider a variety of factors within the book in relation to the students when attempting to select a textbook appropriate for a student. These would include such aspects of difficulty as the vocabulary and syntax, the degree of students' interest, conceptual load, and the like. However, the persistent question is what the best match between the students' level of reading and the level of readability should be.

Many researchers in the Jordanian educational context evaluated different Jordanian EFL textbooks. Magableh(2000) evaluated the functional language textbook for the first commercial secondary class, the results of her study revealed that the material was interesting and logically sequenced. The exercises suited the students' level and their interests. The content of the textbook was easy and attractive for both students and teachers. On the other hand, the findings revealed lack of colours, grammar, role play, lack of punctuation, spelling, phonetic transcription of new words, tests, visual aids and dialogues.

Karsou (2005) evaluated Action Pack textbooks (1-5) in Jordan. The result of the study revealed that the respondents agreed on the suitability of Action Pack textbooks in motivating learners to communicate; the appropriateness of the reading materials to the learners' needs and interests; the methods of teaching were relevant to the general and specific objectives; the teacher's book provided teachers with key answers and finally; the general aspects of Action Pack textbooks were highly appropriate. Concerning the weaknesses of Action Pack textbook, the findings indicated that the objectives were less appropriately relevant to the learner's real life situations; listening and speaking skills were inappropriate for the learner's abilities; the vocabulary items were not provided with the phonetic transcription.

The literature in the area of reading textbook analysis and the perceptions of the learners and teachers is very vast. A large number of studies have been done on textbook analysis and educators' opinions of such textbooks in Jordan or elsewhere. Unfortunately, very little research has actually examined the reading material of high school in contrast to those of university to determine if there is a gap between them. Al- Haddad (1996) examined the attitudes of twelfth grade students in Jordan toward reading. The respondents were found to have neutral attitudes toward reading on each factor except for literary students who scored a slightly positive rating on the utility factor.

Maaka and Ward (2000) explored community college students' inability to learn from assigned content area readings. They examined the community college students' perceptions regarding reading motivation, skills, strategies, and comprehension. The study showed that the students were not aware of the kind of critical reading they needed to be doing. They did not spend as much time as the instructor felt was necessary doing reading, and were not motivated to complete the readings. On the other hand, the instructors' views did not correspond with the student views on the opinion whether the students were effective readers.

ACT (2006) tested the reading comprehension skills of approximately 1.2 million high school students, who graduated in 2005 across The United States. The reading part of the test aimed at investigating the preparedness of the tested students to the college level reading demands. The results of the test indicated that only 51% of the high school graduates were ready for college-level reading.

In 2002-03, The National Council of Teachers of English (ACTE) sent about 10,900 writing and 5,200 reading surveys to secondary- and postsecondary-level teachers across the United States. Twenty percent of those educators completed and returned the survey about the most important or as a prerequisite for success in college courses. Secondary-level teachers were also asked to indicate whether each skill was or was not taught in the class they named. Patterson and Deur (2006) reported the results of this survey which was mainly designed to find out what writing and reading skills are taught by high school teachers and expected of incoming students by instructors of common first-year college courses. The survey revealed a good correspondence between practice and expectations. While the high school teachers and college instructors responding to the surveys mostly agree on which writing and reading skills are most important, the college instructors appear to place more stress on grammar and usage than do the high school teachers. At the same time, both groups gave relatively low importance ratings to many higher-order reading skills related to evaluating or judging text. The survey findings also suggested that curriculum differentiation, or tracking, continues to influence the kind of instruction some students receive which raises the important question of whether all students are being adequately equipped with appropriate writing and reading skills.

Henry (2006) reported at The Community College of Ontario first year students' perceptions of their preparedness for the literary tasks required of them in their first- Year College programs and compared those views with the perceptions of their program instructors. The findings of this study showed that college students and instructors were satisfied with the preparation of students for the literacy requirements of colleges. The study also indicated that college students struggle with spelling and with using grammar correctly. Moreover, students with college preparation high school courses reported having more trouble than those with university preparation courses to meet college literacy requirements.

Williamson (2008) elaborated a continuum of text demand for postsecondary endeavours. He examined whether 11th- and 12th-grade students' exposure to high school texts sufficiently prepares them for textual material they might encounter in their postsecondary endeavours. The study demonstrated substantial differences between the materials that high school students are expected to read and the materials they may encounter after high school. High school material reflected a substantially higher text demand from students in the postsecondary lives.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. The Population of This Study

First: the population of the first secondary (eleventh grade) students at Jordanian public schools in Jerash Directorate of Education in the academic year 2011/2012. They were 3564 students with 1890 female students in 28 schools and 1674 males in 25 schools.

Second: the population of the second secondary (twelfth grade) students at Jordanian public schools in Jerash Directorate of Education in the academic year 2011/2012. They were 3357 students with 1674 female students in 28 schools and 1683 students in 25 schools.

Third: the population of the first year students at Yarmouk University who studied CL 099 in the first semester of the academic year 2011/2012. They were 2711 students distributed in 35 sections.

Fourth: the population of the Secondary stage English language teachers in Jerash Directorate of Education in the academic year 2011/2012. They were 42 female and 44 male teachers.

Fifth: the population of the English language instructors at the Language Centre in Yarmouk University who taught CL 099 in the first semester of the academic year 2011/ 2012. They were 16 instructors.

B. The Sample of the Study

The sample of the study was twofold: students' sample, and teachers' and instructors' sample. Three different groups of students were used. For the purpose of selecting the sample, the researcher followed the cluster sampling technique where three clusters were identified (11th grade students, 12th grade students, and CL 099 students). Sections were purposefully assigned from each cluster. The first group was 274 eleventh grade students in Jerash directorate of education (148 females and 126 males) in the scientific, literary, information technology (IT), and Health Management streams. Four sections in four public female schools and four sections in four public male schools were chosen purposefully since the students in these eight schools were from different areas of Jerash Directorate of Education which includes Jerash city and surrounding areas.

The second group was 300 twelfth grade students in Jerash directorate of education (163 females and 137 males) in the scientific, literary, information technology (IT), and Health Management streams. Four sections in four public female schools and four sections in four public male schools were chosen purposefully since the students in these eight schools were from different areas of Jerash Directorate of Education which includes Jerash city and surrounding areas. Table (1) below shows the distribution of the 11th and 12th grade students samples.

TABLE 1:
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE 11TH AND 12TH GRADE STUDENT PARTICIPANTS.

Level	Gender	Scientific	Literary	IT	Health Management	Total
11th Grade	Male	31	33	35	27	126
	Female	37	33	41	37	148
12th Grade	Male	33	36	37	31	137
	Female	37	41	43	42	163

The third group was 310 freshmen students who were studying CL 099 at Yarmouk University Language Center during the first semester of the academic year 2011/2012 (183 females and 127 males). Six sections at Yarmouk University language centre were purposefully assigned for the purpose of this study.

The same CL 099 sample responded to a questionnaire about the appropriateness and difficulty level of the reading content in the secondary stage textbooks, how it prepared them for the university reading level, and their reading experience with LC 099 textbook. The original number was 310 students, but some students who did not study the Jordanian EFL curriculum at the secondary stage, the students who had language courses or training before they joined LC 099, and students who were not at the first year level were excluded. Therefore, the final number of the respondents was 226 freshmen students who were studying LC 099 at Yarmouk University.

Regarding the teachers, ten English language teachers who were teaching the secondary stage in the first semester of the academic year 2011/2012 (5 male teachers and 5 female teachers) were interviewed to investigate their perceptions of the appropriateness and difficulty level of the reading content in AP11 and AP12 and how this content helps prepare the students for the university reading level. All of those teachers were teaching the secondary stage with their experience ranging from four to nineteen years. They hold at least B.A. in the English language and literature. Some of them hold diploma or M.A. in TEFL and English linguistics.

Regarding the instructors, right English language instructors at Yarmouk University's Language Centre were interviewed to investigate their perceptions of the appropriateness and difficulty level of the reading content in NHWP and how this content helps prepare the students for reading in other courses at the university level. All of those instructors were teaching LC 099 during the first semester of the academic year 2011/2012 with their experiences ranging from 6 to more than 30 years. They hold M.A. in English linguistics, English literature and some of them have PhD in TEFL.

C. Textbooks under Study

For a number of reasons, the reading content in grade 11, grade 12, and LC 099 were chosen as the levels of textbooks to analyze. Grade 11 and 12 make the secondary stage in the Jordanian educational system. On the other hand, LC 099 is the first EFL course that the majority of the university freshmen study if compared to other courses. The period including the secondary stage and university first year represents the transition from school to university. The researchers were interested in this stage when they planned their research as this stage is a crucial one in the students' academic life and it has not been studied as shown by the literature review. Therefore, it is hoped that this study presents an insight into some aspects of this stage by investigating the appropriateness and the difficulty level of the reading content in the textbooks under study.

D. The Questionnaire

The researchers developed a questionnaire to tackle LC 099 Yarmouk University Students' perceptions regarding the appropriateness and the difficulty level of the reading content in AP 11 and AP 12 and how these textbooks help prepare the students for the university reading level. The questionnaire also sought the respondents' perceptions on the appropriateness and the difficulty level of reading content in NHWP.

The questionnaire was distributed for first year university students who studied AP11 and AP12 in grades 11 and 12. The researcher distributed the questionnaire after only 43 days of their enrolment in the university so that they would have a good idea about NHWP and they could make a comparison between what they studied at the secondary stage and at university.

The questionnaire consisted of twenty five items distributed over four dimensions. The four dimensions are preparation for the university reading level, appropriateness of reading in Action Pack series, preparation with reading strategies and, students' experiences with the reading content of the NHWP.

The questionnaire used the following scale to determine the level of agreement with the items in the questionnaire:

- "Strongly Agree" = 5 points
- "Agree" = 4 points
- "Uncertain" = 3 points,
- "Disagree" = 2 points,
- "Strongly disagree" = 1 point.

For score interpretation, the researcher adopted the following scale to represent the means of items and domains when presenting and discussing the results of the study in chapters four and five:

TABLE 2:
INTERPRETATION SCALE FOR STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS' MEANS OF SCORES OBTAINED FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Score Range	Level
1-1.49	Not suitable at all
1.50-2.49	Not suitable
2.50-3.49	Fairly suitable
3.50-3.49	Suitable
4.50-5	Very suitable

E. Validity of the Questionnaire

In order to establish the content validity for the domains of the questionnaire and the items in each domain, a jury of EFL specialists were asked to validate the contents of the questionnaire. They emphasized that some items were a repetition of other items, they suggested simplifying some difficult words and adding some negative items since all items hypothesized that the students' perceptions towards the reading content in the textbooks were positive. The researcher took the suggestions of these specialists into consideration and composed the questionnaire in its final form.

Regarding construct validity, the researchers administered the questionnaire to a pilot sample of 50 students twice within a period of two weeks after which they calculated the correlation coefficients between the items on one hand, and between the scale and the dimensions on the other hand. Values of the correlation coefficient of the items in the first dimension (Preparation for the University Reading Level) with the whole dimension ranged between 0.67- 0.78, and that the values of the correlation coefficient with the scale ranged between 0.47- 0.78. The values of the correlation coefficient of the items in the second dimension (Appropriateness of the Reading Content in AP Series) with the whole dimension ranged between 0.71- 0.85 and that the values of the correlation coefficient with the scale ranged between 0.50-0.64. The values of the correlation coefficient of the items in the third dimension (Preparation with Reading Strategies) with the whole dimension ranged between 0.75- 0.84 and that the values of the correlation coefficient with

the scale ranged between 0.58-0.64. The values of the correlation coefficient of the items in the fourth dimension (Students' Experience with the Reading Content of New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate) with the whole dimension ranged between 0.81- 0.87 and that the values of the correlation coefficient with the scale ranged between 0.48-0.54.

In order to establish the internal validity of the questionnaire, the researchers calculated the correlation coefficients between the dimensions of the questionnaire with each other. The researchers also calculated the correlation coefficients between the dimensions of the questionnaire with the total score of the whole questionnaire. The correlation coefficients between the dimensions of the study ranged between 0.11 and 0.81, and that the correlation coefficient between each dimension and the total score for the questionnaire 0.62 and 0.75. All of the aforementioned coefficients in Table 9 indicate significant correlations which indicate that the questionnaire was valid for what it was built to measure.

F. Reliability of the Questionnaire

To establish the reliability of the questionnaire, the researcher administered the questionnaire to a pilot group of one section of LC 099 using the test/retest method. The pilot application has shown Pearson's Correlation Coefficient as an indication of the stability index through the two applications of the research instrument. The Pearson Correlation value of the test/retest stability index was 0.86 while the Cronbach's Alpha Internal Consistency on the first application on the test was 0.90. The internal consistency for the scale was 0.91 whereas it ranged between 0.86- 0.91 for the dimensions. The table also shows that the stability index value for the scale was 0.86 and it ranged between 0.84-0.87 for its dimensions. The aforementioned values indicated the possibility of adopting the questionnaire for the final application on the targeted sample of the research.

G. Interviews

The researchers carried out structured interviews with Yarmouk University Language Centre Instructors who taught LC 099 during the first semester of the academic year 2011-2012. Similar interviews were conducted with Secondary Schools EFL teachers. The questions of the secondary school teachers' interview related to the appropriateness and the difficulty level of the reading content in AP11 and AP12, and whether the reading content in the textbooks help prepare the students for university level reading. On the other hand, the interview of LC 099 instructors at Yarmouk University asked some questions about the appropriateness and the difficulty level of the reading content in NHWP, and whether it prepares the students for the reading demands in other university courses.

The interviews were done individually and each interview lasted for approximately 20 minutes. The interviews were recorded and the teachers' and instructors' responses were analyzed qualitatively and classified and then conclusions were drawn.

H. Validity of the Interviews

To insure the validity of the interview, the jury of EFL specialists was asked to state whether the interview questions were enough and appropriate. The specialists suggested editing some questions and making more consistency between the two interviews. Furthermore, the specialists suggested that the researcher should inquire about topics that were not raised in the original interviews. The researchers therefore edited some questions and added others. The final version of the two interviews consisted of 7 interview questions.

I. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics (percentages, means, and standard deviations, etc) were used for analyzing the students' responses to the questionnaire items. The statistical computer software used in analyzing and computing data obtained from the questionnaire was Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

The data in the second question consisted of ten- teacher interviews and eight-instructor interviews. The researchers coded and analyzed the data in a timely manner after collecting it. The researchers read through the transcripts to gain a holistic picture of the data. Then they read the interview transcripts separately looking for patterns between the interviews and making notes from which he generated a list of topics. After becoming familiar with the data, they organized it into categories. Some of these categories were predetermined by the interview questions, and some categories emerged during the collection and analysis of the interview data.

When the researchers were satisfied with the categories, they selected representative quotations that exemplified what was repeated by many participants. The researchers reviewed the categories and compared the instructor's categories to the teacher's categories to see where they confirmed or disconfirmed each other.

The teacher interview data revealed three main themes: student-textbook match and appropriateness, preparation for higher education, and strengths and weaknesses of the reading content in AP11 and 12 and change recommendations. The instructors' interview revealed similar themes related to NHWP. These themes were: student-textbook match and appropriateness, preparation for university courses, and strengths and weaknesses of the reading content in NHWP and change recommendations

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Results Related to the First Question

The first research question was: To what degree do LC 099 students feel Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 prepared them for the reading demands of university courses?

To answer this question, the researcher used a questionnaire which consisted of four dimensions. The students' opinions were computed using means, standard deviations, rank order, frequencies and percentages of each item. Table 3 presents the means and standard deviations of the students' responses to the questionnaire items distributed into the four domains of the questionnaire.

TABLE 3:

RANK ORDER, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO THE DIMENSIONS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Rank	Domain	Mean	Standard deviation
1.	Appropriateness of the reading content in AP11 and AP12	3.51	0.95
2.	Students' experience with the reading content of the NHWP	3.25	1.02
3.	Preparation with level reading strategies	3.24	0.97
4.	Preparation for the university reading level	2.73	1.02
5.	Mean of means	3.17	0.72

Table 3 shows that students perceive the "Appropriateness of AP11 and AP12 and its preparing students to higher education" fairly suitable. The means of the students' responses to the questionnaire dimensions ranged between (3.51 and 2.73) with standard deviations that ranged between (0.95 and 1.02). It is clear that the dimension of the "appropriateness of the reading content in AP11 and AP12" was viewed as the best dimension "suitable" whereas the dimension of "Preparation for the university reading level" was in the last position of all dimensions.

Tables 4 to 7 present the rank order, means and standard deviations of the items of each dimension. Table 4 presents the rank order, means and standard deviations of the students' responses to the "Preparation for the university reading level" dimension.

TABLE 4:

RANK ORDER, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO THE "PREPARATION FOR THE UNIVERSITY READING LEVEL" ITEMS

Rank No.	Item content	Mean Scores	Standard Deviation
1.	I wish I could have more reading classes in the secondary stage	2.97	1.46
2.	The reading content of Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 does not prepare students to the university study in English	2.82	1.35
3.	The reading texts in Action Pack 11 and 12 have a lot concepts which are not pertinent to my needs	2.77	1.51
4.	Not enough reading strategies and skills are taught in the secondary school if compared to the reading strategies and skills taught at university	2.76	1.28
5.	The reading content of New Headway Plus Pre-Intermediate is not appropriate for me to learn	2.67	1.37
6.	There is weak integration between secondary stage reading content and that of this course	2.60	1.37
	I can hardly deal with the reading material in New Headway Plus Pre-Intermediate without remediation or additional training	2.56	1.33
7.	Mean of means	2.73	1.02

Table 4 shows that the means ranged between (2.56 and 2.97) with standard deviations that ranged between (1.33 and 1.46). The highest mean was for "I wish I could have more reading classes in the secondary stage", whereas the "I can hardly deal with the reading material in New Headway Plus Pre Intermediate without remediation or additional training" had the lowest mean (2.56 and 2.97). The general mean is (2.73) which shows that the students think that the reading content in the textbooks is "fairly suitable" in preparing the students for the university reading level.

Regarding, the appropriateness of the reading content in Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12, table 5 presents the rank order, means and standard deviations of the students' responses to the "Appropriateness of the reading content in Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12" domain items.

TABLE 5:

RANK ORDER, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO THE "APPROPRIATENESS OF THE READING CONTENT IN ACTION PACK11 AND ACTION PACK 12"

Rank No.	Item Content	Mean Scores	Standard deviation
1.	Action Pack 11 and 12 include diverse texts which are at a variety of difficulty levels	3.77	1.28
2.	The reading content of Action Pack 11 and 12 was appropriate for me	3.67	1.18
3.	Having known the difference between the secondary stage reading and university reading, I am satisfied with the way Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 prepared me	3.60	1.26
4.	Action Pack 11 and 12 provide sufficient activities that improve student's reading	3.42	1.25
5.	The reading texts in Action Pack 11 and 12 are likely to motivate the students to read	3.32	1.16
6.	The texts in Action Pack 11 and 12 are written at an appropriate difficulty level	3.32	1.24
7.	Total Mean	3.51	0.95

Table 5 shows that the means ranged between (3.32 and 3.77) with standard deviations that ranged between (1.24 and 1.28). The highest mean was for “Action Pack 11 and 12 include diverse texts which are at a variety of difficulty levels”, whereas the “The texts in Action Pack 11 and 12 are written at an appropriate difficulty level” had the lowest mean (3.32 and 3.77). The general mean is (3.51) which shows that the students think that the reading content in Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 is suitable (appropriate).

Regarding the preparation with reading strategies, table 6 presents the rank order, means and standard deviations of the students’ responses to the “Preparation with reading strategies” dimension.

TABLE 6:
RANK ORDER, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE STUDENTS’ RESPONSES TO THE “PREPARATION WITH READING STRATEGIES” ITEMS

Rank No.	Item Content	Mean scores	Standard deviation
1	Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 provided me with effective strategies to succeed with reading at higher education such as skimming and scanning	3.33	1.28
2	Studying Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 made me able to make connections between my prior knowledge and the reading texts	3.31	1.23
3	Studying Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 made me able to interpret information from graphs, charts, and diagrams	3.28	1.15
4	Studying Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 made me able to recognize main ideas by selecting topic sentences	3.21	1.21
5	Studying Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 made me able to recognize cause-effect relationships in the texts	3.21	1.20
6	Studying Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 made me able to recognize narration and chronological sequences in the texts	3.10	1.18
Total Mean		3.24	0.97

Table 6 shows that the means ranged between (3.10 and 3.33) with standard deviations that ranged between (1.18 and 1.28). The highest mean was for “Action Pack 11 and 12” provided me with effective strategies to succeed with reading at higher education such as skimming and scanning” whereas “Studying Action Pack 11 and 12 made me able to recognize narration and chronological sequences in the texts” had the lowest mean (3.10 and 3.33). The general mean is (3.24) which shows that the students perceive their preparation with reading strategies “fairly suitable”.

Regarding students’ experience with the reading content of New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate, table 7 presents the rank order, means and standard deviations of the students’ responses to the “Students’ experience with the reading content of NHWP” dimension.

TABLE 7:
RANK ORDER, MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE STUDENTS’ RESPONSES TO THE “STUDENTS’ EXPERIENCE WITH THE READING CONTENT OF NHWP”

Rank No.	Item content	Mean Scores	Standard deviation
1.	I read the texts in New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate slowly	3.46	1.31
2.	I do not understand a large percentage of the words in the reading texts of New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate	3.29	1.19
3.	I find the sentences in the reading texts of New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate difficult to understand	3.21	1.20
4.	I find the reading texts in New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate non-coherent when reading.	3.20	1.20
5.	The information in the texts of New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate is densely presented that it complicates my understanding of the contents	3.19	1.22
6.	I find the reading texts in New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate incomprehensible	3.17	1.29
7.	Total Mean	3.25	1.02

Table 7 shows that the means ranged between (3.17 and 3.46) with standard deviations that ranged between (1.29 and 1.31). The highest mean was for “I read the texts in New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate slowly”, whereas the lowest mean was for “I find the reading texts in New Headway Plus Pre-intermediate incomprehensible” had the lowest mean (3.17 and 3.46). The general mean shows that the students perceive their experience with the reading content of NHWP “fairly suitable”.

B. Results Related to the Second Question:

The second research question is “To what degree do secondary school EFL teachers and LC 099 instructors feel that the reading content in their students’ textbooks is appropriate for their students’ levels and prepare them for university reading level?”

To answer this question, the researcher conducted two sets of interviews. The first interview was with 10 secondary EFL teachers in Jerash Directorate of Education and the other was with 8 LC 099 instructors at Yarmouk University Language. It is worth mentioning that all of the interviews were audio-recorded except those who were the interviewees refused being recorded for. Furthermore, and as mentioned earlier in chapter three, the data obtained from the

interviews were analyzed qualitatively. The results related to this research question are presented in two sections: Instructor interview analysis, and teacher interview analysis.

First: Instructors' Interview Analysis

The instructors' interview data revealed three main themes. The instructors discussed the appropriateness of the reading content in NHWP for students' reading levels, the extent to which the reading content in NHWP prepares students for other courses, and strengths and weaknesses of the reading content in NHWP and recommendations for change. Generally speaking, the instructors' perceptions were similar for each of the three themes.

In regard to their views on the appropriateness of the reading content to their students' needs, the instructors agreed on the fact that the reading material is too simple beyond the desired level of freshmen university students, however they all expressed that the majority of their students were still too weak to be at the readability level of the textbook.

The instructors were asked about their perception of to what extent they thought the reading extent in NHWP helps prepare students for other university courses. However, a number of instructors indicated that the reading material needs to be more demanding to prepare the students for academic endeavors at the university.

Regarding the strengths of the reading content in NHWP, the majority of the instructors agreed on many points including: new topics, sufficient exercises, controlled vocabulary, and the attractive layout. Regarding the weaknesses, the instructors also agreed on many points including: the lack of critical reflection exercises, the variation in the lengths of the passages, the difficult vocabulary, and the focus on the western culture. Regarding the need to change or modify the reading material in NHWP, instructors suggested tailoring the material to meet the students' needs in the fields of study, adding some texts with different topics, dealing with different cultures and more appealing to students with different interests and adding some opportunities to employ strategies such as inferring, contextualizing, predicting, summarizing and retelling.

Like the instructors' interview, the teachers' interview data revealed three main themes. The instructors discussed the appropriateness of the reading content in AP11 and AP12 for students' reading levels, the extent to which the reading content in AP11 and AP12 prepares students for university reading level, and strengths and weaknesses of the reading content in AP11 and AP12 and recommendations for change.

Generally speaking, the teachers showed some agreement on many points regarding the appropriateness of the reading material in AP11 and AP12 to the reading levels of the 11th and 12th grades. The teachers indicated that there are great differences among the reading levels of their students. Generally, the teachers expressed a mismatch between the students' reading levels and the level of the reading material they study. There was almost a consensus among the interviewed teachers that about less than half of the students cannot read well. Furthermore, number of instructors indicated that AP11 matches its students' reading levels more than AP12 does.

Although some teachers are not very well familiar with the reading demands students face at the university level, many of them indicated that the reading material in the secondary stage textbooks (AP11 and AP12) includes various texts which prepare the student for other fields. The majority of the teachers indicated that they are aware that most of their students suffer at the university level because of their reading abilities and they expressed the need for change.

Regarding the weaknesses, the most common points mentioned by the interviewed teachers were:

1. Some texts are quite easy to read and understand.
2. Many topics are interesting and related to students' needs.
3. There are many exercises that give the students the chance to practice reading skills.
4. The reading texts are suitable in length.

Regarding the weaknesses of the reading material in the secondary stage, the interviewees agreed on the following points:

1. The texts are too difficult for the levels of the students.
2. The inclusion of the new vocabulary is not clear in AP12. The new words are difficult and limited.
3. Not all topics are relevant for the case of the Jordanian students. And some topics are quite boring for the students as they do not understand much of their content.

Regarding their suggestions to change or modify the reading material in AP11 and 12, teachers suggested enriching the types of reading texts and using more literary texts, adding different kinds of exercises that teach the students how to read instead of only practicing reading, making controlled lists of vocabulary for each new unit and involving the students in choosing the topics.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

A. *Discussion of the Results of the First Question*

This study investigated the students' opinions of "Action Pack 11" and "Action Pack 12" regarding the following dimensions: the appropriateness of the reading content in AP11 and AP12, students' experience with the reading content of the NHWP, preparation with level reading strategies, and preparation for the university reading level.

The results show that "the appropriateness of the reading content in AP11 and AP12" is "suitable" with means between (3.32 and 3.77) and a total mean of (3.51). The respondents believe that AP11 and AP12 include a variety of texts at a variety of reading difficulty levels that motivate the students to read, with sufficient activities for practice. Regarding the "preparation for the university reading level", the students think that AP11 and AP12 are "fairly suitable"

with means between (2.56 and 2.97) and a general mean of (2.73). The respondents believe that the reading content in AP11 and AP12 was somehow suitable for them and it fairly helps preparing the students for the university level reading, yet they believe it would have been better if they had had more reading classes in the secondary stage.

With regards to the “preparation with reading strategies”, the results show that the respondents view this dimension “fairly suitable” with means between (3.10 and 3.33) with a general mean of (3.24). The students believe that studying AP11 and AP12 fairly empowered them with reading strategies like skimming, scanning, making connections, interpreting charts, graphs and diagrams, recognizing main ideas, and recognizing relationships and sequences among the reading passages. The results of this dimension agrees with the findings of Henry (2006) who found that in spite of the troubles they struggle to meet college reading level, college students were satisfied with the preparation of the students for the literacy requirements of the colleges.

As a result of being prepared to the university level reading, the students view their “experience with the reading content in NHWP” “fairly suitable” with means of (3.46 and 3.17) and a general mean of (3.25). The students reported that they read the texts fairly slowly, they do not understand much of the words and sentences in the texts, and that they find the reading passages a bit difficult and the information is quite dense in the reading passages. The negative responses of the respondents indicate their lack of proper preparation to the university level reading. The results in this regard are congruent with ACT (2006) which indicated that only about half of high school graduates were ready for college-level reading.

B. Discussion of the Results of the Second Question

In regard to the instructors’ views on the appropriateness of the reading content to their students’ needs, the instructors agreed on the fact that the reading material is too simple beyond the desired level of freshmen university students, but they all expressed that the majority of their students were too weak to be at the readability level of the textbook.

Regarding the reading levels of the students, the instructors expressed their students’ weak reading abilities. Some of the instructors, especially those with short experience, expressed their surprise at the reading levels of their students when they started teaching them. One instructor stated: “I was too much shocked since the majority of the students lag behind their expected reading level”. Other instructors especially those with long experience stated that they are familiar with the very weak reading levels of the students, one experienced instructor stated that “I have never been surprised by my students reading levels as I already know how weak the majority of freshmen students are. I wonder what those students have been doing during their school years”. One instructor was an exception of this norm. She believed that students are good enough to cope with the reading demands of their levels. She stated that “I was surprised by my students’ reading levels, since they were able to understand, extract and respond appropriately to the basic content of different types of reading texts, and they were able to explain the main points in the texts with reasonable precision”.

The instructors explained that the reading content in NHWP is very easy if the students work hard. One instructor went into details saying that “the texts are short and simple, there are too many exercises to enrich students’ reading, but the problem is only with our students”. Some instructors, however, were more optimistic regarding the match between students’ reading levels and the textbook difficulty. One instructor summed it up when she said “I guess it’s acceptable, but due to time and space limitations, the students are not given a fair chance to practice their reading skills, so I think if we have enough time, the students’ reading levels would be improving!”.

Some instructors were conscious of the details regarding students’ level and how to match that to the students “I think that most of the texts are suitable for the students’ reading levels. Yet, there are other texts which are very long and these have to be modified in order to suit the students’ linguistic competence. An example of these texts is Megapolis.”

The instructors were asked about their perception of the extent they thought the reading content in NHWP helps prepare students for other university courses. The majority of the instructors indicated that the reading material in NHWP is helpful in preparing the students for other courses. One instructor indicated that “this textbook helps students to read simple texts requiring a simple and direct exchange of information”. Another instructor stated that “it is perfect for university students as it builds up their knowledge of the topics”. However, other instructors indicated that the reading material needs to be more demanding to prepare the students for academic endeavours at the university.

Regarding the strengths of the reading content in NHWP, the majority of the instructors agreed on many points including: interesting and up-to-date topics, well-prepared exercises that give the chance for practice, controlled vocabulary, the simplicity of the reading passages, and the layout of the textbook. Regarding the weaknesses, the instructors also agreed on many points including the lack of opportunities given to the students to reflect on the texts, the negative variation in the lengths of the texts, difficult vocabulary and the focus on the western culture.

Regarding the need to change or modify the reading material in NHWP, the instructors suggested tailoring the material to meet the students’ needs in the fields of study which entails going for ESP which some instructors did not agree on. One instructor stated: “however, this choice is not so good either, because the teachers are not specialized in various fields. Nevertheless, I would choose more demanding texts.” Another instructor insisted on “adding some texts with different topics, dealing with different cultures and more appealing to students with different interests; and adding some opportunities to employ strategies such as inferring, contextualizing, predicting, summarizing and retelling.”

Like the instructors' interview, the teachers' interview data revealed three main themes. The instructors discussed the appropriateness of the reading content in AP11 and AP12 for students' reading levels, the extent to which the reading content in AP11 and AP12 prepares students for university reading level, and strengths and weaknesses of the reading content in AP11 and AP12 and recommendations for change.

Generally, the teachers showed some agreement on points regarding the appropriateness of the reading material in AP11 and AP12 to the reading levels of the 11th and 12th grades. The teachers indicated that there are great differences among the reading levels of their students. "Some of the students are quite comfortable with the level of the textbook while others suffer", one teacher said. Teachers in general expressed a mismatch between the students' reading levels and the level of the reading material they study. There was almost a consensus among the interviewed teachers that about less than half of the students cannot read well. Furthermore, a number of instructors indicated that AP11 matches its students' reading levels more than AP12 does.

Although some teachers are not very well familiar with the reading demands students meet at the university level, many of them indicated that the reading material in the secondary stage textbooks includes various texts which prepare the student for other fields. One teacher pointed out that "there are many kinds of reading passages that include science, technology, biology, history and literature". The majority of the teachers indicated that they were aware that most of their students suffer at the university level because of their reading abilities and they expressed the need for change. The results in this regard are congruent with Williamson (2008) which demonstrated substantial differences between the materials that high school students are expected to read and the materials they may encounter after high school.

Regarding the weaknesses, the most commonly cited points mentioned by the interviewed teachers were the simplicity of the reading passages, the suitable length of the reading passages, the interesting topics that are relevant to students' needs, and the sufficient number of exercises that gives the students the chance to practice the reading skills. Regarding the weaknesses of the reading material in the secondary stage, the interviewees agreed on the following points: the difficulty of the texts if compared with weak level of the students, the unclear inclusion of vocabulary, and the irrelevance of some topics for the students' lives,

Regarding their suggestions to change or modify the reading material in AP11 and 12, the teachers suggested enriching the types of the texts and using more literary texts, adding more exercises that teach students reading strategies, controlling the new vocabulary items by using vocabulary lists, and involving the students in choosing the topic.

In light of the results of this study, the researchers recommended that the Ministry of Education and universities should solicit teachers' and instructors' opinions before, during, and after preparing or adopting a textbook. The researchers also suggested initiating the communication between secondary schools and universities to bridge the reading gap between schools and universities and to enable schools prepare the students for the expected reading demands at the university level. They also suggested conducting other research studies on larger samples and in other areas of transition from school to university in all fields of study.

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Taiwanese Junior High School Students' English Liquid Consonants Production

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Abstract—This study was to explore whether junior high school students could produce English liquid consonants well. Two purposes were explored in this study. First, explore which liquid consonants (/r/ or /l/) do junior high school students perform better. Second, to probe which position (word-initial, word intervocalic or word-final) of English liquid consonants (/r/ or /l/) do those students perform better or worse. Two research questions would be represent in this study. The sample of the study consisted of 60 junior high school students in Southern Taiwan, and they all from Grade 7th. The production tests were administered for all participants in the study. Thirty-six words in the wordlist that included /l/ and /r/ in word-initial, word intervocalic or word-final would be used to test in this study. The results revealed that there was a significant mean difference between the /l/ and /r/. In the word-initial /l/ and /r/, most participants would produce those two sounds better than other positions. In word intervocalic, intervocalic /r/ would be produced better than intervocalic /l/. In word final, final /r/ would be produced better than final /l/. In final /l/, all participants in this study did not produce the final /l/. The main finding indicated that the participants produced better /r/ than /l/. Pedagogical implications and suggestions for future study were showed following.

Index Terms—English liquid consonants, English production, junior high school students, word position

I. INTRODUCTION

In Taiwan, the pronunciation learning and teaching was ignored in educational system, even though English course has been a required course from elementary school to junior high schools in Taiwan for almost decades. Many students who have finished high school or even college education in Taiwan complain that they can't speak English and also feel afraid to speak English with native speakers although they may have spent more than ten years studying (Li, 2011). In fact, many Taiwanese speakers are unwilling to speak up because of their poor pronunciation. This is probably a result of learners' ignorance of pronunciation learning and their lack of constant or sufficient practice as well.

As far as we know, approximately 600 consonants and 200 vowels exist in the world's languages (Ladefoged, 2005, xiii). Each language contains some of the vowels and consonants in its sound system. For example, English has 24 consonants and thirteen vowels (Tsujimura, 1996). Human beings as infants initially have to learn such phonemes existing in a target language before they identify units of phonemes (i.e., words) from strings of sounds in speech. Eimas (1975) demonstrated that American English infants had higher sensitivity at the /r/-/l/ category boundary than did they within /r/ and /l/ categories. Infants are sensitive to phonetic boundaries not only in their target language but also in other languages.

Language perception and production have always been considered one of the important parts of language learning. A great amount of studies have explored the relationships between perception and production in second language acquisition (e.g. Akahane & Tohkura & Bradlow & Pisoni, 1996; Flege & MacKay & Meador, 1999; Shiri & Peperkamp, 2013). In the acquisition of L2 production and perception, the degree of exposure and age of acquisition were important key factors (Llisterri, 1995). Pronunciation skills used to be neglected mainly due to the form of paper and pencil test adopted by the joint college entrance exam, which has encouraged the mere focus on vocabulary memorization and grammar comprehension in the English class in Taiwan. Some researches show that Taiwanese EFL learners have the difficulties in English liquids pronunciation (Chen, 2003; Hong, 2007; Li, 2011). Chen and Yang (2007) examined both proficient and less proficient Taiwanese EFL learners' pronunciation. The results showed that both groups had great difficulties on suprasegmentals. For the influence of L1 pronunciation brought the pronunciation difficulties to Taiwanese EFL learners in their L2 learning.

It is not surprising that speakers learning a second language have difficulty producing consonants that exist in the second language, but not in the sound system of their native language (Flege, 1995). Both perception and production of sounds by speakers whose languages lack the non-native contrast have been well investigated. Perhaps the best studied is the perception and production of the English /l – r/ contrast by Japanese and Korean speakers (Bradlow, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada, and Tohkura, 1997; Aoyama, Flege, Guion, Akahane-Yamada, and Yamada, 2004). It is also reasonable to expect that non-native speakers may display relatively inaccurate production of sounds even in languages that have those sounds in common, since the phonetic realizations of the shared categories may differ, despite representing the same phonological contrast. A developmental account of the problems facing adult second language learners is a useful starting point for considering the points raised above because of the potential parallels between the

acquisition of phonetic categories in the child's first language and acquisition of nonnative phonetic categories while learning a second language in adulthood. Werker (1989) has shown that within the first year of life the infant begins to move from language universal abilities to the language-specific abilities that are characteristic of the adult. Language-universal refers to how infants are able to discriminate virtually any phonetic contrast used in a language, regardless of the environment in which they are raised, while language-specific refers to the much more restricted abilities of mature adults to discriminate or identify stimuli from phonetic categories not used in their native language. The transition from language-universal to language-specific abilities appears to be a product of the interaction between innate perceptual mechanisms and early linguistic experience (Aslin and Pisoni, 1980). Early experience serves to modify the child's perceptual system so that only those phonetic contrasts that denote differences in meaning remain distinctive.

Second language acquisition in adulthood is heavily influenced by the learner's first language (Masuda & Arai, 2010). Learning novel speech sounds in adulthood is a unique factor of language learning because it can be profoundly impeded by neuromuscular and perceptual constraints of L1 phonology. Whereas other domains of language can be learned, memorized and practiced to attain mastery, the influence of L1 in phonology can persist for years and be resistant to change (Ioup, 2008). Since adults learning a second language often demonstrate accented speech that may limit intelligibility in the second language, the current study was undertaken to determine the effectiveness of visual feedback in speech production training of non-native phonemic contrasts. Specifically, this was explored by teaching English /l/ and /r/ to native Japanese speakers learning English as a second language in adulthood. The inclusion of visual feedback in training may aid the language learner in attaining optimal placement of the articulators for speech by making tongue positioning visible.

However, it is believed that pronunciation learning and teaching is receiving more and more attention, because the new system of multiple admissions for college has adopted more testing forms to evaluate students' English overall proficiency and learners' speaking ability is required by many colleges as well. English self-introduction, a short speech, pair work of a problem-solving task, or even an interview may be part of a speaking test. Kinnaird and Zapf (2004) mentioned that pronunciation plays an important role in people's speaking ability. A speaker who pronounces more clearly usually can be understood more efficiently when trying to express himself either in his native language or second language. Clear and accurate pronunciation may avoid occurrences of misunderstanding between speakers and listeners. It can also improve the speaker's communicating ability and gradually cultivate his self-confidence in public. According to Owolabi (2012), the findings suggested that the oral training and aural perception were ways to conquer the fear of production and perception.

Rajab (2013) identifies that raising the level of phonological awareness was a useful method in promoting EFL learners' writing and speaking abilities. In the relationship between perception and production, Flege, Bohn and Jang (1997) found that the accuracy of L2 production was affected by how L2 was perceived. Generally, language perception and production were connected to each other. The similarities between L1 and L2 caused the production errors for L2 learners, especially native language was essential in L2 production (Flege & Bohn & Jang, 1997; Chen & Yang, 2007; Lin, 2011). Senel (2006) also reported that once the learners were more aware of the importance of language learning environment, they might take its opportunities as possible as they could to promote their pronunciation abilities.

In statements of the problem, the reason for choosing /r/ and /l/ in the present study is straightforward. English liquids could be troublesome to many Chinese students. English /r/ and /l/ are contrastive consonants, and there is a similar relationship in Mandarin, but no such a contrast appears in Taiwanese and many other Chinese dialects (Li, 2011.) While there are some significant studies on the learning of /l/ and /r/ by Japanese speakers and Korean speakers (Aoyamaa, Flegeb, Guionc, Yamadad, & Yamadae, 2004; Kinnaird & Zapf, 2004; Kusumoto, 2012; Masuda, Norrix & Green, 2001) the studies involving Chinese EFL learners are limited. Besides, English /r/ and /l/ can occur in word-initial, word-medial and word-final positions; however, Mandarin /r/ and /l/ only occur word-initially, but not medially nor finally. Since the distribution of English /r, l/ is wider than their Chinese equivalents, it can be predicted that many Chinese learners have difficulty pronouncing English /r/ and /l/. Based on the predicted difficulty and the some Asian research studies, and Chinese subjects' performance in liquids is chosen as the focus of this study.

The purpose of the study was to explore whether junior high school students could produce English liquid consonants well. Two purposes were explored in this study. First, to explore what liquid consonants (/r/ or /l/) do junior high school students perform better. Second, to probe which position (word-initial, word intervocalic or word-final) of English liquid consonants (/r/ or /l/) do those students perform better or worse.

In research questions, more specifically, the present study attempted to answer the following questions. First, which liquid consonants (/r/ or /l/) do junior high school students perform better? Second, which position (word-initial, word intervocalic or word-final) of English liquid consonants (/r/ or /l/) do those students perform better or worse?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. English Production in Liquid Sound

Based on the English four skills, Bozorgian (2012) found the EFL learners had low proficiency in the listening and speaking. Over the past two decades, English liquid perception and production have been widely examined. Particularly, several studies have explored them with EFL learners (Masuda & Norrix & Green, 2001; Hsieh, 2007; Kusumoto,

2012). In Masuda, Norrix, and Green (2001) studies, they examined the perception and production of English /r/-/l/ among 5 Japanese native speakers. Regarding this study, 5 Japanese native speakers completed two production tests, two perception tests and a word familiarity task. They explored development of perception and production skills of Japanese learners of English over a study period of six months. First, they observed that for student's production improved greatly but only small changes in perception were noted. This suggests that perception and production skills of JLE can develop at different rates. Second, phonological environments are crucial for both perception and production in different manners. The results revealed that the position of /r/ and /l/ in a word influenced Japanese native speakers to identify the sounds, and they reported that final /l/ and /r/ were easier to distinguish than other positions for Japanese native speakers. The participants demonstrated initial /l/ and initial consonant cluster /r/ were more difficult to identify than other positions. They also had difficulties on producing final/l/ and initial consonant cluster /l/, but they produced initial consonant cluster /r/ and final /r/ easily. In Kusumoto (2012) study, between perception and production: Is the ability to hear L1-L2 sound differences related to the ability to pronounce the same sounds accurately, the researcher explored thirty-eight native speakers of Japanese to perceive and produce the English /r/-/l/ contrast. The researcher also mentioned that most of the participants who could distinguish /r/-/l/ contrast were also able to distinguish other sound contrasts. All other participants performed better on the other consonant contrasts perception test. The position of /r/ and /l/ in a word has an effect on the ease of identification of these sounds for the Japanese participants. The participants also indicated that final /r/ and final /l/ in perception and initial /l/ and final /r/ in the production were easier to perceive and produce, but final consonant cluster /l/ and /r/ in perception and final consonant cluster /r/ and intervocalic /r/ in production were more difficulties to perceive and produce. In Kinnaird and Zapf (2004) studies, an acoustical analysis of a Japanese speaker's production of English /r/ and /l/, In general, native Japanese speakers have difficulty perceiving the English /r/ and /l/ phonemes due to the fact their native language does not have these two sounds as contrasting phonemes. Although much has been written on L1 Japanese with regards to the English /l/ and /r/, little has addressed the acoustical differences between speakers of Japanese and speakers of English as they produce the English liquids. Hong (2007) examined the English consonant clusters perception and production in Taiwanese EFL learners. Hong noticed that the learners who had good production abilities, also performed well in perception. And he suggested that the learners who were more exposed to English might promote their perception and production skills.

B. English Liquid Sound in Different Position

In Masuda, Norrix, and Green (2001) studies, development of speech perception and production skills of /r/ and /l/ in Japanese learners of English, they mentioned that /l/ in word final position was easiest to perceive, while difficult to produce. Third, the word positions that showed the greatest improvements in production (i.e. intervocalic /l/ and consonant cluster /l/) were different from those that showed the greatest improvement in perception (i.e. intervocalic /r/, initial /l/, and consonant cluster /r/). This suggests that perception and production of the liquids in various word positions develop at different rates. In addition, the position of /r/ and /l/ in a word had a large effect on successful production and perception of these sounds over the study period of six months. In Kusumoto (2012) study, between perception and production: Is the ability to hear L1-L2 sound differences related to the ability to pronounce the same sounds accurately, the researcher mentioned that final /r/, final /l/, and initial /r/ are easier for Japanese learners of English to perceive. The initial /l/ was relatively difficult for the students. Also, final consonant-cluster /r/ and final consonant-cluster /l/ were very difficult for the students. The bright /l/ exhibits a higher degree of difficulty of identification than dark /l/. In Kinnaird and Zapf (2004) studies, an acoustical analysis of a Japanese speaker's production of English /r/ and /l/, the study found substantial differences between the F2 values for /l/ in every word position, and smaller differences between the F2 values of /l/ and the F3 values for /r/. This evidence provides support for the idea that perception and production may be closely linked and, thus, calls for most acoustical analysis of the productions of native Japanese speakers.

III. METHODOLOGY

For subjects, the sample of the study consisted of 60 junior high school students in Southern Taiwan, and they all from Grade 7th. Fifteen students among them were randomly chosen to take part in the study. Of these fifteen students whose average age was twelve, 28 were male and 32 were female.

For the instruments, the production tests were administered for all participants in the study. Thirty-six words in the wordlist that included /l/ and /r/ in word-initial, word intervocalic or word-final would be used to test in this study. Each part included twelve words (/l/ had six words and /r/ had six words.) Assessment would also be used to check student's production during the test in this study.

The procedure, the first section in the procedure was to decide what words would be used to test and assigning participants randomly were required. Before production test, researcher would talk about the testing rule to participants, and each student would be tested 10 minutes. During the test, all the interviews were recorded by a smart phone. The procedures would be represented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Step	Data Collection	Time
1	Deciding what words would be used to test	
2	Assigning participants randomly	
3	Talking about the testing rule	
4	Conducting the production test	10 minute/ one student
5	Data analysis	

The data analysis, after collected the data, the researcher categorized, tabulated, and recombined the data. IBM SPSS (20) would be used to analyze the data by pair t-test to get the each mean, standard deviation and t value. The researcher would also explain the result, and then made the conclusion and suggestion.

IV. RESULTS

In order to determine the performance on producing liquid consonants, a paired sample t-test was administered at a selected probability level ($\alpha < .05$). The data in Table 2 showed that the production test scores means of /l/ ($M= 6.80$) was lower than means of /r/ ($M= 12.0$). A statistical significant difference between /l/ and /r/ was inspected ($t (59) = -14.46$, $p = 0 < .05$). The results indicated that /l/ was more difficult to produce than /r/ for Taiwanese junior high school students.

TABLE 2
THE PAIR T-TEST FOR TWO LIQUID CONSONANTS (/r/ AND /l/) PRODUCTION OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS (N=60)

Liquid Sound	Mean	SD	Pair Mean	Pair SD	T value	Sig.
/l/	6.80	1.29	-5.20	2.79	-14.46	0*
/r/	12.0	3.31				

Note. *T-test < .05

In order to examine the performance on word position (word-initial, word intervocalic or word-final) of English liquid consonants (/r/ or /l/) a paired sample t-test was also administered at a selected probability level ($\alpha < .05$). From the statistical data described in Table 3, 4 and 5, initial /l/ and /r/ were performed better than other positions. Mean of /l/ in each position were 5.33 (initial), 1.47 (intervocalic) and 0 (final), and mean of /r/ in each position were 5.53 (initial), 2.47 (intervocalic) and 3.93 (final). In the /l/ production, initial /l/ is performed best than other two positions and final /l/ is performed worst. In the /r/ production, initial /r/ is also performed best than other two positions. Overall, initial /r/ is performed best than other positions by junior high students in this study, and final /l/ is performed worst in this study. Among them, statistical significant difference between word-final /l/ and /r/ was inspected ($t (59) = -18.75$, $p = 0 < .05$). And the other position's performances did not have significant difference.

TABLE 3
THE PAIR T-TEST FOR TWO LIQUID CONSONANTS (/r/ AND /l/) IN WORD-INITIAL PRODUCTION OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS (N=60)

Liquid Sound	Mean	SD	Pair Mean	Pair SD	T value	Sig.
/l/	5.33	1.31	-0.20	1.23	-1.26	0.21*
/r/	5.53	0.81				

Note. *T-test < .05

TABLE 4
THE PAIR T-TEST FOR TWO LIQUID CONSONANTS (/r/ AND /l/) IN WORD INTERVOCALIC PRODUCTION OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS (N=60)

Liquid Sound	Mean	SD	Pair Mean	Pair SD	T value	Sig.
/l/	1.47	0.50	-1.00	1.88	-4.13	0.00*
/r/	2.47	1.87				

Note. *T-test < .05

TABLE 5
THE PAIR T-TEST FOR TWO LIQUID CONSONANTS (/r/ AND /l/) IN WORD-FINAL PRODUCTION OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS (N=60)

Liquid Sound	Mean	SD	Pair Mean	Pair SD	T value	Sig.
/l/	0	0	-3.93	1.63	-18.75	0*
/r/	3.93	1.62				

Note. *T-test < .05

V. CONCLUSION

A. Performance on English Liquid Sounds

The study sought to detect the different performance in producing liquid sounds /l/ and /r/. The results revealed that there was a significant mean difference between the /l/ and /r/. Such findings indicated that the participants produced better /r/ than /l/. The reason why students could produce /r/ than /l/ may focus on different positions. Generally speaking, participants' performances in /r/ are better than the /l/.

English Liquid Sounds Production in Different Positions, in this section, there were three different positions in the

production test. In the word-initial /l/ and /r/, most participants would produce those two sounds better than other positions, but only few students in producing initial /r/ would substitute for /l/ sound. In Taiwan, many students did not emphasize retroflex, for example: the word “row” that would be substituted /l/ and became “low”.

In word intervocalic, intervocalic /r/ would be produced better than intervocalic /l/. In intervocalic /l/, most students would substitute for /ɔ/ and /o/ sounds. For example, the words “cold /kold/”, “hold / hold/” and “told /told/” would become “/kɔd/”, “/hod/”, and “/tɔd/”. In intervocalic /r/, most students could produce that correctly, but few students would omit intervocalic /r/ when they produced the word had intervocalic /r/. For example, the words “dark /dark/” and “mark /mark/” would become “/dak/”, and “/mak/”.

In word final, final /r/ would be produced better than final /l/. In final /l/, all participants in this study did not produce the final /l/. Some students could not produce dark [l] sound, and some students omitted final /l/ directly. In final /r/, most students could also produce that correctly, but few students would omit final /r/ when they produced the word final /r/. For example, the words “car /kar/”, “mar /mar/” and “far /far/” would become “/ka/”, “/ma/”, and “/fa/”.

The researcher also found that if /r/ in vowel sound /a/ back, students would omit /r/ sound and produce directly, not only in word intervocalic but in word final.

B. Pedagogical Implications

From the study, pedagogical implications would be provided. According this study, it found that students could produce the /r/ than /l/ sounds. Teacher should teach students how to pronounce the KK correctly, and give students more time to do the practice in pronunciation. In recent years, most students who can read and understand KK phonetic are in cram to learn KK phonetic. Because in school, the teacher did not have extra time to focus on KK phonetics teaching, only some students who go to cram school have a little extra time to learn KK phonetic. This situation caused most of the junior high school students still do not understand and read KK phonetic. Students also should learn KK phonetic by themselves. English teachers should provide more opportunities in pronunciation practice to vocational high school students, so this may bring benefits to raise the students’ perception and production skills. Future research may explore whether English proficiency influences learners’ English liquid perception and production.

C. Suggestions for Future Studies

Although an equal number of males and females participated in the present experiment, we did not include gender as a possible factor influencing accurate pronunciation of English /r/ and /l/. It would be of interest to regard gender as a variable in future researches to investigate whether males or females have better performance in liquids. Moreover, the subjects recruited in our study are all encouraging volunteers. Therefore, factors of their overall English proficiency and motivation of improving pronunciation skills are not well-controlled. More researches can be conducted to examine if students with better English proficiency produce more accurate /r/ and /l/, or those with high motivation perform better.

Lastly, due to most of the subjects’ inability in expressing themselves orally in English, only reading out task is designed in the present experiment, other methods as an interview or free conversation is not involved. Hence, it is less possible to elicit students’ pronunciation in a more spontaneous and communicative situation. For example, the method of “answering questions” in oral tests applied by GEPT (General English Proficiency Test) may be a good choice to explore students’ erroneous production of liquids elicited naturally and communicatively. Future researches in this area are expected to adopt a more natural and communicative method to evaluate Chinese students’ mispronunciation in liquids. Students’ ability in distinguishing /r/ from /l/ in different word positions can also be explored to examine their performance in liquid perception. Perhaps future research also could examine more deeply the different performances of perception and production tasks on vocational and academic high school students. There is a clear need to explore the role of L1 and its impact on L2 production. An investigation into the link between perception and production is certain to bring the light on the issues to be more close to the details in these two factors.

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The Effect of Teaching CoRT Program No. (4) Entitled "Creativity" on the Gifted Learners' Writings in Ein El-Basha Center for Gifted Students

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Abstract—This study attempts to investigate the effect of teaching CoRT Program 4 entitled "Creativity" on the gifted learners' creative abilities in writing. The sample consisted of 36 gifted students in Ein El-Basha Center for Gifted Students. The first group ($N=18$) was the control group (male and female students). The second group ($N=18$) was the experimental group (male and female students). A pretest measuring fluency, flexibility and originality was administered for both groups. While CoRT program was demonstrated through 20 sessions taught for a period of three months for the experimental group, the control group continued studying in the traditional way. The test was validated and its interrater reliability was ensured. The results of the study showed that the mean score of the experimental group was significantly higher than the mean score of the control group on fluency, flexibility and originality which indicates that the CoRT Program No. 4 entitled "Creativity" developed the gifted learners' creative abilities in writing English short stories. In light of the results of the study, the researcher recommends providing the gifted students with CoRT No. 4 entitled "Creativity" that could stimulate their fluency, flexibility and originality to write short stories creatively.

Index Terms—EFL, CoRT, gifted students, short story, Jordan

I. INTRODUCTION

In the Information Age, it is important to create opportunities for the learners which stimulate them to learn and make use of the new information in order to understand the amount of knowledge growing rapidly (Cotton, 1997; Presseisen, 1988). Newton (2000) warns against the bad consequences of the traditional syllabuses which lack high teaching abilities by saying "The result, of course, is a student who cannot respond flexibly, cannot think critically or creatively and who has acquired habits of minds that put more weight on the quantity of knowledge than the quality of understanding developed" (p.181).

Curriculum specialists in Jordan prepared a plan (The Educational Development Plan) in 1987 in which they emphasized the importance of teaching thinking. The Law of Education mandated in 1964 and 1994 emphasized the importance of teaching thinking skills. The General Framework for Curricula and Evaluation, issued by the Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2003, indicated the importance of revealing students' creativity and evaluating their creative works.

Many educators emphasize the tremendous advantages for teaching thinking skills too. However, scholars (see, for example, Al-Hishoush, 2006; El- Mustafa, 1988; Karsou, 2005; Saleh, 1990) evaluated English series textbooks, which were taught since 1985 and still taught till now, and reported that there is still an urgent need to develop higher thinking skills in English language syllabuses in order to help students face the new challenges.

Edward Debono (2004) wrote CoRT, which stands for Cognitive Research Trust. Nationally wide, CoRT is one of the programs supposed to help teachers teach creative and critical thinking. Debono (2004) mentioned that he developed strategies and techniques for teaching creative and critical thinking skills for students known as the Cognitive Research Trust (CoRT) with the first CoRT thinking lessons published in 1974. According to Debono, CoRT Program consists of over sixty lessons focusing on developing students' creative and critical thinking skills. This program consists of six books, each one includes 10 lessons for teaching the following: Breadth, Organization, Interaction, Creativity, Information and Feeling and Action.

This study tackles the effect of teaching Creativity on the gifted learners. Gifted learners have high performance in intellectual, creative and specific academic areas. They are considered to be academically advanced because they learn fast and have advanced language skills, they have high degree of motivation and they need special instruction or services in order to develop their capabilities (Dannis, 2006; Tompkins and Hoskisson, 1991).

Problem, Purpose, Questions and significance of the study

Research proved that there is an evident role for writing in enhancing the creative thinking abilities of writers. Simultaneously, educators are emphasizing the importance of teaching thinking skills in order to help students be better thinkers (Bear, 1988; Cotton, 1997; Morgan and Foster, 1999; Newton, 2000; Oslon, 1984; Presseissen, 1988). Consequently, many researchers emphasize the importance of supporting students with enough writing tasks and activities in order to enhance their thinking and creative abilities (Bland and Koppel, 1988; Calkins, 1994; De Anda, 2002; Erkaya, 2005; Garvie, 1990; Verghese, 2004).

There is an obvious need for improving Jordanian school students' writing skills because students' level of proficiency is not good enough and their weakness in writing is still observable (Ababneh, 1996; Abed, 1990; Abu-Shihab, 1986; Al-Hasan, 2006; Batayneh, 1986; Harrison, Prator and Tucker, 1975; Magableh, 1997;). Despite the need for developing the students' writing skills, many Jordanian researchers found that English curricula in Jordan still use the deductive approach in teaching grammar rules and writing (see, for example, Al-Hishoush, 2006; El-Mustafa, 1988; Karsou, 2005; Saleh, 1990). As a result, we still need to provide the gifted learners with extra thinking courses or programs in order to develop their creative abilities and transform their imaginative thoughts in original written works.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of teaching CoRT (4) entitled "Creativity" on the gifted learners' abilities to write original, flexible and fluent short stories using wordless picture books. More specifically, the authors seek answers to the following questions:

1. Are there any statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in the mean scores of students' achievement in writing between the experimental and controlled group that could be attributed to teaching CoRT?
2. What is the effect of teaching CoRT program No (4) "Creativity" on developing the gifted learners' ability to write creative short stories in Ein El-Basha Center for Gifted Students?

The findings are potentially significant for the gifted students since they are expected to develop their fluency, flexibility and originality when writing creative short stories. Educationalists in the Jordanian educational context may reconsider the syllabus with regard to increasing the number and quality of writing activities.

Definitions of Terms

The Gifted Students

The gifted students in this study were classified gifted because they met the criteria of giftedness that were adopted by MOE in 2002. They had a grade point average higher than 90% in the basic materials in the sixth and the seventh grade classes. These students had got recommendation letters from their teachers, advisors as well as their principals regarding their achievement. They also had to pass a test held by the board in Ein El_Basha Center for Gifted Students.

CoRT Program

CoRT stands for Cognitive Research Trust that was written by Debono (2004) who included ten lessons in Breadth, Organization, Interaction, Creativity, Information and Feeling, and Action. The CoRT sections, which were applied in this study, are CoRT (4) "Creativity" and CoRT (1) "Breadth". Creativity consists of 10 lessons which are 1) Yes, No and Po, 2) Stepping Stone, 3) Random Input, 4) Concept Challenge, 5) Dominant Idea, 6) Define the Problem, 7) Remove Faults, 8) Combination, 9) Requirements 10) and Evaluation. Breadth consists of 10 lessons which are 1) PMI, 2) Consider All Factors, 3) Rules, 4) Consequence & Sequel, 5) Aims, Goals and Objectives, 6) Planning, 7) First Important Priorities, 8) Alternatives, Possibilities, Choices: APC, 9) Decisions and 10) OPV: Other People Views (Debono, 2004).

Wordless Picture Books

The wordless picture books in this study are stories without words; their pictures convey meaning, present the main points in a narrative and transport the reader through pictures arranged in sequence.

II. PREVIOUS LITERATURE

Recognizing and nurturing students' talents and gifts present an important challenge to educators (see, for example, Han and Marvin, 2002; Smutny; 2000). In Jordan, the concern about the gifted students and providing them with enrichment activities began in 1980. Al-Maitah and Al-Bawaleez (2004) indicated that an institution in Salt adapted a private venture to discover the gifted students in the secondary stages in the schools. The concern about the giftedness in Jordan is still emphasized in different meetings and occasions. The First Council of Educational Development held in 1987 recommended verifying teaching methods to look after the gifted and creative students. The Ministry of Education (MOE) in its formal letters (mandated in 2002) emphasized the importance of preparing enrichment activities, lectures and meetings for the gifted learners. In addition, MOE considers developing the creative abilities as one of the most primary roles for the centers and the schools for the gifted.

Researchers stress that CoRT is one of the rare programs for developing the creative and the critical abilities of the students in various school subject matters (see, for example, Davis, 2002; Morgan and Foster, 1999). Creative and critical language learners are defined in terms of the learners' cognitive abilities to carry out certain tasks effectively. The creative language learners should be able to combine responses or ideas in novel ways (Smith, Ward and Finke, 1995), and to use elaborate, intricate, and complex stimuli and thinking patterns (Feldman, 1997). As for the critical language learners, they must be able to carefully and deliberately determine to accept, reject or suspend judgment about a claim (Moore and Parker, 1986). Because CoRT is a well known program for teaching creative and critical thinking

skills, it is expected that the gifted students will develop their creative abilities in writing short stories in English by studying the CoRT thinking lessons.

In a study about the effect of using CoRT No.1 on developing creative thinking skills of eighty adult volunteers who were native speakers of English, Burke (1984) reported that there were significant differences in developing verbal fluency, verbal flexibility and verbal originality for students in the experimental group. In another study about the effect of using CoRT 1 "Breadth", 2 "Organization" and 4 "Creativity" on developing the creative thinking of the fourth year students in UNRWA Educational Sciences College in Amman, Nofel (2006) reported that teaching CoRT developed the students' originality, flexibility and fluency.

Many researchers recommend writing short story because short stories enhance and emphasize the use of creative thinking (Bland & Koppel 1988; De Anda, 2002; Erkaya, 2005; Garvie, 1990). However, many students are not encouraged to write them and the lack of creativity is obvious in their writing (Ellis, 2003; Schneider, 2006). Thus, it seems necessary to provide such groups of students with enough opportunities to practice and express their creative abilities in writing stories.

In a study about the effect of using CoRT 1 on developing the writing of 111 students' who attended Alabama University in the second semester in 1991, Hinnant (1993) reported that there were significant differences in developing the students' writings in favor of the experimental group over the control one. The previous studies show that there is an effect for implying CoRT in teaching creative thinking skills for different groups of people. Such studies showed that creative thinking skills can be taught to students. However, there is still a need to conduct other studies in order to find out the role of teaching CoRT in developing the gifted learners' creative thinking and their abilities to write creative short stories using wordless picture books. This present study is considered as an extension for the previous investigations of teaching the cognitive and thinking skills. However, it takes a different path in its investigation by trying to find out how CoRT can be an important factor in developing high intellectual skills of gifted students in writing creative short stories.

It is believed that wordless picture books have the power to facilitate the process of teaching languages and the potentials to improve students' reading skills, their imagination, their creativity, their sensitivity to writing styles and expressive wordless modes (Carter, et al, 1998; Henry, 2003; Holmes, 1987; Khwaileh, 1991; McGee and Thompkins, 1983; Whalen 1979). Henry (2003) explained the role of wordless picture books in stimulating students' creativity to look more closely at story details, to carefully consider all story elements and to more clearly understand how to organize the learners' text so that a story develops. Henry found that students who used wordless picture books were able to build their reading and writing skills and strategies to ultimately produce a unique book.

Although some researchers claim that wordless picture books are more appropriate to be used by children, it is also claimed by others that wordless picture books can be used with different learners of different ages and levels of different English language proficiency (Cassady, 1998; D' Angelo 1979; Houp, 2003; Jalongo et al, 2002; Russell, 1996). Nevertheless, that importance and great significant value of wordless picture books as well as their real importance have not been recognized in writing classes, yet.

In a study about creative writing of middle class students in Marco Polo Education Foundation in USA through wordless picture books, Henry (2003) stated that students explored various wordless picture books. They developed oral and written story lines for wordless picture books and they also developed critique story lines for peers. The researcher found that wordless picture books develop students' writing skills as well as their creative writings. In a study about the different demands of scripted and unscripted story writing task of 253 stories produced by 145 Scottish children in four schools from different local authorities and the extent to which the task prompts pupils to adopt different writing behaviors and attitudes, Ellis (2003) reported that the picture-sequence and modeled-story tasks provided ready-made decisions about the characters, events direction and the boundaries of the story. Pupils had few problems generating the basic story line or keeping it on track because the task had scripted this. This study showed that creativity and imagination could be taught and developed. Unscripted stories produced the most complex story structures although the structural support provided by scripted story tasks produced more consistent results.

The previous studies investigated the effect of using CoRT Program on developing the students' thinking skills and their writing skills. They also investigated the effect of using wordless picture books on developing the students' writing ability and their thinking skills in an attempt to prove the role of wordless picture books in developing the students writing skills. However, this study is different from the other studies since it studies the role of teaching CoRT "Breadth" and "Creativity" on developing the gifted students' ability to write creative short stories based on the given wordless picture books in the English language. This study studies the effective role of using wordless picture books as a means of revealing the gifted learners' creativity while writing creative short stories in the English language.

III. METHOD AND PROCEDURES

This research is essentially quantitative. The sample of the study consisted of all male and female students in the tenth and eleventh grades in Ein El-Basha Center for Gifted Students during the second semester of the academic year 2006/ 2007. The participants consisted of 25 students in the tenth grade and 11 students in the eleventh grade. The participants included 16 male students and 20 female students who were classified as gifted according to the criteria of

giftedness which are adopted by the Ministry of Education. The students were divided randomly into control and experimental groups of equal size. Table 1 shows the number of the male and female students participated in the study.

TABLE 1
DISTRIBUTION OF SUBJECTS IN THE SAMPLE

Grade	Experimental Group		Control Group		Total	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Control	Exp.
10 th	6	6	7	6	12	13
11 th	2	4	1	4	6	5
Total	8	10	8	10	18	18

The researchers developed an instrument which they used as a pretest and a posttest for both the experimental and control groups. The pretest consisted of a wordless picture sheet in the form of a series of eight pictures arranged without any text in order to test the students' fluency, flexibility, and originality in writing creative short stories. These pictures presented the main events of the story and conveyed meaning for the reader through pictures only. The topic of the series of pictures was about "Keeping Fit" which was adopted from Jones's article (2001) about raising approaches to the teaching of conversational story telling skills.

Students were encouraged to write stories of about 150 words at least and they were asked to generate their creative events using unexpected solution and several opening sentences to attract readers into their fictitious world. They were asked to generate their own story elements (fictitious characters, setting, meticulously developed events and creatively resolved climax). They were also asked to suggest creative and unexpected solutions. Simultaneously they were asked to generate coherent events in an appropriate and creative language.

The pretest results were evaluated according to the evaluation scale of the gifted learners' creative short stories which was developed by the researchers. The scale consisted of 15 points which aimed at measuring students' fluency, flexibility and originality in writing short stories. The scale describes four levels of students' creativity in English short stories: very good, good, accepted and poor levels. Both of the pretest and the evaluation scale were revised by a group of judges.

A panel of judges (three teachers of English, a supervisor of English, a headmistress of gifted learners' center, six university EFL professors and six university professors of special education) helped to validate the appropriateness of the tested linguistic items, the suitability of the test wording, the suitability of criteria wording and the suitability of the criteria items to measure creativity instruments of the study. The judges suggested more recommendations regarding the use of language or the criteria of evaluating the gifted learners' short stories. All their recommendations were taken into account during revising the criteria of evaluating the short stories and the pretest. Validity and reliability of the instruments were established.

To establish the internal consistency, the test was applied on a pilot group of 15 gifted learners in order to measure the students' originality, flexibility and fluency in writing creative short stories. The students participated in the pilot study were also gifted students in Ein El-Basha Secondary School for Girls, they were classified gifted because they met the criteria of giftedness which are adopted by the Ministry of Education. They attended Ein El- Basha Center for Gifted Students for a number of courses but they left it for personal reasons. The students in the pilot study were asked to generate creative stories for the wordless picture book "keeping fit" in 50 minutes. They were given the wordless picture in the form of arranged pictures about the topic "keeping fit". Then, they were asked to write genuine stories of about 150 words at least in which they were to generate their creative events using unexpected solution and several opening sentences to attract readers into their fictitious world.

Two teachers from different schools judged the students' creative writings. These teachers were teachers of English who had at least five years of teaching with a good experience in teaching and evaluating students' writing. They were asked to follow the criteria of evaluation of the students' creative writings after they were trained to use the scale of evaluating the gifted students' stories.

Each creative story was evaluated by the two teachers and the researcher. The three evaluators were working independently. Mean scores for the three grades were analyzed for every creative story. In order to avoid any biases in scoring, the papers were given numbers not names. The correlation between the students' marks in fluency, originality and flexibility as well as the whole written creative short stories in the pilot studies was high and acceptable for the purpose of the study.

Reliability for the consistency of evaluators (the two teachers and the researcher) was also calculated in order to determine the reliability for the second instrument (evaluation scale). The evaluators' scores on fluency, flexibility and originality were used to determine the reliability of the criteria of evaluating creative short stories. The results indicated that the reliability for the consistency between the three evaluators was high and significant for the purpose of the study. The reliability ranged from .77 for (judge2- judge 3) to .87 for (judge1- judge 3). The overall reliability was .951 which means that the criteria of evaluating the gifted learners' creative short stories were reliable.

To conduct the study, consent was obtained from MOE for applying the experiment in the center, the schools and the participants themselves. The researcher randomly divided the 36 students from both grades into two equivalent groups. The first group that consisted of 18 students from the tenth grade and the eleventh grades was randomly assigned as the experimental group. The other 18 students from both grade levels were automatically assigned as the control group.

Students in both groups were asked to generate creative stories for the wordless picture book "keeping fit" in 50 minutes. This task was considered the pretest for both groups. After applying the pretest, all of the students in both groups were taught the course "Creative Writing" by one of the researchers for four months. The time allotted for each lesson was 50 minutes. The same researcher asked the students of the control and experimental groups to write five creative stories for different wordless picture books. The researcher presented the wordless picture books for the students and directed some questions about them. After that, the students were asked to analyze the elements of the stories. Then, students worked in groups in order to write creative short stories based on the given pictures. Finally, the researcher asked some of the groups' leaders to read their stories in front of the class. The researcher corrected the students' creative stories after listening for their oral presentations and provided the groups with feedback. After the students started writing creative short stories, the students in the experimental group were taught 10 lessons from CoRT 1 "Breadth" and 10 lessons from CoRT 4 "Creativity". Moreover, Debono's activity cards that aim at teaching creative thinking, developing fluency, flexibility and originality and training the students to use thinking tools of CoRT that are part of the two programs were also used.

The implementation of the program lasted three months following the procedures detailed in "Breadth" and "Creativity". CoRT 1 "Breadth" was taught first because it is the basic section which has to be applied before the other five sections. After finishing "Creativity" and "Breadth", the researcher applied the creative posttest on the experimental and the control groups. The same three evaluators who evaluated the pretest evaluated the creative stories in the posttest. They used the same criteria of evaluating the creative stories in the pretest. Mean scores were analyzed for every creative story. After applying the posttest, the results of the pretest and the posttest were quantified in order to be compared for the sake of fluency, flexibility and originality and to find out if there were statistically significant effects of teaching CoRT 4 "Creativity" on the gifted learners' ability to write creative short stories.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

To answer the research questions, which seek to identify whether or not there are any statistical differences in the gifted learners' writings due to applying CoRT Program No (4) entitled Creativity, students' grades on fluency, flexibility and originality in the creative writing test were analyzed. The mean scores and the standard deviation of students' grades in fluency for the two groups were also analyzed. To compare between the mean scores of the experimental and the control groups, Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used; the results of the analysis are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE (ANCOVA) FOR FLUENCY

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Level of Significance
Average of Fluency	15.635	1	15.635	57.091	.01*
Experimental	1.886	1	1.886	6.886	.013*
Standard Error	9.038	33	274		
Corrected Total	27.639	35			

* Statistically significant at $\alpha \leq 0.05$

The results of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) revealed that there is a statistically significant effect of teaching CoRT 4 on the gifted students' fluency in favor of the experimental group. Adjusted means, standard errors, confidence interval, raw scores and standard deviation of fluency by group were also analyzed for the control and experimental groups in order to find out if there were any statistically significant effects of teaching CoRT 4 "Creativity". The results are in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
ADJUSTED MEANS, STANDARD ERRORS, CONFIDENCE INTERVAL, RAW MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF FLUENCY BY GROUP

Group	Adjusted Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval		Mean	Standard Deviation
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Experimental	7.813	.124	7.562	8.064	7.87	.89
Control	7.354	.124	7.102	7.605	7.30	.81

The adjusted mean of the experimental group was higher than adjusted mean of the control group which indicates that CoRT 4 contributed to the development of the experimental group's fluency in writing creative short stories. The results indicated that CoRT developed the students' ability to expand, support and elaborate on their ideas by giving helpful details. This means that CoRT developed the students' ability to produce logically cohesive and organized sentences, to produce a variety of sentence lengths, to show better command of the physical description of the characters and broad command of new effective words and idioms.

The Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) for the sum of mean scores of the experimental and control groups on flexibility was also analyzed in order to find if there was a statistically significant effect for CoRT 4 on the gifted students' achievement in flexibility in writing creative short stories. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4:
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE (ANCOVA) FOR FLEXIBILITY

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Level of Significance
Average of Flexibility	30.450	1	30.450	155.328	.03*
Group	4.664	1	4.664	23.789	.00*
Error	6.469	33	.196		
Corrected Total	39.515	35			

* Statistically significant

The results of the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) show that there is a statistically significant effect of CoRT 4 on the gifted students' achievement in flexibility in favor of the experimental group. Adjusted means, standard errors, confidence interval, raw scores and standard deviations of fluency by group were also computed and the results are revealed in Table 5.

TABLE 5:
ADJUSTED MEANS, STANDARD ERRORS, CONFIDENCE INTERVAL, RAW MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF FLEXIBILITY BY GROUP

Group	Adjusted Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval		Mean	Standard Deviation
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Experimental	7.630	.105	7.417	7.843	7.54	1.18
Control	6.907	.105	6.694	7.120	7.00	.89

The adjusted mean of the experimental group was higher than the adjusted mean of the control group in flexibility which indicates that CoRT developed the gifted learners' flexibility in writing creative short stories. This indicates that CoRT developed the gifted learners' ability to produce a variety of ideas, to use correct time sequences and rhetorical devices appropriately and to reveal better control of complex structure and meaningful dialogues. The Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) for the comparison of the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on originality was computed and the results are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6:
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE (ANCOVA) FOR ORIGINALITY

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Level of Significance
Average of Originality	24.131	1	24.131	103.298	.00*
GROUP	1.020	1	1.020	4.367	.044*
Error	7.709	33	.234		
Corrected Total	33.333	35			

*Statistically significant

The results of Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) revealed that there was a statistically significant effect of CoRT 4 on the gifted students' achievement in originality in favor of the experimental group. Adjusted means, standard errors, 95% Confidence Interval, raw scores and standard deviation of fluency by group were also analyzed and the results are revealed in Table 7.

TABLE 7:
ADJUSTED MEANS, STANDARD ERRORS, CONFIDENCE INTERVAL, RAW MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF ORIGINALITY BY GROUP

Group	Adjusted mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval		Mean	Standard Deviation
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Experimental	6.613	.114	6.381	6.845	6.65	1.1
Control	6.276	.114	6.044	6.508	6.24	.86

The adjusted mean of the experimental group was higher than the adjusted mean of the control group which shows that CoRT developed the experimental groups' originality. The results show that CoRT developed the gifted students' ability to use unpredictable events, unfamiliar titles and suitable solutions. Based on the results of the study, we can say that CoRT 4 could develop the gifted students' creativity and increased their ability to apply thinking skills while writing English short stories.

V. CONCLUSIONS, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

In conclusion, it seems that creativity can be taught using an appropriate program; the results of the study also showed that CoRT Program is an appropriate program which can stimulate the gifted learners' imagination and provide them with the suitable environment to develop their fluency, flexibility and originality while writing creative stories. This experimentation with CoRT encourages the hope that CoRT is vital and flexible enough for use in ESL classes in order to stimulate the students' creativity.

This indicated that CoRT developed the students' ability to expand, support and elaborate on their ideas by giving many helpful details. Many students were able to personalize their stories by giving names to the characters and places. Students showed better command of new effective words and idioms. Some students suggested several solutions for the

climax, some students showed better command of the physical description of the characters. Students showed better flexibility by producing a wide variety of ideas. Students moved between familiar and imaginative ideas easily. Students were more able to write creative short stories using correct time sequence appropriately; students used past tenses to narrate the events of the stories, they used future tenses to express the characters' expectations and intentions and they used present tenses to describe characters and places. Students were more able to demonstrate knowledge of rhetorical devices such as simile, analogy and metaphor. Their stories were well organized with fewer errors. Some creative short stories evoked images and curiosity in the reader. They showed better control of complex structure and they produced accurate and meaningful dialogues. . Students were more able to build their writing skills to ultimately produce original stories; they were more able to build unpredictable events and infrequent ideas. They avoided clichés, formulas, stereotypes and predictable events by using ambiguity, gaps and openness. Many students suggested clever and unfamiliar titles for their stories such as "UFO". Many characters were well developed and shown instead of being told. Students' characters in their stories played active roles in dialogues instead of narrating their intentions and plans.

The findings of this study are consistent with previous research findings (cf., for example, Burke, 1984; Hinnant, 1993 Nofel, 2006) that CoRT developed students' flexibility, fluency and originality in their creative products. The findings of this study are consistent too with the findings of the studies conducted by Ellis (2003) and Henry (2003) that using wordless picture books helps students express their creative writing and produce unique writings, and that they have a positive effect on the students' writing skill, specific to the areas of sequencing and elaboration.

The highest degree of students' development was in fluency; the students' development in flexibility was higher than their development in originality. The lowest degree of development was in originality which could be due to the students' intention to produce familiar and known ideas and their need for more practice with thinking tools in order to develop their level of originality. Even though students' development in the three elements of creativity varied, there was a significant increase in all of the three elements. But how could one explain this increase? It may be assumed that CoRT taught the students how to imagine and express their creative ideas fluently. The amount of students' increase in mean scores indicates that the gifted learners learned the thinking skills from CoRT and then they were able to use such skill in their creative short stories writing.

Based on the findings of this study, researchers in special education are recommended to conduct similar studies to find out the effect of CoRT Program on other variables such as the gifted students' critical thinking, conduct similar studies on representative samples of gifted students in other centers and to try to find standardized tests for creative thinking in order to facilitate teaching and evaluating creative thinking. Furthermore, Text-books designers are recommended to design syllabuses for creative writing that focus on wordless picture books in language writing. Gifted learners' centers are recommended to adopt CoRT Program as a primary course in gifted learners' centers. Teachers are recommended to use pictures in the classroom because pictures stimulate and inspire creative writing and imagination.

This study examined all of the gifted students in the tenth and the first secondary grade in Ein El-Basha Center only, they were limited to (25) male and female students in the tenth grade and (11) male and female students in the first secondary grade in Ein El-Basha Center .The type of writing in this study was limited to creative short stories in the English language. CoRT Program sections that were applied in this study were CoRT one "Breadth" (the basic one) and CoRT four "Creativity". Writing creative short stories was limited to the creative short stories that were based on given pictures arranged in sequence in order to present the main points in a narrative.

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The Study of Motion Event Model and Cognitive Mechanism of English Fictive Motion Expressions of Access Paths

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Abstract—This paper studies the cognitive elements in the motion event model of English fictive motion expressions of access paths --- Mover, Motion, Path, Manner, Duration and Distance. It is found that Mover usually refers to some person or some entity with low abstractness; Motion is to illustrate Path; there are path condition and manner condition, which demonstrate the necessity of path and the exclusion of manner; and Duration is essentially to illustrate Distance. Besides, this paper attempts to explore the cognitive mechanism of the fictive motion expressions from the perspectives of conceptual blending, windowing of attention, perspective state and metonymy. It is discovered that the expressions contain the conceptual blending of real motion and the location of the static object, different portions of paths can be windowed, the construal of such expressions is concerned with short distance perspective and sequential scanning mode, and the metonymy mechanism behind them is MOTION FOR PATH.

Index Terms—fictive motion expressions of access paths, motion event model, conceptual blending, perspective state, metonymy

I. INTRODUCTION

Human being is endowed with subject consciousness, which is embedded in human language, and makes human language subjective to some extent. One of the manifestations of the subjectiveness of human language is the prevalent fictive motion expressions which vividly demonstrate how human being describes the external static world through dynamic perception and description from his/her own point of view.

According to the characteristics of moving paths, Talmy summarizes six types of English fictive motion as follows: emanation paths, pattern paths, advent paths, frame-relative motion, coextension/coverage paths and access paths fictive motions (Talmy, 2000a, p.99-176). This paper will focus on the English fictive motion expressions of access paths.

An access path is a depiction of a stationary object's location in terms of a path that some other entity might follow to the point of encounter with the object. What is factive here is the representation of the object as stationary, without any entity traversing the depicted path. What is fictive is the representation of some entity traversing the depicted path, whether this is plausible or implausible. (Talmy, 2000a, p.136) For example:

- (1) a. The bakery is across the street from the bank. (Talmy, 2000a, p.137)
b. There is a beautiful chapel across the river, through the meadow, and (then) over the hill. (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.365)

(1a) and (1b) are both fictive motion expressions of access paths. In (1a), the location of the bakery is concerned with the motion of some person or some entity commencing from the bank, crossing the street, and then terminate at the bakery. In (1b), the location of the chapel is related with the motion of some entity crossing the river, running through the meadow and climbing over the hill.

The phenomenon of fictive motion in language is based on the motion event model which exists everywhere in the real world. This paper will attempt to study the motion event model and the cognitive mechanisms behind English fictive motion expressions of access paths from the perspectives of conceptual blending, perspective state and metonymy.

II. MOTION EVENT MODEL

On the basis of the cognitive study of motion event model conducted by Talmy (2000b) and Fillmore (1982, 1985), it is concluded that there are five cognitive elements in the motion event model of English fictive motion expressions of access paths, which are Mover, Motion, Path, Manner, Duration and Distance. The following will study the five elements respectively from the cognitive perspective.

A. Mover

In English fictive expressions of access paths, the mover can usually reach the described location. For instance:

- (2) a. His garden is across the fence.

b. */OK His office is {across / through} this wall. (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.368)

(2a) is acceptable because the fence can be crossed by someone; while (2b) is unacceptable because the wall is so hard for some common people to go through.

Here are some other examples:

(3) a. * The village is over the valley from us.

b. ? The cloud is 1,000 feet up from the ground.

c. Up above are branches of a big tree. (Takahashi, 2005, p.9)

(3a) is not acceptable because human beings can not fly over the valley like birds. (3b) is also questionable because we can not reach the cloud 1,000 feet up in the sky unless we take airplane. However, (3c) is acceptable because under some circumstance we may reach the branches of a tree overhead.

All in all, in English fictive motion expressions of access paths, mover usually refers to some person or some concrete entity, which demonstrates that mover in the expressions is of low abstractness.

B. Motion

In English fictive motion expressions of access paths, the fictive motion process is usually manifested by path prepositions, while not the locative prepositions (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.365). For instance:

(4) There is a lake {halfway / twenty miles} across the desert. (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.365)

In (4), the lake is located at some point of the moving process or path of crossing the desert. The preposition “across the desert” is used to illustrate the moving process but not simply describe the location.

In English fictive motion expressions of access paths, motion is mainly illustrated by prepositional phrases that emphasize on the moving path. In another word, motion is mainly to illustrate the motion path but not to describe the motion manner.

C. Path

In English fictive motion expressions of access paths, the path is usually manifested by prepositional phrases. For example:

(5) a. The bike is parked across the street.

b. There is a lake through the forest. (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.359)

The prepositional phrases “across the street” and “through the forest” in (5a) and (5b) are used to manifest the motion paths respectively.

It is found that in English fictive motion expressions of access paths there is a path condition, which means some property of the path of motion must be expressed (Matsumoto, 1996b, p.194; Fan, 2011, p.107, 2012). The path is closely related with location, which is the necessary element in the expressions.

Moreover, it is found that the sequence of path elements in the expressions is consistent with that in the cognitive world, namely they are displayed in some order of Source- Path- Goal (S-P-G) in the expressions. For example:

(6) There is a beautiful chapel across the river, through the meadow, and (then) over the hill. (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.365)

The sequence of path elements in (6) is “across the river -- through the meadow -- over the hill”, which coincides with the path sequence in the cognitive world.

It is believed that the consistence of the linguistic representations and cognitive order of path sequence embodies the principle of grammatical iconicity. According to the principle, linguistic representations are always in accordance with human cognition. Therefore, based on the cognitive experience of human beings, there is such a relatively fixed cognitive model of motion path as S-P-G pattern, from which language is organized and produced.

D. Manner

In English fictive motion expressions of access paths, the manner is usually related with the path to indicate the locations. For example:

(7) a. The hotel is 15 minutes down the road {by car / on foot / at that speed}.

b. The hotel is a 15-minute {drive /walk / run} down the road. (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.367)

The manners of “by car / on foot / at that speed” in (7a) and “drive /walk / run” in (7b) indicate a certain moving speed respectively. Combined with the duration “15 minutes”, the manners illustrate the moving distance, so that they can help define the exact location of the hotel.

The above shows that in English fictive motion expressions of access paths, besides the path condition there is a manner condition as well, which means no property of the manner of motion can be expressed unless it is used to represent some correlated property of the path (Matsumoto, 1996b, p.194; Fan, 2011, p.108, 2012). The expressions usually emphasize on the motion path but not the motion manner, therefore, the manner are generally used to illustrate the path.

E. Duration and Distance

There are some descriptions of moving distance in English fictive motion expressions of access paths. For instance:

(8) His house is halfway through the increasingly dense forest. (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.366)

In (8), “halfway through the increasingly dense forest” indicates the moving process and moving distance.

Besides, even if without any concrete moving manner in the expressions, there may be some descriptions of duration as long as the producer and receiver of the expressions have the same hypothesis of moving manner and speed. For example:

(9) The city lies many hours across the desert. (Matsumoto, 1996a: 366)

The duration of “many hours” in (9) actually demonstrates the moving distance. The question raised from (9) should be concerned with distance (see (10a)), but not duration (see (10b)).

(10) a. How far across the desert does the city lie?

b. *How long across the desert does the city lie? (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.366)

(10a) is acceptable because the question word “how far” is relevant to moving distance; while (10b) is unacceptable because the question word “how long” is only involved with duration.

Moreover, the descriptions of duration can be further specified. For example:

(11) a. There is a village 25 minutes through the forest.

b. The hotel is only three minutes down the road.

c. There is a bridge 15 minutes down the footpath. (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.367)

In (11a) - (11c), “25 minutes”, “three minutes” and “15 minutes” are the specified descriptions of duration.

In short, in some cases there are descriptions of moving duration and distance in English fictive motion expressions of access paths, and the duration fundamentally plays the role of specifying moving distance.

III. COGNITIVE MECHANISMS

There are specific cognitive mechanisms behind English fictive motion expressions of access paths. The following will study the cognitive mechanisms from the perspectives of conceptual blending, perspective state and metonymy.

A. Conceptual Blending

The construal of fictive motion expressions is involved with four mental spaces --- Input Space 1 (Input 1), Input Space 2 (Input 2), Generic Space and Blended Space. First, the correspondent elements of Input 1 and Input 2 have some mapping relationship, so that they form a kind of cross mapping between different spaces. Second, the shared elements of Input 1 and Input 2 are projected into the generic space which reflects the common abstract structure of Input 1 and Input 2. Last, some of the elements in Input 1 and Input 2 are projected into blended space, and form a new emergent structure.

Conceptual blending theory can be used to explore the cognitive mechanism of English fictive motion expressions of access paths. Sentence (12) is taken as an example to analyze the conceptual blending process of such kind of fictive motion expressions.

(12) The bike is across the street. (Matsumoto, 1996a, p.364)

The construal of (12) is involved with four mental spaces: (1) Input 1, which embodies the real motion of crossing the street; (2) Input 2, which includes the location of the static bike; (3) Generic space, which includes the correspondent elements in Input 1 and Input 2. For example, the location of “across the street” in Input 1 and the location of “bike” in Input 2 have something in common with respect to space, so they are projected into the generic space. (4) Blended space, which contains some elements in Input 1 and 2. For instance, the motion of “crossing the street” in Input 1 and the location of “bike” in Input 2 are both projected into the blended space, thus producing the emergent structure that includes both the motion of some mover and the location of the bike.

Fig. 1 demonstrates the conceptual blending process of English fictive motion expressions of access paths.

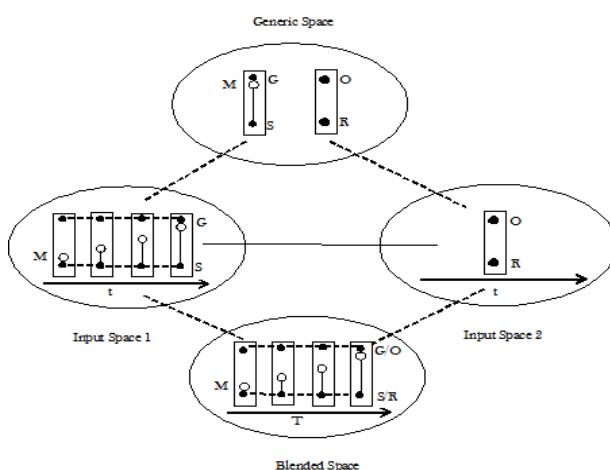


Figure 1 Conceptual Blending of Fictive Motion Expressions of Access Paths
(S=Source; G=Goal; M=Mover; O=Object; R=Reference)

In Fig. 1, the two solid circles in Input 1 represent Source and Goal respectively, and the hollow circle represents Mover. The two solid circles in Input 2 represent Object and Reference separately. As is shown, Mover moves from Source to Goal on the time axis in Input 1. While in Input 2, the Object is located in a certain location at some point on the time axis relative to Reference. The correspondent elements in Input 1 and Input 2, such as the Goal of Mover in Input 1 and the location of Object in Input 2 share something in common in regard to space, so they are projected into the Generic Space. Based on the Generic Space, some of the elements in Input 1 and Input 2, such as the motion in Input 1 and the location in Input 2 are both projected into the Blended Space, thus forming an emergent structure. In the Blended Space, the motion of Mover from Source to Goal is used to represent the location of Object relative to Reference.

B. Windowing of Attention

Linguistic form can direct the distribution of one's attention over a referent scene in a certain type of pattern, the placement of one or more windows of greatest attention over the scene, in a process that can be termed the windowing of attention. (Talmy, 2000a, p.258) A referent scene that is sequential in nature or that has been sequentialized conceptually can have a window of strongest attention placed over its beginning, middle, or end portion --- or may have initial, medial, or final windowing. (Talmy, 2000a, p.259)

The construal of motion event is concerned with various types of windowing, such as path-windowing, causal-chain windowing, phase-windowing, participant-interaction windowing and multiple nested windowing. The construal of English fictive motion expressions of access paths is involved with path-windowing.

According to Talmy (2000a, p.265), the path can be divided into three types: open paths, closed paths and fictive paths. An open path refers to a path that is described by an object physically in motion in the course of a period of time, that is conceptualized as an entire unity thus having a beginning and an end, and whose beginning point and ending point are at different locations in space.

The following example is concerned with the open-path type with various patterns of windowing and gapping imposed on it.

(13) The crate that was in the aircraft's cargo bay fell ---

- a. With maximal windowing over the whole of the so-conceived entire path
 - out of the plane through the air into the ocean.
- b. With gapping over one portion of the path
 - i. Medial gapping = initial + final windowing
 - out of the plane into the ocean.
 - ii. Initial gapping = medial + final windowing
 - through the air into the ocean.
 - iii. Final gapping = initial +medial windowing
 - out of the airplane through the air.
- c. With windowing over one portion of the path
 - i. Initial windowing = medial + final gapping
 - out of the airplane.
 - ii. Medial windowing = initial +final gapping
 - through the air.
 - iii. Final windowing = initial + medial gapping
 - into the ocean.

(Talmy, 2000a, p.266)

(13a) presents the event with maximal windowing over the whole of the conceptually complete path, while (13b) presents three forms of gapping over one portion of the path and (1c) presents three forms of windowing over one portion of the path.

The fictive path refers to the "trajectory" exhibited by a person's focus of attention shifting over a conceived scene. Talmy analyzed an English construction of "X BE across Y" that directs one's focus of attention along a spatial path in this way. This construction belongs to a type of fictive motion expressions of access paths, which specifies a fictive equivalent of an open path in which one's focus of attention starts from point Z, traverses the extent of Y, and that lastly terminates at point X.

The following example demonstrates the maximal windowing over the entire path and the windowing over some portions of the path.

(14) a. With maximal windowing

- i. My bike is across the street from the bakery.
 - ii. Jane sat across the table from John.
- b. With medial gapping = initial + final windowing
- i. My bike is across from the bakery.
 - ii. Jane sat across from John.
- c. With initial gapping = medial + final windowing

- i. My bike is across the street.
 - ii. Jane sat across the table.
- (Talmy, 2000a, p.269)

(14ai) and (14aii) describe the entire path of the focus of attention, which starts from bakery, traverses the street and terminates at the location of “my bike”. (14b) and (14c) indicate some portions of the path of the focus of attention. In (14bi) and (14bii), the initial and final portions of the path are windowed while the medial portion is absent; In (14ci) and (14cii), the medial and final portions of path are windowed while the initial portion is absent.

Talmy compared the two English constructions “X BE across Y from Z” and “X BE between Y and Z”. These two constructions specify a complex spatial schema that includes two reference point (the Ground objects Y and Z). The “between” construction calls for a stationary distal perspective point with global scope of attention over the spatial schema as a whole, while the “across from” construction specifies a moving proximal perspective point with local scope of attention on elements of the schema taken in sequence. (Talmy, 2000a, p.269)

All in all, in the construal of English fictive motion expressions of access paths, the initial or the medial portions of path may be windowed, while the final portion of path must be windowed, because the final portion of path is closely related with the location of the described objects and thus plays an important role in the conceptualization of such expressions.

C. Perspective State

Perspective state, which is also called “perspective mobility” by Talmy (2000a, p.70), mainly refers to the moving or stationary state of perspective. Generally speaking, the stationary state of Object is involved with the long distance perspective, while the moving state with the short distance perspective. The former is usually concerned with the global scope of attention and the latter is related to the local scope of attention. Perspective state is divided into synoptic mode and sequential mode by Talmy (2000a, p.70). The synoptic mode is connected with the stationary long distance perspective and global scope of attention, while sequential mode is in connection of the moving short distance perspective and local scope of attention.

The similar notion of “perspective state” is “scanning mode” put forward by Langacker (1987). Langacker summarizes the scanning mode into two categories: summary scanning and sequential scanning. The former refers to that every part of the conceptualized content are activated, processed simultaneously and thus forming a whole gestalt. The latter means that the objects or events are processed in sequence by human cognition. The summary scanning emphasizes the global state of event, while the sequential scanning accentuates the connective relationship or process of event.

What is adopted in the construal of English fictive motion expressions of access paths is the short distance perspective that is related with moving and the sequential scanning mode of local scope of attention. The motion and paths (such as Source, Path, Direction and Goal) can be sequentially scanned, thus constructing a whole moving path, and the goal of which is related with the location of the object. For example:

- (15) The chapel is across the river from us.

In (15), the whole moving path is constructed through the sequential scanning of Source (form us) and Path (across the river), thus explicating the location of the chapel.

D. Metonymy

Metonymy is not only an important figure of speech but also the reflection of human cognitive mechanism. Based on the generation mechanism of metonymy, Radden & Kövecses (1999, p.30) put forward a system of “generation relationship of metonymy”. It is believed that the generation of metonymy is decided by two conceptual structures: (1) the relation between the whole ICM and each element in it; (2) the relation between each element in the whole ICM.

The first conceptual structure, concerned with people or event, refers to the substitution of the whole for parts or parts for the whole, which generates a kind of referential metonymy. The second conceptual structure, concerned with event or state, refers to the substitution of part for part, which generates a kind of predication metonymy (Panther & Thornburg, p.1999). Take the ACTION cognitive model as an example, this model consists of such elements as Agent, Object, Action, Tool, Manner and Result, which are connected with each other. Sometimes for example, Agent, Tool, Result and Manner can be used to refer to Action respectively, and Action can be used to refer to Result.

Therefore, it is regarded that what is involved in the fictive motion expressions is the predication metonymy that embodies the substitution relationship of part for part. For instance, the cognitive model of motion event consists of such elements as Mover, Motion, Path and Manner, which embrace a certain kind of substitution between each other, for example “Motion for Path”. This kind of relationship promotes the generation of metonymy in fictive motion expressions.

The motion event in fictive motion expressions of access paths is composed of such elements as Mover, Motion, Path and Manner. The relationship of motion and path arouses the metonymy of “Motion for Path”. For example:

- (16) There is a gas station toward the end of the street. (Matsumoto, 1996b, p.364)

In (16), the connection of motion and path triggers the metonymy of “the motion of going toward the end of the street” for ‘the path of going toward the end of the street’.

Fig. 2 demonstrates the metonymy mechanism of fictive motion expressions of access paths.

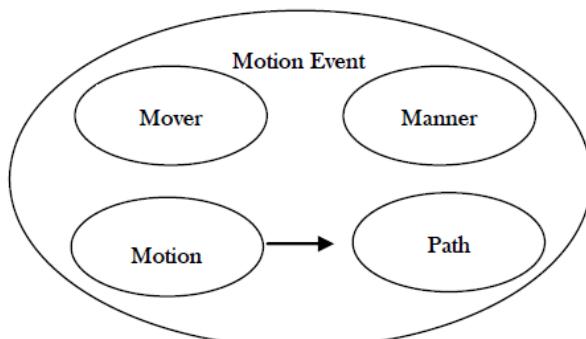


Figure 2 Metonymy Mechanism of Fictive Motion Expressions of Access Paths:
MOTION FOR PATH

In Fig. 2, the big circle represents the cognitive model of motion event, and the small circles represent various elements in the cognitive model. Motion, as one of the elements in the cognitive model activates another element --- Path, thus generating the metonymy of MOTION FOR PATH.

In fact, the metonymy of MOTION FOR PATH belongs to another superior metonymy, namely ACTION FOR RESULT, in which the motion is used to represent the result.

IV. CONCLUSION

The study of fictive motion expressions is of great meaning to discover the cognitive mechanisms behind linguistic representations. Based on the cognitive study of elements in the motion event model of English fictive motion expressions of access paths, it is found that Mover is of low abstractness because it only refers to some concrete person or entity. Due to the path condition and manner condition, which demonstrate the necessity of path and the exclusion of manner, Motion and Manner can only be used to describe Path. Meanwhile, Duration is essentially to illustrate Distance, which is also concerned with Path to some extent.

Through the study of the cognitive mechanism of English fictive motion expressions of access paths, it is discovered that the construal of such expressions is concerned with the conceptual blending of real motion and the location of the stationary object, the windowing of attention of different portions of paths, the short distance perspective and sequential scanning mode, and the metonymy of MOTION FOR PATH.

The study of motion event model and cognitive mechanism of English fictive motion expressions of access paths will surely be beneficial in the exploration of the relationship between language and cognition.

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An Investigation of the Balanced Literacy Approach for Enhancing Phonemic Awareness of Thai First-grade Students

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Abstract—This study examined the effectiveness of the balanced literacy approach in enhancing performance on phonemic awareness of Thai first-grade students. The intervention program based on the balanced literacy approach was carried out 10 weeks to support students in improving their phonemic awareness skills. Thirty students aged 6 and 7 year-old were participated in this study. Four fricative consonants were taught as the target sounds. Mixed methods were employed to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. Posttest results showed that students significantly performed better on measures of phonemic awareness. Two-week follow-up data indicated that students could retain and recall information about phonemic awareness. Additional observations of student engagement in learning phonemic awareness were also generated.

Index Terms—phonemic awareness, the balanced literacy approach, young children, L2 learners, student engagement

I. INTRODUCTION

Sound system is one of the first linguistic abilities that learners need to learn before other abilities are acquired (Werker & Yeung, 2009). The phoneme is the basic unit of a language's sound system which learners need to acquire and develop to learn language skills (Bicăan, 2005). In order to learn language skills successfully, learners must become aware of phonemes. Phonemic awareness has been defined in different ways. For example, it has been defined as a skill to detect the individual phonemes of words, identify their characteristics, and manipulate those phonemes (Justus, Mahurin & Robinson, 2011). However, Cunningham (1988) argued that phonemic awareness should mean the ability to examine language and then manipulate the component sounds of spoken language (Griffith & Olson, 1992). In particular, it is the ability to manipulate the individual phonemes of a word by breaking the word down to its spelling and blending the phonemes to read (Behan, Dunbar, Dunn, Ferguson, Gray, & Mitchell, 2007). Some researchers think that phonemic awareness is the understanding that words are made up of a set of individual sounds (Deureen & Reading, 2007; Gillon, 2005; Yopp, 1992).

Regarding to language learning, phonemic awareness is important because it enables learners to think about and know how to manipulate phonemes of words in order to read, spell, or write (McCulloch, 2000). Several researchers demonstrated that phonemic awareness relates to reading ability (Carlson et al., 2003; Deureen & Reading, 2007), spelling ability (Caravolas, Hulme, & Volín 2005; Griffith, 1991) and writing ability (Griffith & Olson, 1992). Tankersley (2003) regarded phonemic awareness as an indicator of learners' ability to learn reading. Before learning to read, learners need to learn, recognize, and understand that words consist of individual sounds that are represented by letters or groups of letters (Zeece, 2006). This awareness enables learners to understand the relationship between sounds and letters and to use this relationship to read even if they have never seen those words before (Griffith & Olson, 1992).

Additionally, phonemic awareness is also related to spelling ability. Researchers studied this correlation and found that learners know how to spell if they possess and have adequate phonemic awareness (Caravolas, Hulme, & Volín 2005; Griffith, 1991). Juel et al. (1986) further stated that this awareness helps learners to understand and use the correspondence between sounds and letters to spell (Eldredge, 1995). In addition, Lundberg, Frost, and Peterson (1988) investigated the use of phonemic awareness activities to accelerate the phonemic awareness of kindergarten children and found that participants who had learnt through such activities could develop their awareness and achieved better scores than those who did not (Griffith, 1991).

Furthermore, phonemic awareness also relates to writing performance because the acquisition of phonemic awareness and alphabetic principles are correlative. In other words, this awareness enables learners to recognize the letters of writing systems and understand how to write words and sentences (Bosman, Graaff, Hasselman, & Verhoeven, 2009). As a result, children who possess and develop phonemic awareness can do writing tasks better than those who do

not because this awareness supports them to understand sound-letters correspondence and know how to write words correctly.

Phonemic awareness inadequacy is an obstacle in learning language abilities. For example, Harm, Ross, and Ukrainetz (2009) investigated reading abilities of children with low phonemic awareness and found that these children have more difficulty than children who have adequate phonemic awareness because inadequate phonemic awareness decreases the ability to acquire word decoding, resulting in reading difficulties. This shortfall also affects the development of spelling ability. That is, learners with insufficient phonemic awareness have difficulty in spelling or may not spell because they do not understand how letters match to sounds (Griffith & Olson, 1992). In the same way, learners who do not possess phonemic awareness also have difficulty in writing because they do not recognize that words are made up of individual sounds and thus cannot understand how words are created (Dulude, 2012; Carello, Liberman, Lukatela & Shankweiler, 1994).

It is apparent that phonemic awareness is very important for language skills acquisition and development because it enables learners to read, spell, and write familiar and unfamiliar words without memorizing (McCulloch, 2000). However, learners who do not possess adequate awareness cannot develop better language skills than those who do. Specifically, second language learners have to examine the phonological similarities and differences between their mother language and a second language. These differences are causes of confusion affecting the development of the phonemic awareness of second language.

Therefore, learners who have to learn another language may have more difficulty in perceiving, possessing, and developing phonemic awareness of second language than others. That is, the phonological differences between their mother tongue and second language can be a cause of confusion in acquiring, developing and possessing adequate phonemic awareness of second language because their mother tongue and second language might share phonological similarities. For example, native Japanese speakers have some confusion in perceiving, discriminating and pronouncing English phonemes /ɪ/ and /I/ because these sounds share phonological similarities to the Japanese phoneme /r/. That is, when native Japanese speakers pronounce English phonemes /ɪ/ and /I/, they always map English phonemes /ɪ/ and /I/ to the Japanese phoneme /r/ (Hayes-Harb & Masuda, 2008). Thus, L2 learners might have difficulty in perceiving and developing phonemic awareness, and this difficulty influences language skills acquisition thereafter (Hayes-Harb & Masuda, 2008; Justus, Mahurin, & Robinson, 2011).

In Thailand, some Thai people also have difficulty perceiving, distinguishing, and pronouncing English phonemes because of the phonological differences between Thai and English. These differences affect Thai people in learning and developing English language skills. Many researchers have pointed out that the differences among consonant phonemes between Thai and English affect Thai learners in perceiving and discriminating English consonant phonemes (Brudhiprabha, 1964; Jotikasthira, 1995; Kanokpermpoon, 2007; Sarawit, 1997; Smyth, 2001). For example, Tubtimngam (1997) studied the problems, needs, and techniques for developing the required competencies of English teachers in Education Region 5 of Thailand and found that those teachers had difficulty in discriminating English phonemes from Thai phonemes (Potisompapwong, 2002). In other words, they could not examine and discriminate the similarities and differences between the phonemes of the two languages. In addition, over 91 % percent of teachers in Tubtimngam's study had difficulty in teaching phonemic awareness of English to their students. Additionally, Sripasit (2009) pointed out that Thai students also have problems with acquiring and developing phonemic awareness of English, thereby affecting English language skills acquisition (Ministry of Education [MOE], 2009).

The balanced literacy approach is a method that teaches phonemic awareness to learners and supports them in achieving adequate awareness. It combines whole language approach and phonics to teach skills such as word recognition and identification, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension (Calais, 2008; Dombey, 2002; Donoghue, 2008; Tompkins, 2002). In other words, the balanced literacy approach is a combination of whole language approach and phonics (Cavkaytar et al., 2011). Tompkins (2002) provided seven general characteristics under the balanced literacy approach to teach literacy in classroom. First, literacy involving both reading and writing must be taught to learners at the same period. That is, learners are being read to and reading stories and writing at the same time. Second, literature is at the heart of this approach; therefore, teachers are expected to create a literature-rich environment to reinforce their student's exposure to various books. Third, language arts skills are taught both directly and indirectly. Fourth, reading instruction should involve learning word recognition and identification, vocabulary, and comprehension. Fifth, writing instructions should involve learning to express ideas, using spelling, grammar, and punctuation. Sixth, students utilize reading and writing as tools for learning in the content areas. Finally, the goal of the balanced literacy approach is to develop learners to be good readers and writers.

Consequently, the balanced literacy approach teaches learners to understand the relationship between letters and sounds along with text meaning and comprehension, thereby developing both phonemic awareness and understanding of word meaning. In addition, this approach also represents phonemic awareness, phonics, and word identification skills that balance the reading and writing of literature and other whole texts (Ramirez, 2005). Similarly, the balanced literacy approach may be a better and more selective approach in teaching literacy to learners as it provides them with opportunities to master the concept of print, learn the alphabetic system, acquire word recognition skills, develop phonemic awareness, involve themselves with reading and writing, and also experience a variety of appropriate materials in meaningful contexts (Zygouris-Coe, 2001). In other words, skills and language components are provided in

situations where students can practice them. Notably, the balanced literacy approach also supports student-centered learning and teacher-directed learning, depending on the individual student's needs (Frey, Lee, Massengill, Pass, & Tollefson, 2005).

For this study, the researchers studied the effectiveness of the balanced literacy approach in accelerating phonemic awareness of English among Thai first-grade students and investigated student engagement in learning phonemic awareness through this approach. It was designed to answer the following research questions: (A) do the students improve their phonemic awareness of English after training through the balanced literacy approach? and (B) how are the students engaged in learning phonemic awareness lessons through the balanced literacy approach?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

Purposive sampling was used to select 30 students out of 400 first-grade students in Uttaradit province, Thailand, to participate in this study. Seventeen of them were female and 13 were male. This sample participated in the study for ten weeks. They were identified as having different levels of academic performance: low, moderate, and high.

B. Procedure

The phoneme discrimination tests were used as the pretest, the posttest, and the follow-up test for this study. The participants heard a word from a CD player twice and then identified and selected one answer choice that corresponded to the word. Pretesting was conducted in the first week before training. The pretest was given to evaluate the participants' ability to discriminate English phonemes. The results of the pretest determined the participants' phonemic awareness of English before the training program. After the training, the participants were given the posttest. Two weeks after the posttest, the participants were again given the tests as follow-up. The results of the posttest were compared with the pretest to determine whether the interventions could help the participants to discriminate English phonemes and develop their phonemic awareness of English. Additionally, the results gained from the follow-up test identified the participants' ability to retain and recall information about phonemic awareness from their memories.

TABLE I.
DURATION OF THE STUDY

Period	Activities	Assessment types
First week	Pretest	Test
Second to fifth week	Study the phonemes /f/, /v/	Practice and activities
Sixth to ninth week	Study the phonemes /s/, /z/	Practice and activities
Tenth week	Posttest	Test
Two weeks after the posttest	Follow-up test	Test

C. The Intervention Program Based on the Balanced Literacy Approach

The intervention was divided into two phases: teaching and activities. The teaching process based on the balanced literacy approach focused on teaching the voiceless and voiced labio-dental fricatives (/f/ and /v/) and the voiceless and voiced alveolar fricatives (/s/ and /z/) positioning both of the initial and final consonants. The reason for choosing these four English fricative sounds was because these fricative sounds are problematic for Thai students to perceive, distinguish, and produce. Thus, if learners cannot perceive these sounds correctly, the process of distinguishing and pronouncing becomes more difficult (Brudhiprabha, 1964; Jotikasthira, 1995; Kanokpermpon, 2007; Sarawit, 1997; Smyth, 2001).

At the beginning of each class period, the researchers read entire short stories or sang songs which contained the target sounds and words for the participants. After that, the researchers read or sang each sentence to the participants and then they were requested to repeat the reading or singing after the researchers. Then, the researchers translated the texts into Thai. The researchers showed flash cards with the letters corresponding to the sounds. Next, the researchers played the CD with the sounds corresponding to the letters on the cards three times. The participants were given mirrors and asked to pronounce the sounds. The researchers taught the participants how to pronounce the sounds. The words in the short stories or songs contained the target sounds presented on the flash cards with the pictures. On the flash cards, the target sounds were red, bold-faced, and underlined, while the other letters were black. For example, in the word "fan", the letter f is the target sound. After showing the cards, the researchers played the CD with the recorded words containing the target sounds three times. The participants followed and repeated the CD three times. The participants were given a worksheet with pictures on the right-hand side and words which were written along dotted lines on the left-hand side. The words on a worksheet were taught in each period. The participants wrote the words by joining the dots to form letters and coloring the pictures. After this writing practice, the participants played phonemic awareness activities.

Additionally, the researchers used activities to encourage participants to enjoy the class. The six activities administered in enhancing participants' phonemic awareness were as follows.

Sound Identification: in this activity, the researchers asked participants to answer questions that aimed to help participants detect sounds. For example, what was the first sound you heard in the word...? Or what was the final sound you heard in the word...? To answer these questions, the participants pronounced the sounds which they heard.

Same or Different: this activity supported participants in identifying and grouping phonemes as the same phoneme. The researchers pronounced two or three words and asked the participants to listen to the sounds of the words. After that, the researchers asked the participants whether those sounds which they heard were the same or different and they subsequently answered.

Fun with Sound Boxes: this activity was adapted from Elkonin Box, a type of instruction that teaches phonemic awareness by having students listen for individual sounds and marking where they heard them in the boxes. Each box on an Elkonin box card represents one phoneme or sound (Eldredge, 1995). The researchers gave a flash card prepared with a picture at the top of the card to the participants. Below the picture were squares for each phoneme. To practice the target sound, the square box for the target sound was left blank, while the other boxes were already filled in. Therefore, the participants needed to fill in the blank with the letter or letters to make a word.

Finding Graphemes: the researchers provided participants with pages from English books, newspapers, and magazines. The researchers pronounced sounds, and then the participants had to find and cut out the letters corresponding to the sounds in the books, newspapers and magazines provided.

Who am I?: the participants were provided with two cards. The first card had printed letters at the top of the right-hand corner of the card with a picture of animal, object, or place at the center of the card. The other card without a picture had a printed letter at the top left-hand corner. Then, the participants had to place these cards together to form a word.

Crossword: a crossword is a word puzzle that normally takes the form of a square or a rectangular grid of white and shaded squares. The goal is to fill the white squares with letters, forming words or phrases, by solving clues which lead to the answers. The participants needed to complete a crossword by filling in letters that fitted each clue.

D. Observation Form

Video recording was used to observe student engagement while being taught phonemic awareness. Observation form was used to evaluate student engagement during class instruction, and the following characteristics were used an observation rubric to determine the engagement of students during class instruction: (a) eye contact, (b) behavior, (c) preparation, (d) listening, questioning, and discussing, (e) following directions, and (f) student confidence. Additionally, field notes were created by the researchers to remember and record student behavior in learning phonemic awareness. The data obtained from the video recording and field notes described how the students were engaged in learning phonemic awareness.

E. Data Analysis

A quantitative statistical analysis that focused on the development of the phonemic awareness of English was used to analyze the data. The data in this study were analyzed according to the research questions. The scores or data obtained were collected from the pretest, posttest, and follow-up test and analyzed by using mean and standard deviation. MANOVA was also used to find out whether there were significant differences between the scores gained from the pretest, posttest, and follow-up test. The qualitative data were derived from the analysis of the video recordings and field notes during the classroom teaching. The researchers used an observation rubric to determine the engagement of students during class instruction: (a) eye contact, (b) behavior, (c) preparation, (d) listening, questioning, and discussing, (e) following directions, and (f) student confidence. The qualitative data provided information about student engagement in learning phonemic awareness.

III. RESULTS

A. Quantitative Results

The results in terms of the initial consonant tests revealed that the mean score in the posttest was 13.20, with standard deviation of 1.37, and the mean follow-up test score was 12.93, with a standard deviation of 1.48 , whereas the mean pretest score was with $M = 8.37$ with $SD = 1.96$.

Students had scores in the posttest for the final consonant sounds with $M = 12.20$ and $SD = 1.58$ and also had scores in the follow-up test with $M = 12.03$ and $SD = 1.73$, compared to the mean pretest score ($M = 7.13$, $SD = 2.21$). Table 2 presents the total scores of the initial and the final consonant tests.

TABLE II.
THE MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION FROM
THE MEASURES OF PHONEMIC AWARENESS

Variables	Period	M	SD
Initial	Pretest	8.37	1.96
	Posttest	13.20	1.37
	Follow-up test	12.93	1.48
Final	Pretest	7.13	2.21
	Posttest	12.20	1.58
	Follow-up test	12.03	1.73

With regard to the scores from the initial consonant tests, the posttest score was higher than the pretest at the .01 significance level (difference in scores = 4.83, SE = .23, $p < .001$). Similarly, the follow-up score was also higher than the pretest at the .01 level of significance (difference in scores = 4.56, SE = .25, $p < .001$). When comparing the posttest and the follow-up test score, it was found that the follow-up test score was lower than the posttest at the .05 significance level as shown in Table III.

TABLE III.
MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF
THE INITIAL CONSONANTS OVER TIME

Time	M	Pretest	Posttest	Follow-up
Pretest	8.37		4.83**	4.56**
Posttest	13.20			-.27*
Follow-up	12.93			

Note. * $p < .05$.
** $p < .01$.

The results of the final consonant tests revealed that the posttest score was higher than the pretest at the .01 significance level. Additionally, it was found that the follow-up test score was statistically higher than the pretest at the .01 significance level. Analysis of the posttest and the follow-up test scores revealed that there were no significant differences between the posttest and the follow-up test scores as presented in Table IV.

TABLE IV.
MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF
THE FINAL CONSONANTS OVER TIME

Time	M	Pretest	Posttest	Follow-up
Pretest	7.13		5.07**	4.90**
Posttest	12.20			-.17
Follow-up	12.93			

Note. ** $p < .01$.

In order to better understand the scores from the initial and final consonant tests gained from the participants, the following graph is plotted in Figure 1.

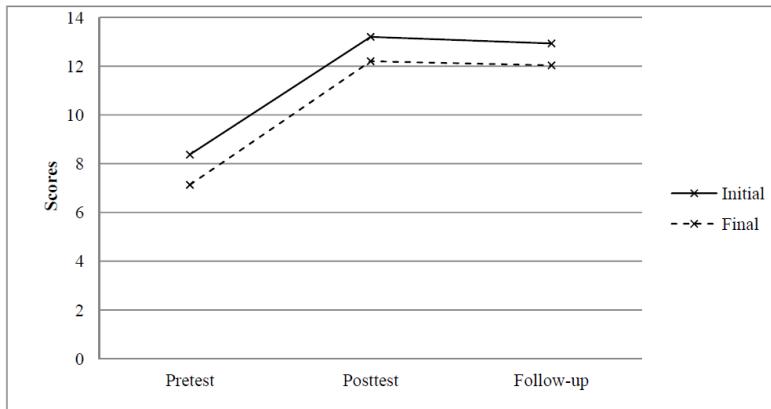


Figure 1. The pretest, posttest and follow-up scores for the Initial and final consonant tests

B. Qualitative Results

Video recording and field notes were used to record the participants' engagement and responses while being taught phonemic awareness.

Over the eight weeks of phonemic awareness training, observation data were collected and analyzed to assess the teaching approach. Students were also observed each time to obtain information about their behavior during training. Video recording and field notes were used to obtain information about students' responses. Students were defined as "engaged" during each teaching period if the researchers judged that they responded appropriately to the researchers'

instructions during the entire period. Conversely, students were identified as “not engaged” if they responded inappropriately to the researchers’ instructions.

The researchers used the following characteristics to determine the engagement of a student during class instruction: (a) eye contact, (b) behavior, (c) preparation, (d) listening, questioning, and discussing, (e) following directions, and (f) student confidence.

After analyzing observation data, it was found that the students taught using the balanced literacy approach were apparently engaged in learning phonemic awareness. That is, during class the students always paid attention and kept their attention on the researchers with direct eye contact as well as focusing on learning activities. Additionally, the students often demonstrated positive behaviors. In other words, they rarely displayed disruptive behaviors or distracted their peers from the learning process. While the researchers were teaching, the students also respectfully listened. Furthermore, they usually expressed their opinions, discussed with their peers to find out the answers, and also helped their peers in solving problems when participating in team-based work.

In addition, they could ask questions which were appropriate and related to the learning contents. The researchers also found that the students under the balanced literacy approach could follow classroom procedures; they appropriately followed and responded to the researchers’ instructions without hesitation. In addition, the students usually prepared themselves for assignments; they always promptly worked on activities as assigned and requested by the researchers. That is, they exhibited interest and enthusiasm while working on their assignments in order to complete them before the end of class each time. Finally, the students showed that they had confidence to ask questions and complete the assigned tasks; they could generate questions with minimum assistance from the researchers.

IV. DISCUSSION

This study clarifies the effects of the balanced literacy approach toward students’ abilities in enhancing their phonemic awareness of English and it also provides information about student engagement in learning phonemic awareness lessons using the balanced literacy approach. According to the first question, the students using the balanced literacy could develop their phonemic awareness of English over the training period. They showed improvement in performances on phonemic awareness in the posttest, both for the initial and final consonant sounds. In other words, they attained higher scores in phonemic awareness in the posttest compared to the pretest. Similarly, they also showed that they understood phonemic awareness and performed better in the follow-up test, both for the initial and final consonants. That is, they obtained better scores in the follow-up test. This was because the balanced literacy approach supported students in practicing phonemic awareness of English so that they could develop it successfully.

The reason that the students under the balanced literacy approach could develop their phonemic awareness was that the method exposed students to the concept of print, the alphabetic system, and word recognition and also developed their phonemic awareness, got them involved with reading and writing, and provided them with experiences for learning in meaningful contexts (Zygouris-Coe, 2001). In the learning process, the researchers exposed the students to letter-sound correspondence embedded in the learning content such as in books, short stories, and songs. This supported the students to understand and practice their phonemic awareness of English in order that they could enhance it.

In addition, the results of the present study were also consistent with O’Day (2009), whose study reported on the effectiveness of the balanced literacy approach towards literacy instructional practices for English learners and non-English learners. Her results revealed that the balanced literacy approach was effective in developing the phonemic awareness of both English learners and non-English learners and this approach also supported them in achieving learning literacy. The results revealed that the students instructed under the balanced literacy approach enhanced their phonemic awareness and also tended to advance their literacy skills. After the training period, the teachers informed the researcher that the students could read and write words faster than those who did not participate in the current study. In addition, they were also able to detect sounds better and faster. When they detected the sounds, they could match them upon hearing to the letters.

The second question concerned the qualitative data. The question was how the students were engaged in learning phonemic awareness lesson through the balanced literacy approach. According to the results of this study, the students were engaged with the learning process and participated actively in activities. The results were consistent with the research of Cawkaytar et al. (2011), in which various activities based on the balanced literacy approach encouraged students to be involved in class. The researchers observed that the students taught using this method in the current study were always excited to learn when the researchers introduced new stories and games to them. In essence, they were eager to know what the researchers would teach them in each period. In addition, the findings of the present study revealed that the students respectfully listened, discussed, and helped their peers to solve problems when working as a team. This supported them in practicing their communication skills; they were enthusiastic to discuss with their friends in order to answer questions. The results were consistent with the study constructed by O’Day (2009), in which students could take advantage of engaging in conversation and discussion in literacy, which provided practice for oral language development in a meaningful communication context.

In addition, most of the students under the balanced literacy approach responded to the researchers’ instructions without hesitation. This might be due to the fact that the balanced literacy approach also supported student-centered learning and teacher-directed learning, depending on the individual student’s needs (Frey, Lee, Massengill, Pass, &

Tollefson, 2005). In the current study, the researchers observed that the students were more relaxed when learning phonemic awareness as the researchers did not force them to engage in their activities without their willingness. Moreover, they also had the opportunity to choose the activities which they liked to learn through and do most.

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A Critical Discourse Analysis of Political News Reports

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Abstract—News reports are considered as the reflection of world reality. People all over the world watch news reports to get the information they need. Languages in the news reports are naturally thought to be neutral and unbiased. This paper will conduct a critical analysis of the political news reports on Iraq war by American media. Fairclough's three dimensional frameworks and Halliday's functional grammar will be employed to do the research, in which linguistic features, news production and social contexts are explored. However, the result of the analysis in this paper tells us that, against the traditional views, languages in the news report are never biased-free. They are branded by the social values and different ideology. As a result, it is advised to increase the cultural awareness for the new readers.

Index Terms—political news discourse, Iraq war, three-dimensional framework, functional grammar

I. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THIS PAPER

A. Discourse Analysis

There are many definitions of discourse analysis in literature. Discourse is defined as connected texts as opposed to isolated sentences. Thus discourse analysis refers to a study of large linguistic units, such as conversational exchanges or written texts. Discourse analysis, in this sense is the analysis of language in use (Brown and Yule, 1983). However, in a wider sense, the task of the discourse analysts is not only to describe the textural features of the texts but also to deal with the relationship between discourse and reality. A comprehensive process of discourse analysis should include not only texts, but the social and institutional contexts in which they are produced. In this paper, we hold the critical view. That is a 'process' view which regards discourse as a social practice, a whole process of production, distribution and consumption and discourse analysis as dynamic process.

B. Theoretical Framework

The sample analysis in this paper will be based on Fairclough's three-dimensional framework and the linguistic instrument it bases on: Halliday's functional grammar.

Fairclough sees language and discourse as social practice. He suggests that critical analysts should commit not just to analyzing the texts, nor just to analyzing processes of production and interpretation, but to analyzing the relationship between texts, processes and their social conditions, both the immediate conditions of the situational context and the more remote conditions of institutional and social structures. (Fairclough, 1989) Fairclough divides discourse into three dimensions: texts, interactions and contexts. As for news discourse, texts refer to the news reports we read in newspapers--the words-on-page. Interactions involve the production and consumption of news reports and contexts refer to the background of the events reported, the situational and social reality. Corresponding to the three dimensions of discourse, Fairclough proposes a stepwise procedure in conducting critical discourse analysis:

Description is the stage which is concerned with formal properties of the text---properties of vocabulary, grammar, textual structures, etc. In conducting a critical study of news discourse, this stage will deal with the linguistic features of the news reports drawing upon the analytical instruments in functional grammar.

Interpretation is concerned with the relationship between text and interaction. In news discourse, the interpretation stage will deal with the intertextual phenomena of news production from the perspective of news sources, speech reporting, etc.

Explanation is concerned with the relationship between interaction and the social context---with the focus on social determination of the processes of production and interpretation, and their social effects. As for news discourse, the hidden ideology as well as its relationship with language use is unmasked finally at this stage.

II. SAMPLE ANALYSIS

A. Overview

Following the three-dimensional framework and the analytical tools of functional grammar elaborated above, a study of political news discourse will be conducted to specific news items in this section. The news is collected from the most influential media in the United States of America, to be specific, *New York Times*. The news covers stories on the war in Iraq.

B. Linguistic Features of the News Report

1. Transitivity

Transitivity is of ideological significance. The following figure gives us a clear idea of the frequency of each process type that is employed in the sample news report.

FIG.1 DISTRIBUTION OF PROCESS TYPES IN THE SAMPLE NEWS REPORT			
Material Process	Relational Process	Verbal Process	Mental Process
67%	16%	11%	2%

From the above figure, we can find that material processes occupy the most prominent position in this news report. According to Halliday, material processes are processes of 'doing'. They express the notion that some entity 'does' something---which may be done 'to' some other entity. Since new discourse concentrate on reporting what happened or is happening, the language in news discourse thus inevitably involve telling about a series of actions. And the reporting on any event can not be a vacuum of material processes.

E.g. 'In Baghdad, Free of Hussein, a Day of Mayhem', is news story on the situation in Baghdad after the overturn of Saddam's reign on April 9, 2003. 67% of the processes are the material. What should be noted is that, the agent positions of these material processes are sharply grouped into two sides: one stands for the American troops or Bush administration and another is the Iraqi city or the citizens. And in the case of the American side as the agent, the Iraqi side often takes the role of goal or patient, and vice versa. For example:

- A. American troops cleared wide swaths of the capital of Iraqi force today
- B. The State Department...would send 26 police and judicial officers to Iraq...
- C. But the city was the scene of frenzied rounds of looting, with mobs setting fire to government ministries and moving for the first to ransack private homes rather than merely the symbols of Mr.Hussein's power.
- D. The mayhem clearly put pressure on American military commanders supervising the occupation...

The contrast provides to the news reader with a vivid picture of the two sides: the victory of the American forces and the collapse of the Iraq. The American side takes the role of the agent, it is doing something: it is doing something as the liberator of Iraq and the people in Iraq. At the same time, the Iraqi side is also doing something: it is being destroyed, suffering from collapsing and looting, it is described as a patient waiting for medical treatment by some skillful doctor. And the American side naturally claims to be the 'doctor'. From the above analysis, material processes contribute to the construct of the roles of the two sides. It is reasonable to say that this news report stresses the post-war Iraq and the miserable picture of the attacks. The American side looks like the liberator of Iraqi people. They suffer from the attacks of Saddam's forces and still go on fighting for the peace and safety of Iraq. On the contrary, Saddam Hussein looks like a tyrant who oppressed people in Iraq and is hated by the people for years. In this way, the media contributes to get the sympathy of the masses in America as well as the other countries and gain their support to the war.

To sum up, transitivity means choice. Which types of processes are employed depend on the assumptions and beliefs of the reporter. Language, in this sense can contribute to construct as well as reflect reality.

2. Transformation

Nominalization is one type of transformations. Nominalization and the use of nouns for actions are endemic in political news reports. Here are two examples from the sample news report:

- (1) "...the city's hospital's today received more casualties from *rioting* and *looting* than from the war."
- (2) The mayhem clearly put pressure on American military commanders supervising the *occupation* to begin changing a war-fighting *operation* into one that keeps order and peace.

In the above examples, the nominal forms are derived from verbs or adjectives. Apparently, much information goes unexpressed in a nominal form compared with a full clause. At the same time, nominalization helps to weaken the sense of action and impersonalize the processes. Thus the media try to look as unbiased as possible.

3. Classification

Classification refers to the naming and representing of people and events. It is mainly realized through the choice of vocabulary. Different means of naming reflect the reporter's attitude towards the person being referred to and inevitably produce different impression on the readers.

The repeatedly use of the tow words 'we' and 'he' shows the opposition: the intimacy of the American government with its people and the distance or hatred between the Americans, the 'people' and Saddam Hussein. Once more, the media impose an impression on the readers that Saddam Hussein is the enemy. Another means of classification is realized by the adjectives. When describing the 'caught' of Saddam Hussein, unfavorable adjectives are employed. However, the image of the American forces looks like very favorable described by such words as 'friendly' and 'liberator'.

To sum up, language is never neutral. It represents a world as perceived by the ideological needs of certain groups of people and constructs a 'created' reality. In the news report we analyze, the media create quite different images for Saddam Hussein and the American forces by choice of vocabulary. A sharp contrast is made between the two sides in the war.

4. Modality

Modality is a tool of expressing the ‘attitude’ or ‘comment’ of the speaker or writer. It is through modality that the news reports express their recognition with the statements of others or present their comments on the event or the people involved. Thus, modality works as a bridge between the media and the historical backgrounds. In the sample report, high affinity is entrusted while stating the American’s determination and confidence in arresting Saddam Hussein and fighting the war. This can be illustrated by the frequent use of ‘would’ in the report. However, when describing the post-war situation in Iraq, the reporter employs the low affinity modality. For example, ‘appear’ and ‘seem’ are frequently used. In doing so, the reporter imposes on readers an impression that Iraq is a disaster and the United States is the very ‘liberator’ who will save Iraqi people from the disturb.

C. Interpretation of the Sample News

At this stage, the news will be regarded as an animate process. A news reporter has a lot of choices to convey a particular position or attitude towards the event being reported. He may decide whose speech is to be quoted. He may quote the speech directly or indirectly. He may choose which mode of speech reporting is employed and whether the news sources are identified specifically or not. Any choice can transmit certain ideological meanings of the reporter and thus influence the readers intentionally unintentionally. The sample news highlights the voices of the American side and creates a positive image for Bush administration and a negative image of Saddam Hussein. This is a result and a reflection of the ideology.

D. Explanation of the Sample News Report

Explanation is the last stage to analyze this news report. Through the above analysis, we know that news reporting is not self-sufficient. It rests on the bearing with the political and governmental institutions. As for this news, it is shaped by the social structures of its nation and meanwhile reproduces and reinforces the social structures. We can see that the production of this political news discourse rests on the social and cultural settings and it is the mirror of the social structures. The political news discourse is a bridge between the masses and the authority.

III. CONCLUSION

This news report is analyzed by Fairclough’s three-dimension framework and Halliday’s functional grammar. This study ranges from the micro scope---linguistic features, to the macro scope---social and cultural settings. The reporter employs various linguistic tools to set up quite different images for the American side and the Iraqi side. Reading through the news report, a defeated Saddam Hussein and a righteous troop of the United States are imposed on mind. The reports help to criticize Saddam, win support and finally justify the war. It should be pointed out that the reporter may achieve these effects unintentionally. It is the hidden ideology that guides the reporter to write for the United States. His language use inevitably reflects his distinctive attitudes towards the two sides.

The three-stage analysis reveals that language and ideology is mutually determined. The language in news discourse is by no means neutral. The American media report the war in Iraq for the interests of their own nation. The analysis of this news report shows us that critical analysis is of great significance in assisting news readers not only to achieve a better understanding of what they are reading but to learn more about the social and cultural background. Critical analysis will help news readers to increase critical sensitivity and awareness.

APPENDIX. (SAMPLE NEWS REPORT FROM NEW YORK TIMES)

In Baghdad, Free of Hussein, a Day of Mayhem

By DEXTER FILKINS

New York Times

AGHDAD, April 11 American troops cleared wide swaths of the capital of Iraqi forces today, but seemed powerless before a fresh wave of looting and mayhem that flowed in to take their place.

A week after American troops entered the city for the first time, large unbroken stretches of Baghdad’s urban center, on both sides of the Tigris River, seemed free of the bands of Saddam Hussein loyalists who have been harassing American forces for the last seven days.

But the city was the scene of frenzied rounds of looting, with mobs setting fire to government ministries and moving for the first to ransack private homes rather than merely the symbols of Mr. Hussein’s power.

With virtually every government ministry here in flames, the city of Badhdad and indeed the entire country is now operating essentially without a government, with no services or police protection.

The Bush administration appeared to have little prepared in the way of a quick response. Defense Secretary Donald H. Rumsfeld said in Washington “You cannot do everything instantaneously.” He added: “It’s untidy. And freedom’s untidy. And free people are free to make mistake and commit crimes.”

The State Department said it would send 26 police and judicial officers to Iraq as the advance team for what might eventually be a contingent of more than 1,150 people to help restore law and order. They will be part of a group led by Lt.Gen. Jay Garner, the retired general chosen by the Bush administration to run the initial Iraqi civil administration under American occupation.

In Baghdad, military officials said American troops would try to ensure that religious centers remained open and that

public services functioned.

American officers said they had begun enlisting local Iraqi officials to help rebuild police forces as fast as possible. But with hospitals being ransacked and many people still wary of going onto the streets, any resumption of normal life and service appeared remote.

Whole city blocks were descended upon by greedy mobs today, with some people backing trucks into offices and department stores to fill them with stolen merchandise.

Gun battles broke out between packs of looters and defenders of their property, and the city's hospital's today received more casualties from rioting and looting than from the war.

Most of the city was still without electricity or fresh water, and with almost every shop still shuttered, Baghdad residents have begun to worry that shortages are reaching a critical point.

The mayhem clearly put pressure on American military commanders supervising the occupation to begin changing a war-fighting operation into one that keeps order and peace. But the fact is the war is not over. Recent days have been marked by suicide bombings against American troops, by the continuing manhunt for senior members of the Mr. Hussein's leadership, and by preparations for a military strike against Mr. Hussein's hometown of Tikrit, about 110 miles north of here.

The military's first priority to crush Mr. Hussein's government appears to be proceeding apace, and the good will so much in evidence here over the last several days has not dissipated yet, although it is by no means uniform.

But the widespread anarchy that followed the first moments of liberty here this week has become a central problem for American soldiers and marines, who constitute the only visible presence of any form of order.

The mayhem gave rise today to signs of widespread Iraqi anger over the direction of the American enterprise here.

But there were also distinct signs of progress. Large tracts of the city appeared to be clear of both civil disturbance and enemy activity. A 10-mile-long strip of the urban core, running along the Tigris River, appeared calm today for the first time since Mr. Hussein's government fell.

The five main bridges linking the two sides of the city over the Tigris were opened today, allowing traffic to flow freely. In some neighborhoods, American tanks that had parked on the street corners have simply moved out, so certain are the soldiers that enemy is gone.

Indeed, the Americans felt so secure in some areas that they sent their troops for some secondary, if emotionally satisfying, pursuits.

At the Rashid Hotel, where many foreign journalists visiting Mr. Hussein's Iraq were required to stay, American troops were sent to break up a tile mosaic of the first President Bush on the floor of the lobby. Until the mosaic was destroyed today, the likeness of Mr. Bush was stepped on dozens of times a day.

There were also glimpses that the banishment of pro-Hussein forces from parts of the city was being sustained by Iraqis themselves.

In Arasat, an upscale area of boutiques and restaurants, pedestrians were seen shouting at fedayeen fighters who had rumbled into the area on a battered old bus. Some of the residents tried to pull the armed men off the bus, and others tried to force the bus to turn into the line of fire of an M-1 Abrams tank parked up the road. The busload of fighters dashed down a side street, fleeing the angry Iraqis.

"These people couldn't be more friendly," said Lt. John R. Colombero, a marine on patrol in a downtown neighborhood today. Asked for evidence, he flourished a freshly picked wildflower that had been stuck into the front of his Kevlar vest by an effusive local.

"See that?" he asked.

In fact, when Lieutenant Colombero's company blew up an Iraqi ammunition cache, rattling homes for blocks, the neighbors came out into the street to complain. But the very quaintness of the complaint and excessive noise in a residential area seemed a measure of how far the American forces had come.

In neighborhoods across the city, however, the order and peace disintegrated as the last of Mr. Hussein's forces were swept away.

Two more government agencies, the Information Ministry and the Higher Education Ministry, were set afire today by mobs. The Mansur Hotel, a downtown landmark, was also torched. Before the Americans arrived, the Rashid Hotel was ransacked by looters, who virtually emptied the huge structure of its every chair, lamp and light bulb.

Some of the most frenzied looting of the day unfolded at the Sajida Palace, a grandiose structure even by the gaudy standards of the Iraqi president. There, a huge crowd of looters carted out nearly every piece of furniture and adornment that could be lifted or torn from the walls. Whole families worked together, carrying out gilded 18th century-style chairs, wall friezes, beds and tableware.

The looters included not only the usual throng from the city's poorer precincts, but the professional class as well.

"I don't feel any guilt at all," said a pharmacist, who came with her husband, an obstetrician, and two children, to help themselves to brocade sofas and heaps of Wedgwood. "I paid for these a thousand times."

Mr. Hussein's palace, completed in 1999, was constructed on the site of the palace of King Faisal, Iraq's first monarch, who met a violent end when he was overthrown in 1958. Then, the building was called "The Palace of the End," and as the measure of Mr. Hussein's excesses were carted into the streets, that title seemed to have a special irony today.

The looters surged through the city's streets. Having hit every other hospital on the block, a mob came to Al Wasyet Hospital, and began banging on the door. One of the doctors, a soft-spoken and overworked man named Yasir mousawi, pulled a Kalashnikov rifle from a supply closet and fired a single shot into the air. The crowd dispersed.

For the most part, the Americans seemed incapable of controlling the crowds. On the streets where American soldiers worked, the scene was invariably quiet. Faced with a potential calamity, they acted with dispatch. When a gang of looters began to cart away rocket-propelled grenades from an armory at the Ministry of Planning today, American soldiers moved quickly to disperse the crowd. But there were far too few American soldiers moved quickly to disperse the crowd. But there were far too few American soldiers to make a difference in most neighborhoods.

That failure began to provoke anger among many middle-class Iraqis who did not take part in the looting but who feel defenseless against it. At the Ani Mosque today, a group of men confronted an American reporter, angrily denouncing the Bush administration for destroying the city's public administration and doing little to replace it.

"We have no security here," said Hamid Adel Mustaf, the imam. "Listen to the gunfire outside. We cannot even pray in our mosque without hearing the gunfire in the streets."

Another man, Nabil Abed, said, "This is what America has brought us: looting and destruction."

There was evidence today that the American forces were preparing to move more quickly away from fighting and toward occupation and administration. Maj. Paul Konopka, a civil affairs official with the Marines, said he planned to meet soon with religious leaders in the city about problems of electricity, looting and the maintenance of civil order.

Major Konopka said much of the looting was taking place was carried out by people "expressing their dislike of the old regime," but he suggested that the emotion had been taken too far. "There is a fine line between being comfortable with freedom, and chaos," he said.

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KWL-Plus Effectiveness on Improving Reading Comprehension of Tenth Graders of Jordanian Male Students

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Abstract—The main purpose of the study is to examine the effectiveness of the KWL-Plus strategy on the performance of the Jordanian Tenth Grade male students in reading comprehension. To achieve this aim, the sample of the study was selected from a private school and a public school. They participants were divided into an experiment group and a control group. All the public school students represented the experimental group. Whereas, the private school students represented the control group. The experimental group was taught reading with the KWL-Plus strategy, while the control group was taught with the conventional reading strategies. To collect the data, pre and post reading comprehension tests were administered. The pre-test was conducted prior to the application of the strategy, and the post-test was given to the students in the two groups after the application of the strategy. Data were analyzed by using mean scores, standard deviation, t-test and covariance. The findings indicated that the experimental group of the public school scored higher on the reading comprehension post-tests than their peers did in the control group. The researcher concluded that the strategy was effective in improving the reading comprehension performance and recommended that the strategy should be integrated into the English curriculum of the Jordanian schools.

Index Terms—KWL-plus, reading strategies, reading comprehension

I. BACKGROUND

Researchers, Johnson, Symons, McGoldrick, and Kurita (1989) indicated reading comprehension strategies were neglected as a formal component of schools curriculum until the 1970s. Since then, the significance of reading comprehension strategies has been realized by many research studies. Short& Ryan (1984), Rosenshine, Meister, and Chapman (1996) have indicated that students employing reading strategies in their reading classrooms are more capable to understand reading texts than students who do not apply reading strategies.

English language teaching in Jordan has changed significantly in the last 25 years, in terms of content, pedagogy, assessment, and achieved learning outcomes. Obaidat (1997) pointed out that English education in Jordan is instrumental. It is meant to enhance better cooperation and communication between Jordan the international community.

English education is in Jordan at public and private schools starts as early as the first grade when children are at the age of six, and it continues up to grade twelve when students reach the age of 18. Al-Jamal (2007) indicated that Jordan Ministry of Education has worked tediously on improving English education. It has started to call for integrating new methodologies and instructional techniques for the four English language skills, particularly, employing new reading strategies that give learners many opportunities for discussion, participation and writing about what they have learned from reading texts.

The current study introduces the KWL-Plus as a new meta-cognitive reading strategy to the Jordanian schools educational context. The researcher has found that through an open survey distributed to 100 English teachers who teach seven through ten grades in 50 private and 50 public schools that none of them is familiar with the KWL-Plus strategy. The survey has one open question requesting the teachers to list all the reading strategies they apply in their reading classrooms of the English language. Accordingly, the researcher realized that the Jordanian teachers of English needed to be introduced to new reading strategies that contribute to better English education in Jordan.

II. INTRODUCTION

A. KWL-plus as Related to Reading Comprehension

Several studies about teaching reading strategies have been conducted. Reading comprehension involves more than decoding written words, rather than it is a complex process of interpreting text meaning (Pearson and Duke, 2002). Researchers indicated that new reading strategies were necessary to prepare proficient readers and to provide them with opportunities of success in their reading lessons and other school subject areas. (Davis & Winek, 1989) & (Weisberg, 1988).

Research indicates that using effective reading strategies work effectively towards enhancing reading comprehension by using meta-cognitive strategies (Trabasso, Bouchard, 2000). It is evident that students who use proper reading strategies become efficient readers (Pressley, Johnson, Symons, McGoldrick, and Kurita, 1989; Short, Ryan, 1984).

Tracey and Morrow (2002) point out good readers who use meta-cognitive reading strategies before, during, and after reading can monitor better reading skills such as understanding and making predictions as they read. They are also more capable to summarize after they read.

The KWL Plus strategy is one of the meta-cognitive strategies intended to provide students with better opportunities of comprehending reading texts. Pressley (2000) suggests that proficient readers use appropriate comprehension techniques. Tracey and Morrow (2002) along with Pearson and Duke (2002) maintain that comprehension is a skill that enhances other language arts components such as decoding meaning, vocabulary development and spelling acquisition.

KWL-Plus as presented by Ogle (1987) is one of the reading meta-cognitive strategies that prompt the reader to think critically while interacting with the reading text.

The strategy has set of procedures to be used in English classrooms of reading. Teachers of English can use it with a group of students. First, the teacher introduces the reading lesson through a set of questions that help the students activate their prior knowledge of the present text. Second, the teacher prompts the students to write a few sentences about what they expect to learn about the text. Next, the teacher asks the students to read the text. Finally, the teacher requests the students to map the related ideas they learned from the text on specially designated worksheets. The main ideas can be turned into a writing task by summarizing the information they have already mapped in the previous activity. Thus, the teacher can assess the students' comprehension output from what they have already written about the target text.

The KWL-Plus strategy initially was introduced with three letters that represent the strategy main components. The first letter, "K" stands for "What I KNOW", "W" stands for "What I NEED to Learn", and finally the letter "L" stands for what I LEARNED. The "K", the first component, is an excellent way to activate the prior knowledge of readers. It raises student's awareness of the target text. Thus, students begin to make connections between their prior knowledge and newly acquired information. (Ogle, 1987). Ogle, finally, added the fourth component with the word "Plus" to include the writing skill by mapping the information and summarizing the text. Writing a review of the mapped information represented in the "Plus" component involves the students in writing a summary in their own language of the text. The "PLUS" engages readers in constructing meaning from text and helps them to become independent readers.

B. Research Problem

The researcher has noticed that Jordanian English teachers use almost one set of reading strategies among which no meta-cognitive strategies as KWL-Plus was used. In an open survey (Appendix 1) of a pilot study conducted on 70 teachers of English in 10 Jordanian public schools and 10 private schools teaching grades seven through ten, the researcher asked the English teachers to list down all the reading strategies they use with their students. He found that none of them listed KWL-Plus.

This study examines the effect of the meta-cognitive strategy, the KWL-PLUS, on improving reading comprehension of Tenth Graders of Jordanian students. It aims at improving tenth graders' abilities to construct meaning from text.

C. Research Questions

The study begins with the hypothesis that students' reading level at the same grade level, and the same school genre, would make the same general types of reading comprehension problems and that these problems would disappear or become negligible as KWL-Plus strategy is applied in reading classrooms.

More specifically, the study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. Are there any statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups of the tenth graders in the public and private schools on the reading comprehension pre-test before using the KWL-Plus strategy?
2. Are there any statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups of the tenth graders in the public and private schools on the reading comprehension post-test after using the KWL-Plus strategy?
3. Does the KWL-Plus strategy have any effects on improving Jordanian students' reading comprehension performance in the experimental group?

D. Significance of the Study

The study is significant for the following reasons. First, at a theoretical level, the results will contribute to the cumulative body of research based on the theory of the relationship between reading development and other literacy skills such as writing. Second, this study suggests instructional implications and strategies for Jordanian teachers who teach English as a second language. Second, at a more general level, the results of the study will help to identify reading problems at each school types (public and private) and will reveal whether students at public schools possess the same reading abilities that their peers at private schools have.

Finally, the introduction of this new strategy is congruent with the Ministry of Education demands. The ministry has been working hard for the last 10 years on reforming education. It calls for the introduction of new methodologies and instructional techniques (Obaidat, 1997).

III. RELATED LITERATURE

Roozkhon1 et. al (20013) designed a study on an experimental and a control group of Persian students to examine the effects of using KWL strategy on their comprehension of culturally unfamiliar English texts. The experimental group was treated with the KWL strategy for the reading classes, and the control group was introduced to the reading sessions in a traditional way. The researcher concluded that the KWL strategy did not have any significant effect on the reading comprehension performance of the two.

Smaikomusk (2012) conducted a study with the purposes to investigate the effect of the KWL-plus technique on grade 9 students' reading comprehension. Data analysis revealed there were no significant difference between the overall mean scores of students' pre- and post- reading comprehension tests. However, he students' opinions toward using this technique showed that they were satisfied with KWL-plus technique.

Fengjuan (2010) conducted a study on 80 university students majoring not in English to examine how the KWL strategy can be used by ELT for non-majors. Based on the findings of the study, the researcher indicated the KWL strategy had improved both the reading comprehension and the writing performance of the experimental group.

Sasson (2008) employed the KWL strategy to help struggling readers. The results brought evidence that the strategy helped the learners to become strategic readers.

Szabo (2007) used the KWL strategy to help struggling readers improve their understanding of the topics being studied. The results revealed that even students with autism, KWL strategies could make reading more accessible and fun in their classroom.

Casey (2009), with the presentation of reading activities through the KWL strategy, found out that the learners improved their ability in grasping meaning.

Glazer, (1999) aimed to use the KWL strategy to develop the skills of reading comprehension and reports writing of ninth-grade students. The researcher concluded that the ninth-grade students have developed not only the skills of understanding and comprehension of the texts in the target books, but also have developed their report writing skills.

Jared, (1993) used the (KWL-Plus) strategy it examine if it can significantly improve the sixth grade students understanding of the transportation system. The researcher concluded that the improved KWL-Plus strategy improved the students' reading comprehension of the transportation system, and it contributed to the introduction of the writing skill, particularly in the fourth column.

Mandeville (1994) provided a new model of (KWL) strategy by adding a fourth column to make this strategy (KWL.A). "A" in the fourth column means (Affective) and asking "Affective Questions" that probe fifth grade students' interest in reading and improve their reading compression skills. The researcher concluded students' understanding and knowledge of the reading text have significantly grown.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The population was all the tenth graders of Jordanian public and private schools for boys. The sample was 50 tenth grade students (25 students from each school). Both the public school named "Al-Omarieh" and the private school named "Philadelphia -International" belong to the same educational zone in the city of Amman-Jordan. Both the public school and the private school draw their students from the local urban community of the city of Amman. The public school uses both an English and Arabic curriculum, while the private international school uses mainly the English curriculum for all school subjects. All the subjects were native speakers of Arabic.

The classes were chosen on availability rather than random selection since the two schools included only one classroom in grade ten.

The age of participants was taken into account to make sure that age, as a confounding factor, is controlled and would not affect the reading efficiency level of the two groups. The participant's gender is also controlled as a confounding factor since all of the subjects of the study belonged to two schools for boys. By accessing the records of the study participants at the registration office of each school, the researcher found that age average was about 16 years.

The researcher also wanted to make sure that the two groups in each school were almost equivalent in their reading proficiency level prior to the application of the reading strategy. The researcher accessed the students' grade records, and it turned out that all subjects in the two groups received "Grade One" implying that the study participants mastered all the basic reading skills.

B. Material

Two non-seen reading comprehension texts were chosen for the study tests; one was for the pre-test (Appendix 2), and the other one was for the post- test (Appendix 3). Each text included a multiple choice-questions test and a retention test in which the study subjects were supposed to summarize the text information in writing. The two reading comprehension texts were selected from the teacher's manual of New Headway Pus (intermediate series, 2006). Liz and John Soars wrote it. The ministry of education of Jordan for grade ten students' English curriculum adopted this textbook.

The pre-test was conducted prior to the application of the strategy, and the post -test was administered after the application of the KWL method. The tests included multiple-choice questions (20 items) and one retention test (one open-end question) for summarization. For the retention test, the students were supposed to present 20 units of information in their summarized information in a form of writing, based on the information they read in the text. They were encouraged to write as much information units as they could recall from the retention text while they were trying to answer the open-end question.

Four arbitrators, who were full time teachers of English with an over 5-year teaching experience tested the reliability of the two tests. They were asked to score the validity of each item for the two tests (the multiple-choice questions and the retention tests). The four arbitrators' scores were collected, and their correlations were computed by using Stat View® software. The raters' scores showed a high reliability scale. The multiple choice test correlations were ($R=.98$), and the retention test correlation was ($R=.96.25$). The correlation value of the two scales ($R=.98$. & $R=.96.25$) indicated that the two scoring scales were highly reliable.

C. Procedure

The researcher used quasi-experimental approach through which there were two groups; an experimental group ($N=25$) and a control group ($N=25$). The experimental group was the public school subjects who were taught reading with the KWL-plus strategy, while the control group was the private school subjects who were taught with traditional reading methods.

D. Data Collection

The pre-test was conducted on the Experimental and Control groups in each school prior to the application of the KWL-Plus strategy and during the first two weeks of the scholastic semester of the year 2013. The pre- test was given on two sessions; the multiple choice questions test was first administered at the second morning session of the school day, and the retention pre-test was administered later on the same school day after the 10:30 am school recess. The reading retention test was conducted at a different session because the students were not supposed to look at the reading text while they were writing their summaries.

After administrating the pre-tests, the schools teachers received training on using the KWL-Plus reading strategy as it is prescribed in the training manual (Appendix 4). Training was given for one week and right after the pre-tests. Teachers started using the KWL-Plus strategy with the experiment group in the public school at the beginning of the third week until the end of the twelfth week of the first semester. However, the control group of the private school continued to receive reading instruction with traditional reading strategies.

The post-tests were conducted in week 13, toward the end of the scholastic first semester, and after the application of the KWL-Plus strategy. The results of the pre-test and the post-test were reported and analyzed using the appropriate statistical methods.

V. RESULTS

To analyze the data, the following statistical techniques were used:

- The use of covariance analysis to measure the performance of students in the two groups; the experimental and the control on the pre- tests (The reading comprehension retention test and multiple-choice questions tests).
- The mean scores and standard deviations were employed to measure the tenth grade students' performance on reading comprehension before and after applying the KWL-Plus technique.

T-test was used to measure the differences between the mean scores of the experimental group of the public school and control group of the private school on the post- tests of reading comprehension.

The first question attempted to find out if there are any statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups of the tenth graders in the public and private schools on the reading comprehension pre-test before using the KWL-Plus strategy.

Table (1) shows that the mean score of the pre-test of the experimental group was (5.55) with a standard deviation (2.88). The mean score of the control group is (5.69) with a standard deviation (3.18). The findings indicates that the mean scores of the private school subjects are a little higher than their peers in the public school. Table (2) below give a statistical account for the mean scores differences of the two groups.

READING COMPREHENSION MEAN SCORES OF PRE-TESTS FOR THE EXPERIMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS		
Pre -Test	Group	
Standard Deviation	Mean Score	
3.18	5.69	Control -Private
5.88	5.55	Experimental -Public

In table (2), the statistical (P - value) is (6.19) at the level of probability (0.02) which is significant at the level (0.05). The finding indicates that there are no statistically significant differences of students' performance on the pre-tests (The multiple choice and retention tests) between the experimental and control groups.

TABLE 2.
COVARIANCE ANALYSIS RESULTS FOR THE PRE-TESTS FOR THE EXPERIMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS

P- Value	(F)	Chi-Square Mean	Degrees of freedom	Chi-Square	Source of Variance
0.02	9.19	68.76	1	68.76	Pre- Test
0.00	51.07	567.76	1	567.76	Group
		11.12	49	544.70	Error
			51	1181.22	Total

The second question attempted to find out if there are any statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups of the tenth graders in the public and private schools on the reading comprehension post-tests after using the KWL-Plus strategy.

Table (3) shows that the mean score for the post-tests of the private school control group was (6.03) with a Standard Deviation (2.88). Whereas, the mean score of the public school experimental group on the post-test is (8.55) with a Standard Deviation (2.14). Descriptive statistics in this table indicated the experimental group obtained higher grades on the post-tests than their peers in the control group did. Table (4) below will provide a statistical account for these differences.

TABLE 3.
MEAN SCORES AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF POST-TESTS FOR THE EXPERIMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS

Post-test	Group
Standard Deviation	Mean Score
2.63	6.03
2.14	8.55

The statistical (T- value) in Table (4) below is (-9.75) at the level of probability (0.02), which is significant at the level (0.05), this indicates that there are statistically significant differences in students' performances on the reading comprehension post- tests (The multiple choice and retention tests).

TABLE 4.
T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE EXPERIMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS ON THE READING COMPREHENSION POST-TESTS

F-Value	T	Standard Deviation	Average	Group
0.00	-9.75	2.66	6.03	Control -Private

F-Value	T	Standard Deviation	Average	Group
		2.88	8.55	Experimental- Public

Question 3 attempted to investigate whether the KWL-Plus strategy has any effects on improving Jordanian students' reading comprehension in the experimental group. The findings represented in tables (3) and (4) above gave a-by-default answer to this question. The results indicated that there were statistically differences between the experimental group of the public school and control group of the private school on the post-tests. The result confirmed the effectiveness of the KWL-Plus strategy on the experimental group of the public school students.

VI. DISCUSSION

As for question # 1, "Are there any statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups of the tenth graders in the public and private schools on the reading comprehension pre-test before using the KWL-Plus strategy?", Data Analysis revealed that there were no statically significant differences between the experimental group of the public school students and the control group of the private school students on their performance on the pre-reading comprehension tests. The result is expected in this study as there was no evident reading strategy employed by the English teachers in the two schools genres.

The findings of the second question support findings conducted by other researchers, as the KWL-Plus was effective and it improved the reading capabilities of the experimental group. (Rahmawati 2014; Erawati, 2012; Smaikomusk, 2012; Fengjuan, 2010; Sasson; 2008; Szabo, 2007; Casey, 2009; Al Shaye, 2000; Piper, 1992; cited in Al Khateeb 2010) reported that KWL is an effective reading strategy to improve reading comprehension of the students. Thus, these findings are in harmony with the findings of question # 2, which indicated a higher performance of the experimental groups for the public school students than their peers of the control group in the private school.

With respect to question number 3, "Does the KWL-Plus approach have any effects on improving Jordanian students' reading comprehension in the experimental group?" The findings pertaining to question # 2 consolidated the effectiveness of the strategy on the experimental group.

However, the researcher expected that the performance of the control group in the private school would be better or the same of the experimental group since the private school adopts an international curriculum where English is used as a medium of instruction for all school subjects. In other words, the students of the private school were anticipated to have better English language skills including reading.

In conclusion, KWL-Plus technique was useful and effective for students in improving their reading experience. The students were more capable of summarizing the reading passages, mapping the main ideas and better comprehending the text. The method put students of the experimental group on a task that increased their ability to read and

comprehend. This conclusion was consistent with Norasing's study (1997) who stated that almost all students were interested in KWL-Plus method as it increased the students' readability power towards reading comprehension.

Based on the findings of the present study, the KWL- Plus method is effective in boosting students reading comprehension abilities. Therefore, the teachers of English language in Jordan ought to try to include this strategy in teaching reading in Jordanian schools. Consequently, it is recommended that future research should be conducted on high school and undergraduate university students by using the KWL- Plus technique. Higher -level Jordanian students are anticipated to perform better with this strategy because they are more likely to have sufficient prior knowledge to do reading tasks that are more challenging in their English textbooks.

However, the present study has its limitations. A major limitation would go to the time devoted to this experimental study. Pressed schedules of the school English syllabus limited the instructors to give enough time for performing KWL- Plus steps and stages.

Another limitation was the unfamiliarity of teacher with KWL-plus process. The teachers in the two schools were noted to go back and forth looking at the strategy manual. This conspicuous classroom behavior was time consuming and constituted an obstacle to applying the strategy steps on a timely manner. The time factor for applying the strategy was crucial as there were deadlines for both the teachers and the students to accomplish each reading task.

APPENDIX 1. OPEN SURVEY OF ENGLISH TEACHERS

Teacher's Name-----.

School name -----

(Private or public) Please circle your school type.

Teacher's signature: -----.

Note: Your signature indicates your approval to participate in the study

List down all the reading comprehension strategies you use in your reading classes:

1. -----.
2. -----.
3. -----.
4. -----.
5. -----.
6. -----.
7. -----.
8. -----.
9. -----.
10. -----.
11. -----.
12. -----.
13. -----.
14. -----.
15. -----.

APPENDIX 2. READING MULTIPLE CHOICE & RETENTION PRE-TEST

My ideal holiday

1. My ideal holiday has a little bit of everything. I like lazing on a beach with a pile of books, but then I get bored and I need to do something. I like exploring new places, especially on foot, and nosing around in shops, museums, and restaurants. I'm very into trying local foods.

2. However, I must confess that my favourite holiday resort is home. I travel so much in my job that just waking up in my own bed is heaven. I potter around the house in my pyjamas, read the paper, do some gardening, shop for some food, then make a delicious meal in the evening and watch TV.

My business holidays

3. I have three trips coming up. I'm looking forward to going to Canada soon, where I'm staying for four nights at the Ice Hotel. This is a giant igloo situated in Montmorency Fall Park, just 20 minutes from downtown Quebec. It is made from 4,500 tons of snow and 250 tons of ice, and it takes 5 weeks to build. It will stay open for three months. When the spring arrives, it will melt. Then it will be built again for next year - maybe in a different place! Each room is supplied with a sleeping bag made from deer skins. The hotel has an ice cafe, ice sculptures, and all the furniture is made of ice.

5. In complete contrast to the Ice Hotel, I'm going to Dubai the following month, to stay a few days at the spectacular Burj al-Arab, which means the Arabian Tower. It's shaped like a giant sail, and it rises dramatically out of the beautiful blue water. Each room has sea views. I really want to try the restaurant in the tube at the top next to the helipad. Other must-dos include shopping in the markets, called souks. (You can buy designer clothes, perfumes, and spices, but what I want is some gold jewellery for my mother.) I'm also going to visit the camel races.

6. The next trip, different again, is to Baobab Rivers, in Selous, Tanzania, for a seven-day safari and I'm looking forward to a visit to my favourite resort spas.

Choose The correct answer from a, b, or c (20 Marks).

1. We can conclude from the passage that the narrator's holidays are:

- a. noisy
- b. bored
- c. including many activities

2. According to the speaker, his best holidays are:

- a. in museums
- b. at home
- c. at restaurants

3. The passage indicates the speaker-----.

- a. is single
- b. has family
- c. is married

4. One of the activities the narrator is NOT doing at home is:

- a. reading the paper
- b. gardening
- c. listening to music

5. When the speaker spends his holiday at home, he-----.

- a. orders foods
- b. cooks food
- c. eats food with friends

6. The closest meaning of the underlined word ""NOISING"" in the first paragraph is - -----.

- a. moving
- b. annoyed
- c. bored

7. His next trip is going to be to -----.

- a. Tanzania
- b. Dubai
- c. Canada

8. The underlined pronoun "IT" in the third paragraph refers to-----.

- a. Quebec
- b. Fall Park
- c. the Ice Hotel

10. What do we conclude about the Ice Hotel? It is -----.

- a. easy to build
- b. permanent
- c. built again& again

11. The narrator's three next trips are -----.

- a. different
- b. the same
- c. difficult

12. In the Ice Hotel, the sleeping material is made of -----.

- a. ice
- b. ice and leather
- c. deer skins

13. The underlined word "SPECTACULAR" in paragraph 5 means:

- a. huge
- b. giant
- c. remarkable

14. The Ice Hotel is open -----.

- a. during winter
- b. in summer
- c. for the whole year

15. Why do you think the narrator's trip to Dubai is in contrast to the Ice Hotel? Because of-----.

- a. weather change
- b. long distance
- c. money expenses

16. The expression "a giant sail" in paragraph 5 refers to -----.

- a. Burj al-Arab
- b. Dubai
- c. a ship in Dubai

17. We can conclude from the passage that Burj al-Arab is mainly a -----.

- a. hotel
- b. restaurant
- c. mall

18. "Souks" are -----.

- a. shopping places
- b. food markets
- c. clothes factories

19. In Tanzania, the speaker is interested in a visit to -----.

- a. health resorts
- b. Jewelry shops
- c. dinning places

20. His trip to Tanzania is going to be -----.

- a. short
- b. long
- c. difficult

Reading Retention Pre Test: Summarization

Student's Name: ----- Grade: ----- School Name: -----

Student's Signature: -----

Please note that your signature indicates your approval to participate in this study

Summarize the reading text "My Ideal Holiday" in your own language. Make sure you include a minimum of 20 key units of information about the text. (20 Marks).

APPENDIX 3. READING COMPREHENSION MULTIPLE CHOICE POST TEST

A BRIEF HISTORY OF PIZZA

1. So you thought the burger was the world's most popular fast food? In fact, there is another truly universal fast food, the ultimate fast food. It's easy to make, easy to serve, much more varied than the burger, can be eaten with the hands, and it's delivered to your front door or served in fancy restaurants. It's been one of America's favourite foods for over 50 years. It is, of course, the pizza.

2. It's kind of silly to talk about the moment when pizza was 'invented'. It gradually evolved over the years, but one thing's for certain - it's been around for a very long time. The idea of using pieces of flat, round bread as plates came from the Greeks. They called them 'plakuntos' and ate them with various simple toppings such as oil, garlic, onions, and herbs.

3. The Romans enjoyed eating something similar and called it 'picea'. By about 1000 A.D. in the city of Naples, 'picea' had become 'pizza' and people were experimenting with more toppings: cheese, meat, anchovies, and finally the tomato, brought to Italy from Mexico and Peru in the sixteenth century. Naples became the pizza capital of the world.

4. In 1889, King Umberto I and Queen Margherita heard about pizza and asked to try it. They invited pizza maker, Raffaele Esposito, to make it for them. He decided to make the pizza like the Italian flag, so he used red tomatoes, white mozzarella cheese, and green basil leaves. The Queen loved it and the new pizza was named 'Pizza Margherita' in her honour.

5. Pizza migrated to America with the Italians at the end of the nineteenth century. The first pizzeria in the United States was opened in 1905 at 53½ Spring Street, New York City, by Gennaro Lombardi. But the popularity of pizza really exploded when American soldiers returned from Italy after World War II and raved about 'that great Italian dish'. Americans are now the greatest producers and consumers of pizza in the world.

Choose The correct answer from a, b, or c (20 Marks).

1. According to the passage, Pizza is a food of ----- history.
a. long b. short c. unknown
2. How is Pizza similar to Burger? Both of them are ---- foods.
a. fast b. home-made c. not eaten at home
3. According to the passage, pizza was originated in -----.
a. America b. Italy c. Greece
4. What is the Greek expression that is similar to the English word "plates"?
a. round bread b. flat topping c. plakuntos
5. The old Romans ate something ----- Pizza.
a. exactly the same as b. similar to c. different from
6. We can conclude from the passage that Pizza was greatly developed in -----.
a. America& Greece b. Italy c. Mexico& Peru
7. What Pizza component came from Mexico and Peru?
a. Tomato b. Mazola cheese c. Anchovies
8. Raffaele is a name of a-----.
a. king b. queen c. Pizza maker
9. The underlined pronoun "HER" in paragraph 4 refers to---.
a. Umberto I b. Esposito c. Margherita
10. The oldest food similar to Pizza was eaten in -----.
a. Rome b. Mexico c. America
11. The Greek Pizza was cooked with ----- toppings.
a. vegetables b. meat c. meat and vegetables
12. The underlined pronoun "THEY" in paragraph 2 refers to-----.
a. the Greek people b. anchovies c. plates
13. Which century in the world's history experienced major developments of pizza? The ----- Century.
a. sixteenth b. eighteenth c. twentieth
14. The history of Pizza in America can be described as -----.
a. long b. short c. unknown
15. Basil leaved were first added to Pizza toppings in -----.
a. America b. Italy c. Greece
16. The closest meaning of the underlined word "MIGRATED" in paragraph 5 is -----.
a. eaten b. cooked c. travelled
17. Who made Pizza more popular in the United States?
a. Gennaro
b. The American soldiers of WWII
c. The Italians
18. Pizza came to America directly from -----.
a. Rome b. Greece c. Italy
19. Which country do you think has contributed to spread Pizza to the rest of the world?
a. America b. Greece c. Italy
20. Which people of the world are the most producers and consumers of Pizza? The ----- people.
a. American b. Italian c. Roman

(KWL-PLUS Training Manual)**KWL-PLUS Instructors' guide for Strategy implementation**

The KWL-Plus helps students:

- Recall what is known (K); - Determine what students want to learn (W);
- Identify what is learned (L); and -Map text and summarize information (Plus).

Procedures:

1. Distribute copies of Activity Sheet to students, or create a class KWL organizer using chart paper.
2. Choose a topic and guide the students in a brainstorming activity to generate ideas regarding what they already know about this topic. (K)
3. Guide students through the process of categorizing information in the K column. This "chunking" allows them to anticipate areas of information they may find in their research. Model the categorization process by thinking aloud while identifying categories and combining and classifying information. Students can complete the "Categories of Information We Expect to Use" section on the activity sheet or on chart paper if the process is being modeled with the entire class.
4. They can read the text independently or in small groups. Text should be in manageable segments until the student becomes familiar with the technique. Reading text in segments allows students to become aware of what they are learning as well as what they have not comprehended.
5. As they research, the student should note new information in the L column, which identifies what he/she has learned. This helps students select important information from each paragraph and it provides a basis for future reference and review.
6. Model how students should categorize information listed in the L column. Have students ask themselves what each statement describes. In doing so they often discover more categories that can be used for future reading.

The next step could be for students to create a map/web with the information. Through listing and categorizing, the most difficult tasks of constructing a map are already completed.

7. Instruct students to use the article title as the center (big idea) of their map. Categories developed with the KWL-Plus organizer become the map's major concepts, with explanatory details subsumed under each. Lines show the relationship of the main topic to the categories. All information categorized on the organizer acts as supporting data on the map.
8. Guide students in writing a summary of their data. The most difficult part of summarizing has already been completed.
9. Instruct students to use a map as an outline for their summary. The map's center becomes the title of the summary.
10. Students number the categories on the map in the sequence they prefer. Each category forms the topic for a new paragraph.
11. Finally, supporting details in each category are used to expand the paragraph or explain the key ideas.

ACTIVITY SHEET**KWL-Plus Graphic Organizer**

Topic: -----

K (What I Know)	W (What I Want to Know)	L (What I Learned)

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A Study on the Ideological Orientation of ELT in Mainland China: Focusing on Off-campus Training

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Abstract—With the development of world globalization, the need for talented people in China is increasing and the requirement for English quality in all walks is improving. The development of off-campus English language training meets certain needs of market and also makes up for the disadvantage of school education to some degree at the same time. However, it needs a right value orientation in the off-campus English language training. Its internal factors and external factors make it a must to follow the correct value guidance. Only when the attributes of off-campus English language training and the pursuit of value get a harmonious development can it find its place in the market. Off-campus English language training would not be involved into the local educational ecology and get a further development without respecting the market rules and ideological orientation in China.

Index Terms—off-campus English language training, ideological orientation, harmonious development, educational ecology, mainland China

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of globalization, there come more opportunities for China to communicate with the outside world. English language as an important communication tool, attracts increasing attention across the world. The number and scale of learning English have reached an unprecedented level, and off-campus English language training also gets to its peak. Naturally English language teaching becomes a big business: “ELT has boomed and seen a proliferation of university departments, language schools, publications, conferences, and all the paraphernalia of an established profession. ELT is also a billion-pound business ... as a ‘world commodity’....”(Phillipson, 1992, p. 4) In this way, a large number of training institutions, such as Wall Street English, English First, Language Link London, Fraser, Oregon, New Oriental Education, Crazy English, etc., all rushed into the market and become a necessary part of English education in mainland China. Off-campus English language training, an organic part of English education in China, meets certain needs of language education market and makes up for the disadvantage of school education to some degree. One point to note is that “the professional training of ELT people concentrates on linguistics, psychology and education in a restricted sense. It pays little attention to international relations, development studies, theories of culture or intercultural contact, or the politics of sociology of language or education.”(Phillipson, 1988, p. 348) In order to boost the development, more attention needs to be paid to the ideological orientation of off-campus English language training in the environment of Chinese educational ecology, which should be considered within the framework of the ideology requirements in China. For at the center of this question, “... a language is not a thing, but a practice always characterized by diversity....” (Jeseph, 2006, p. 9)

II. IDEOLOGICAL ORIENTATION AS A PREREQUISITE FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING IN OFF-CAMPUS CONTEXT IN CHINA

For the business of English language teaching, it is a must to recognize the ideological aspect along the way of profit pursuit for the training institutions. Due to the great needs of language education market in China under the policy of reform and opening up, off-campus English language training develops rapidly. According to the Decision of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of China on cultural issues concerning comprehensively deepening the reform which was put forward on the Sixth Plenary Session of the Seventeenth Central Committee of the Communist Party of China, it needs to expand international cultural exchanges and strengthen the international communication capacity. China will actively draw on the fine cultural achievements of other countries and hold on to the go-out strategy to strengthen the international power of Chinese culture. Nowadays the competition of soft power, namely, the competition of language, culture, education, information, values, and so on, becomes increasingly fiercer. According to Wang (2011, p. 2-7), language is the foundation of soft power, and the guarantee of the influence of culture or ideology. Off-campus English language training is not only one sort of English education, but also a useful supplement to the education system in mainland China. As a part of English education, English language training institutions need to keep the unity of English language training and educational development. “... language pedagogy, the scientific study of

language learning and language teaching, has been isolated from the social science for too long, and that ELT needs to be situated in a macro-societal theoretical perspective. ... unearthing some of the historical, political, and intellectual roots of the language pedagogy profession."(Phillipson, 1992, p. 2) Thus in context of Chinese educational ecology, proper ideological orientation is necessary for teaching English language knowledge and skills, and in order to keep the correct value orientation guidance in off-campus English language training, the following four points are necessary to be considered.

The first issue is about patriotism, which is a basic requirement for any discipline of education in mainland China. For this requirement, when having a contact with foreign languages and cultures, the learners need to keep in mind that they should never forget the responsibility to rejuvenate the nation. New Oriental Education, which has trained millions of students to learn English and sent hundreds of thousands of students to study abroad, has great achievement of English language training both at home and abroad. It helps every student to remember their responsibility to rejuvenate the country no matter where they are. Wang (2006) stated clearly in the book *The New Oriental Way* that Chinese would never get out of the dreadful cycle of getting ruined unless the young people could make a comparison of the human civilization, get the fruits of them eagerly and use the crystallization of human civilization to update their own culture. The political correctness of its guidance helps the enterprise wins the huge market in mainland China, which is a typical example for the survival of language training institutions.

The second issue is about innovation capability. Nowadays the quality-oriented education emphasizes that it is important to develop the awareness and ability of innovation, instead of imitating others blindly in English learning. However, it is not a real condition in some schools; to some extent, the school education under the direction of countless tests and examinations is organized and ordered with the rigid system and poor adaptability, so that it usually fails to meet the needs of the labor market. As a matter of consequence, it is hard for students to be creative under the pressure of the examining system. English language training off campus came into being to meet the needs of the language market, which could keep pace with the needs and take actions quickly according to the social change. Today the innovation ability is deadly needed, and the atmosphere of off-campus English language training classes tends to be more active and democratic, and more teacher-students interactions are demonstrated. Most classes are of small size so every student can get the chance to express their own opinions and to exercise their language skills. The relationship between students and teachers is more harmonious so students dare to express their opinions directly, without concerning their answer is wrong and thus being criticized. In this way, learners become talents who have the awareness and ability to be creative instead of learning for official examinations.

The third issue is about cultural awareness. Off-campus English language training is more than developing the ability to use the language and regarding it as a tool of linguistic communication, due to the fact that the communication of languages is essentially the communication of cultures. Learners need to realize that the expression of the same phenomenon may be language-specific and the way of thinking may also be different. Thus learners need to know about the customs of the country of target language, and meanwhile they should know that the language, culture and thinking way of their own nation, and thus understand the advantages and the disadvantages of the two sides of the cultures. Crazy English pays attention to the ability of spoken English of the learners and treats language as a tool of communication, while at the same time Crazy English combines language learning with culture understanding, believing that speaking a foreign language means exchanging a different culture, from which it could be found that the educational philosophy of Crazy English includes developing up the cultural awareness. It is important to guide learners to speak the foreign language fluently while realizing that different language speakers tend to express differently for the same phenomenon and the ways of thinking may also be quite different. Getting to thinking about the cultural differences can help them to speak the target language better, and cultivating cultural awareness is one of the necessary requirements for the language training institutions.

The forth issue is about lifelong learning awareness. Every social member tries to make progress to meet the needs of social and individual development, and the modern society requires every member to learn how to learn and continue to learn. The language training institutions need to guide learners to master useful learning strategies and methods, and develop long-lasting learning motivation and interests. They are supposed to teach students of all ages, helping them to feel that they can get knowledge and keep up with the time regardless of their age. In addition, these institutions have different classes for learners of different levels, and thus all the learners have chances to improve themselves. They help learners to be confident of their learning ability, to be enthusiastic about new things, to be active in learning knowledge and to promote themselves through English language learning.

III. THE INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL DEMANDS FOR THE OFF-CAMPUS ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING IN CHINA CONCERNING IDEOLOGICAL ORIENTATION

"To speak means to be in a position to use a certain syntax, to grasp the morphology of this or that language, but it means above all to assume a culture, to support the weight of a civilization."(Fanon, 1967, p. 17-18) It is significant for off-campus English language training institutions to follow a proper ideological orientation, which is decided by both the internal and external demands in mainland Chinese education ecology.

From the aspect of internal factors, the primary object of English language training is to teach the language knowledge and language skills of the target language, while it is known that there is a close relationship among

language, culture and thoughts. Every language represents a unique culture and a view of world, so in a sense a language is a carrier, an inheritor and also an expression of the corresponding culture; on the other way round, a culture has a definite impact on the mode of thinking for a language speaker. In other words, learning a language is not only about a process of linguistic items but also about a process of thoughts. The content and mode of a people's thoughts and the way of expression would be different when their experiences and cultural backgrounds are different. Even in the conceptualization of linguistic imperialism, English language teaching "has become part of the process whereby one part of the world has become politically, economically and culturally dominated by another". (Naysmith, 1987, p. 3) Therefore without a proper understanding of the culture system of the target language and a systematic support of the related ideological orientation, the training of language knowledge and skills is nearly impossible. These two factors are basic and necessary for the development of the off-campus English language training in mainland China. The English language teaching without the related guidance is like a tree without a root, or a river without a source; if so, the English learning would only be at the surface of language knowledge and skills and it would be quite hard for the industry to develop further.

From the aspect of external factors, the development of off-campus English language training is more than the simple teaching of language knowledge and language skills. It needs to meet the various realistic needs of the market and keep up with the society to win the market. According to Hu (2011, p. 130-136), one of the objectives of English language teaching in China is to let the learners to get the basic language knowledge and skills, to develop the ability to use the language, and finally to help learners to get an overall development. The central problem of the English language training in China all the time is how to balance achieving the goals of overall education and cultivating the comprehensive ability to use the language. Today the requirements for English language skills in China becomes higher than before, so English language training should focus on helping learners to learn more efficiently. The learning motivation is thought to be one of the critical factors of the language learning efficiency, which can be classified simply into instrumental motivation and integrative motivation. According to Gardner and Lambert (1974), the learners with instrumental motivation desire to reach their goals with the help of a language and they stress the practical value of learning a new language, such as passing tests or to get a license as a tourist guide. The learners with integrative motivation prefer to be involved into understanding the culture of the target language and they have personal interests for the custom, history, education of the country, to name a few. For the efficiency of English language teaching, the motivations to direct learners who want to master English as a tool and to know about cultural background of the target language should be combined together, in which way the objectives of this English language training are to stimulate the learning motivation, to attract English learners and also to win the market successfully.

In practice of English language teaching, the foreigners are believed to be the best teachers of English by both the trainees and trainers, because the foreigners are regarded as the experts on the language and also the cultural background. The foreigners do have a native expertise of language, while in education it needs to be thought twice before taking action. "The role of English in the sociolinguistic context of each English-using Third World country is not properly understood, or is conveniently ignored. The consequences of this attitude are that the Third World countries are slowly realizing that, given the present attitude of TESL specialists, it is difficult to expect from such specialists any theoretical insights and professional leadership in this field which would be contextually, attitudinally and pragmatically useful to the Third World countries."(Kachru, 1986, p. 101) This question is related to the understanding of English language teaching, how to define it, and what is the boundary of it, that is, the micro and macro ways of conceptualizing English language teaching. "... the majority of those working in the ELT field tend to confine themselves, by choice and training, to linguistic, literary, or pedagogical matters. ELT is however an international activity with political, economic, military and cultural implications and ramifications." (Phillipson, 1992, p. 8)

IV. THE IDEOLOGICAL ORIENTATION AS THE NECESSARY WAY FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF OFF-CAMPUS ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING

The industrial features and the pursuit of the industrial value of off-campus English language training are united but also contradictory. Only when the two elements get a harmonious development can English language training achieve its educational value and industrial purposes. The conflict between the two factors is inevitable because the objectives of the industry firstly aims at the commercial end, that is, the profit earned from it, which can not be denied anyway. While on the other side of this industry, English language training has specific educational objectives for specified subjects, including those who want to get certain language skills, who want to know about special cultures, to pass some examinations, to win chances to study abroad, to be promoted on some positions, and so on. English language training offers different courses according to the social development and market needs so that the teaching objectives are clearly set against the social backgrounds, and different teaching methods or techniques would be used to achieve the different teaching objectives. Between Chinese and western educators, they "evolve from such different cultural roots that it is no wonder conflicts and misunderstandings dominate historical and modern attempts by foreigners to impact Chinese education"(Porter, 1987, p. 369). For the cultural differences of English language teaching, it is important to bear in mind that "A way of teaching is never innocent. Every pedagogy is imbricated in ideology, in a set of tacit assumptions about what is real, what is good, what is possible, and how power ought to be distributed."(Berlin, 1988, p. 492) In order to make the language teaching more effective, the length of courses, the focus of training, and the teaching pace

are all different and specific. In practice, when a particular objective is achieved, the training of this period is thus all finished. English language training is basically commercial so its main goal is to make profits from it; seeking for more profits, training institutions have to consider about the investment, such as employees, teaching materials, teaching facilities and so on, that is to say they will have to weigh between investment and gain in order to make it lucrative.

It is necessary to have a balanced understanding of the relationship between the industrial character and the pursuit of the educational value of off-campus English language training in mainland China. These two factors are to be combined together instead of being separated, for the two elements integrated in harmony is a necessary way for the development of English language training. The harmonious development could be reflected in the aspects of course design, teaching materials, teaching methods, and so forth. Different kinds of courses are set according to the characters of learners of different levels, so the design of the courses needs to make a balance between meeting the needs of language knowledge and language skills and at the same time the proper ideological orientation. The teaching materials should be suitable in Chinese context of politics and ethics, for it is not acceptable to develop the materials according to the values of westerners totally. The teaching methods need to be varied and it is important to stimulate the study motivation and interests, to build the learners' confidence, and to lead to the critical thinking and creativity of learners so that learners could get a comprehensive development when learning a foreign language. In a word, "what we teach and particularly the way we teach reflects our attitudes to society in general and the individual's place in society, and that our own educational practice is an implicit statement of power relationships, of how we see authority in the classroom and by extension in society outside the classroom." (Prodromou, 1988, p. 74-75)

In passing, it is worth noticing that Chinese government under the direction of the Communist Party of China made a reform of English language education in recent two years. On October 21st, 2013, Beijing Municipal Commission of Education sketched The Reformation Program of National Senior High School Entrance Examination in 2014-2016 (Exposure Draft) and The Reformation Program of College Entrance Examination in 2014-2016 (Exposure Draft). According to these two drafts, National Senior High School Entrance Examination (NSHSEE) and National College Entrance Examination (NCEE) both will take fundamental changes since 2016 in Beijing municipal basic education system. One of the changes is that English test for NCEE will be implemented by the way of "socialized" examination, that is, the English tests are not necessarily organized by the official school education system, which will be held twice a year. Students can take participate in the tests many times during the whole process of high school education, and the NCEE will take account in the highest score which will be effective in three years of senior high school education. On the web page of Beijing Municipal Commission of Education, it defines the nature and status of the discipline of English language education as following: "Discipline of English language education should stress the practical application of language, and go back to the position where it should be. We should reduce the weight of English scores in NCEE, and implement the socialized examination which will be held twice a year. The meaning of English test is confined to checking the basic knowledge and basic skills, and reflecting the basic requirements of curriculum standard." (Beijing Municipal Commission of Education, 2013)

In the next month, this political direction of the reform of English language education is confirmed by the higher Chinese political institution. The Decision on Major Issues Concerning Comprehensively Deepening Reforms (The Decision) was released on the Third Plenary Session of 18th Central Committee of the Communist Party of China, which was held during November 9th to 12th, 2013. In The Decision, the 42nd item is about the reformation of education, which indicates that Chinese basic education development should "keep shaping people's morality, strengthening the education of socialist core value system and perfecting the Chinese excellent cultural tradition", and "subjects like foreign languages should adopt socialized examination and take more than once a year". (Xinhuanet, 2013)

According to this direction of English language education reformation by the Communist Party of China and the Chinese government, the socialized examination system of English language in the near future would definitely provide market opportunities for the off-campus English language training institutions, such as Wall Street English, English First, Language Link London, Fraser, Oregon, New Oriental Education, Crazy English, etc. When the opportunities come, it needs more consideration for the institutions to follow the ideological orientation in Chinese educational ecology, for their own development or for Chinese education system. In a word, "cultural and political issues are interwoven with language policies". (Gopinathan, 1980, p. 177) Understanding this complexity of connection between language education and political requirement is a must for any English language training institution in mainland China.

V. CONCLUSION

For the ideological orientation of English language teaching, Pennycook said: "Thus, I am arguing that no knowledge, no language and no pedagogy is ever neutral or apolitical. To teach critically, therefore, is to acknowledge the political nature of all education...." (1992, p. 369) In Chinese context of education, the political nature of off-campus English language training is supposed to be understood clearly. "... we need to recognize the complexities of language teaching and its context, and strive to validate other, local forms of knowledge about language and teaching." (Pennycook, 1989, p. 613) Nowadays the competition of the soft power among countries becomes one of the significant issues, while foreign language teaching as a foundation of the soft power is a critical problem which has close relationship with education, culture and ideology. Off-campus English language training needs to respect the role of the market in the process of development, and meanwhile it needs to follow the ideological orientation because it is basically an organic

part of English education in China. The balanced consideration in this way is for the English language training institutions to be better adapted to the educational ecology in mainland China.

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Enhancing English Phonemic Awareness of Thai Grade One Students through Multimedia Computer-assisted Language Learning

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Abstract—This study aims to investigate whether the English phonemic awareness of Thai grade one students can be enhanced through a multimedia CALL program while learning the English language through the whole word approach. It also explores Thai grade one students' views on improving phonemic awareness through a multimedia CALL program while learning the English language through the whole word approach. The research participants were 50 Thai grade one students who were classified into good, fair, and poor groups according to their English proficiency scores. The students in each group were divided equally into experimental and control groups: 25 students in the experimental group and 25 students in the control group. Then, three participants from each good, fair, and poor group were randomly selected to participate in a semi-structured interview. Three phonemic awareness tests were used to collect quantitative data obtained from the experimental and control groups. These tests were analyzed using descriptive statistics (Mean and SD) and *t*-test. In addition, a semi-structured interview was used to collect qualitative data with the data being analyzed using content analysis. The results of the study revealed that the experimental group made significantly greater gains in English phonemic awareness than the control group at the .001 level. Moreover, the finding of the qualitative data indicated that the students who were provided with the multimedia CALL program had positive views on enhancing phonemic awareness through this supportive tool while learning the English language through the whole word approach.

Index Terms—phonemic awareness, CALL, multimedia, grade one students, English

I. INTRODUCTION

Phonemic awareness is a necessary early language literacy skill for the development of language skills in young learners (Fitzpatrick & Yuh, 1997). Having a low level of phonemic awareness can result in language learning difficulties for many learners, especially in reading and spelling (Berg & Stegelman, 2003). Previous studies (Anusornorakarn, 2002; Chinwonno, 2001; Mungsiri, 2002) have shown that many Thai EFL learners at all educational levels face many difficulties in learning a language and that one such problem is a lack of phonemic awareness. For example, many Thai learners who have weak phonemic awareness cannot distinguish between voiced and voiceless consonants in the English language (Pinnell & Fountas, 2011).

Such awareness can be taught to learners of all levels and ages; however, it should be taught at an early age—between three to eight because they can benefit the most (Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement [CIERA], 2003; Zygouris-Coe, 2001). Teaching phonemic awareness to young learners can help them develop their language skills better than those who do not receive such education (Mehta, Foorman, Branum, & Taylor, 2005; Strickland & Riley-Ayers, 2006). The emphasis on teaching phonemic awareness is, thus, essential for the enhancement of Thai young learners' phonemic awareness in order to build the strong foundations for avoiding language learning difficulties.

Since Thai EFL learners learn English as a foreign language, teaching English phonemic awareness to them may cause them more difficulties in improving their phonemic awareness (Jannuzi, 1998). The major factor that causes difficulty is the differences between the English and Thai phonological systems (Lakhawatana, 1969). One study by Kanokpermpoon (2007) showed that the English sounds /g/, /v/, /z/, /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /ʃ/, and /r/ are problematic for Thai EFL learners to recognize, distinguish and pronounce. Since these nine sounds do not exist in the Thai consonant system, Thai EFL learners have language learning difficulties in identifying and discriminating these sounds (Deterding & Poedjosoedarmo, 1998; Thongsin, 2007; Tuaychareon, 2003). This results in Thai EFL learners being unaware of these nine problematic sounds and thus learning the language ineffectively. Consequently, the lack of awareness of some English consonant sounds among Thai EFL learners is one language learning problem that should be addressed (Sriprasidh, 2010).

As for teaching the English language in Thailand, Thai EFL teachers employ various teaching techniques in the classroom which focus on developing the four major skills of Thai learners of English. These are often taught by the whole word approach (Darasawang, 2007; Dhanasobhon, 2006; Durongphan, Aksornkul, Sawangwong, & Tiancharoen, 1982; Noom-ura, 2013; Wiriyachitra, 2002). According to Sriprasidh's study (2010), teaching the English language in Thailand normally starts from top to bottom, also known as the top-down approach, which begins with reading words by recognizing them by sights, that is, the whole word approach. Even though this approach requires learners to utilize whole word recognition skills to identify the spoken word and its meaning, it can also present the problem of a lack of phonemic awareness and result in language learning difficulties among many Thai learners. This shows that solely teaching with the whole word approach in the English classroom may not be enough.

A Multimedia Computer-Assisted Language Learning Program (CALL) is considered effective when used as a supportive tool to enhance young learners' phonemic awareness (French, 2004). Studies on enhancing young learners' phonemic awareness with multimedia CALL programs (Cassady & Smith, 2003; Hecht & Close, 2002; Hodgson & Holland, 2010; Isakson, Marchand-Martella, & Martella, 2011; Macaruso & Walker, 2008; Mitchell & Fox, 2001) have been conducted in many countries and have shown positive results. However, it is apparent that there have been no studies on developing the phonemic awareness of Thai EFL learners, especially young learners, through the use of a multimedia CALL program.

II. METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted as an embedded mixed method design to investigate the improvement of the English phonemic awareness of Thai grade one students through a multimedia CALL program while learning the English through the whole word approach. In addition, it aimed to reveal the Thai grade one students' views on practicing phonemic awareness through the multimedia CALL program while learning the English through the whole word approach.

A. Sampling

The sampling in this study was Thai grade one students, comprising both males and females. Out of 78 students, 50 students were selected to participate in this study by purposive sampling using English language capabilities. The researcher obtained the students' English proficiency scores from their teacher and used these scores to classify them into three groups; good, fair, and poor. A student who scored more than 75 out of 100 points was classified as being a student with good English. A student who scored between 65 to 74 points was classified as a student with fair English. A student who scored less than 65 out of 100 points was classified as a student with poor English. It was found that there were 16 students in the good English proficiency group, 24 students in the fair English proficiency group, and 10 students in the poor English proficiency group. Next, the researcher used simple random sampling to divide the students of each group into the experimental and control groups equally. Thus, there were 25 students in the experimental group and 25 students in the control group.

B. Research Instruments

Three instruments were used in this study: phonemic awareness tests, multimedia CALL program, and semi-structured interview. A detailed description of the research instruments follows:

Phonemic awareness tests: phonemic awareness tests were used to measure Thai grade one students' performances in the phonemic awareness of English. In this study, the researcher constructed the tests by adapting two types of phonemic awareness test: Assessment and Instruction in Phonological Awareness 2002 (Florida Education, 2002) and Kirwan Assessment (Kirwan, 2002). The researcher constructed three phonemic awareness tests which were tracked by a pretest and posttest. These tests assessed three consonant pairs /k/ and /g/, /f/ and /v/, and /s/ and /z/. Each phonemic awareness test was divided into three levels of phonemic awareness: (a) phoneme isolation, (b) phoneme identity, and (c) phoneme categorization. Each test consisted of 15 items with 5 items for each level of phonemic awareness. There was a time limit of 20 minutes for each test.

Multimedia CALL program: the study developed a multimedia CALL program, *Enjoy the Sounds!*, which was an integrative CALL program that ran from a CD-ROM. It integrated phonemic awareness with multimedia—texts, sounds, animations, and pictures. The multimedia CALL program covered the problematic sounds in the English language that Thai EFL learners experience difficulties in recognizing and distinguishing, namely the three pairs of English consonants /k/ and /g/, /f/ and /v/, and /s/ and /z/. For each pair, there were three levels of phonemic awareness: (a) phoneme isolation, (b) phoneme identity, and (c) phoneme categorization. There were 20 items for each level of phonemic awareness. The participants were limited to 35 minutes of practice for each level of phonemic awareness. The multimedia CALL program was provided as a supportive tool for the participants with the aim of enhancing their English phonemic awareness.

Semi-structured interview: to elicit the Thai grade one students' views on utilizing the multimedia CALL program to improve phonemic awareness while learning the English through the whole word approach, three participants from the good, fair, and poor groups were randomly selected to take part in a semi-structured interview after finishing the last posttest. The questions in the interview were open-ended and designed to determine the students' views on improving

phonemic awareness through the multimedia CALL program while learning the English language through the whole word approach. In order to avoid misunderstanding and to prevent miscommunication, the interview conducted in Thai which is the first language of the participants. During the interview, a tape recorder was used to record all the information supplied by the interviewed participants. Each interview took between 10 and 15 minutes. The questions of the semi-structured interview were:

- 1) Introduce yourself (name and nickname).
- 2) Do you enjoy learning with *Enjoy the Sounds!* program at the computer laboratory? Why or why not?
- 3) Do you enjoy learning English in the classroom? Why or why not?
- 4) Which one do you like the most – learning with the *Enjoy the Sounds!* program at the computer laboratory or learning English in the classroom? Why?

C. Research Procedure

The participants in both the experimental and control groups learned the English language in the classroom with the whole word approach through a Thai teacher. Besides learning English in the classroom, the participants in both groups were given additional activities. The experimental group was provided a multimedia CALL program to practice phonemic awareness at the computer laboratory, whereas the participants in the control group joined the fun English activities arranged by the school.

In the first period, the participants in both the experimental and control groups took the pretest to measure their English phonemic awareness of the English consonant pair /k/ and /g/. Afterwards, from the second to the fourth period, the experimental group practiced phonemic awareness of the pair /k/ and /g/ through a multimedia CALL program, consisting of phoneme isolation, phoneme identity, and phoneme categorization. Additionally, they filled out worksheets after practicing phonemic awareness through a multimedia CALL program for each period. Next, in the fifth period, the researcher asked the experimental group to review three lessons of phonemic awareness of the pair /k/ and /g/ through a multimedia CALL program and played game in the activity room. Then, in the sixth period, the participants in both the experimental and control groups completed the posttest of English phonemic awareness in consonant pair /k/ and /g/ and took the pretest of English phonemic awareness of pair /f/ and /v/. From the seventh through the sixteenth period, students in the experimental group repeated activities in the English consonant pairs /f/ and /v/, and /s/ and /z/. Additionally, in the eighteenth period, nine participants, consisting of three participants from each of the good, fair, and poor groups, were randomly selected to join a semi-structured interview.

As regards taking each phonemic awareness test, participants in both the experimental and control groups were limited to 20 minutes. Moreover, practicing phonemic awareness with a multimedia CALL program took 60 minutes for each period and one assistant attended the computer laboratory with the participants in the experimental group in order to help them when they had questions or problems while practicing. The assistant was an American teacher who taught English at primary level – grades one to six. Furthermore, the interview section took between 5 to 10 minutes each person.

D. Data Analysis

Quantitative data analysis: a quantitative statistical analysis was conducted using the data obtained from the phonemic awareness tests. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation). The *t*-test was used to discover whether there were significant differences within the experimental group and the control group; moreover, between the experimental group and the control groups in terms of the scores gained from the pretests and posttests.

Qualitative data analysis: a qualitative data analysis was conducted with the data obtained from the semi-structured interview. All the information from the interviewed was analyzed using content analysis; thus, the data was classified into positive or negative views.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Quantitative Findings

Results of phonemic awareness tests of the experimental group and the control group: the results of the quantitative data showed that the students in the experimental group who were supported by a multimedia CALL program in combination with the use of the whole word approach could improve their English phonemic awareness. The students in the experimental group obtained higher scores on three posttests of phonemic awareness tests compared to the pretests. This revealed that phonemic awareness appears to be improved by a supportive tool, such as a multimedia CALL program.

TABLE I.
COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PRETESTS AND POSTTESTS OF PHONEMIC AWARENESS
TESTS FOR /K/ AND /G/, /F/ AND /V/, AND /S/ AND /Z/ OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND THE CONTROL GROUP

Variable	Group	Pretest		Posttest		t	p
		M	SD	M	SD		
/k/ and /g/	Experimental	5.72	1.14	11.20	1.35	26.20	.000
	Control	5.64	1.08	5.76	1.13	.50	.622
/f/ and /v/	Experimental	5.84	.90	10.68	1.63	18.90	.000
	Control	5.80	1.26	5.36	1.41	-2.68	.013
/s/ and /z/	Experimental	5.64	.91	10.64	1.50	16.37	.000
	Control	5.68	1.18	5.60	1.35	-.70	.491

According to Table I, for the phonemic awareness test of /k/ and /g/, the posttest score of the experimental group was higher than the pretest score at the .001 significance level. Conversely, the posttest score of the control group was only slightly higher than the pretest score. That is, there were no significant differences in the posttest scores of the control group.

With regard to the score from the phonemic awareness test of /f/ and /v/, the posttest score of the experimental group was higher than the pretest at the .001 level of significance. The posttest score of the control group was lower than the pretest.

Likewise, for the phonemic awareness test of /s/ and /z/, the posttest score increased, compared to the pretest at the .001 significance level. Meanwhile, the posttest score of the control group decreased slightly, compared to the pretest.

The results of the present research were consistent with studies of researchers in the fields of phonemic awareness and CALL programs. The first study was Mitchell and Fox (2001), in which there were higher gains after practicing phonemic awareness with multimedia programs. The researcher investigated the effect of multimedia computer programs on increasing American children's phonemic and phonological awareness. Their results showed that 36 kindergarten and 36 first grade students improved their phonemic and phonological awareness. This demonstrates that a multimedia CALL program is effective as a supportive tool for building phonemic awareness. It can be applied to assist not only young learners, but also children with a poor standard of English.

Additionally, the results of the present study were also in accordance with the research of Hodgson and Holland (2010), in which students obtained better scores after training through multimedia programs. Their study examined the effectiveness of interactive multimedia programs on the phonemic and phonological skills of at-risk American students in elementary school. The results revealed that 68 students who participated in their study gained higher scores for the whole group from the pretest to posttest. Consequently, this illustrates that students in general and special education programs can develop their phonemic awareness with an effective tool such as a multimedia CALL program.

Moreover, the results of the current study were also consistent with the study of Isakson, Marchand-Martella, and Martella (2011), in which phonemic awareness was improved through a phonemic awareness program. The researchers explored the effect of a phonemic awareness program in helping preschool children with developmental delays to develop their phonemic awareness. The results showed that the phonemic awareness of all five children with developmental delays were enhanced. The findings of the present study and the study of Isakson, Marchand-Martella, and Martella (2011), both demonstrate that the phonemic awareness of general students or children with developmental delays can be enhanced with an effective tool, such as a multimedia CALL program.

TABLE II.
ANALYSIS OF THE COVARIANCE OF PHONEMIC AWARENESS TESTS FOR
/K/ AND /G/, /F/ AND /V/, AND /S/ AND /Z/ BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUPS

Variable	Source of Variance	df	SS	MS	F	p-Value
/k/ and /g/	Pretest	1	22.34	22.34	20.10	.000
	Group	1	362.75	362.75	326.46	.000
	Error	47	52.22	1.11		
	Total	50	4040.00			
/f/ and /v/	Pretest	1	55.69	55.69	47.16	.000
	Group	1	348.44	348.44	295.03	.000
	Error	47	55.51	1.18		
	Total	50	3681.00			
/s/ and /z/	Pretest	1	35.67	35.67	27.00	.000
	Group	1	321.54	321.54	243.38	.000
	Error	47	62.09	1.32		
	Total	50	3712.00			

Results of phonemic awareness tests between the experimental and the control groups: In terms of the results of phonemic awareness tests between the experimental and the control groups, the experimental group made significantly greater gains in English phonemic awareness than the control group.

According to Table II, there were significant differences in the scores regarding three phonemic awareness tests for (/k/ and /g/), (/f/ and /v/), and (/s/ and /z/) between the experimental and control groups stood at the .001 level of significance. Additionally, the posttest score was higher than the pretest score, with the statistically significant

difference at .001. It shows that the students in the experimental group got higher scores in the three posttests than the students in the control group. As a result, phonemic awareness can be enhanced through a multimedia CALL program.

The results were in accordance with three research studies, in which there were greater gains after training with multimedia program. Firstly, the findings were relevant to the research of Hecht and Close (2002). Forty-two kindergarten students were assigned to learn with phonemic awareness software; however, another 34 students received no training. The study revealed that the students in the treatment group had better scores on the posttest than the students in the control group.

Secondly, the findings of the present study were also consistent with Cassady and Smith (2003). The researchers assigned the kindergarteners in the experimental group practice of phonemic and phonological awareness with a computer program while the control group did not receive any supplement. Subsequently, the results revealed that the experimental group developed and performed better at phonemic awareness than the control group. Lastly, the outcome of the present study was also in accordance with the study of Macaruso and Walker (2008). Forty-seven elementary school students in the experimental group were trained with a computer program as another 47 students in the control group undertook language arts activities in a regular classroom. After training, the experimental group improved more in the posttest scores than the control group. In the current study, the results are similar to the three studies mentioned earlier because the students who received a multimedia CALL program improved more in English phonemic awareness than the students who did not. Hence, it can be seen that a multimedia CALL program is effective to use as a supportive material in assisting young children to enhance their phonemic awareness of English.

B. Qualitative Findings

Nine participants, comprising three participants from each of the good, fair, and poor groups, were randomly selected to be interviewed in this study on their views on improving phonemic awareness through a multimedia CALL program while learning the English language through the whole word approach. The findings from the semi-structured interview are presented as follows:

When the three participants from each of the good, fair, and poor groups were asked “Do you enjoy learning through the *Enjoy the Sounds!* program at the computer laboratory? Why or why not?”, all participants answered “Yes”. This indicated that they all enjoyed practicing phonemic awareness through the multimedia CALL program while learning the English language through the whole word approach. Below are the responses they gave in support of their answers:

“I enjoy learning through the multimedia CALL program because I feel like I am playing a game and the program also contains many fun songs.” (Students A and H)

Additionally, nine participants also were asked “Do you enjoy learning English in the classroom? Why or why not?”. Six participants enjoyed it and their responses are shown below:

“Yes. Teacher gives me and my friends many activities to do such as singing, dancing, and painting.” (Students A and D)

However, three participants expressed some negative views towards learning English in the classroom. For example:

“No, I do not enjoy it because sometimes I cannot answer questions teacher asks me and my classmates laugh at me.” (Student E)

On the other hand, nine participants were asked the question “Which one do you like the most – learning through the *Enjoy the Sounds!* program at the computer laboratory or learning English in the classroom? Why?” All participants chose learning with the *Enjoy the Sounds!* program at the computer laboratory since they could learn by themselves and it was more attractive. All of the responses are shown below:

“I like learning with the Enjoy the Sounds! program because I can practice lessons by myself.” (Students A, C and H)

From these results, it can be concluded that Thai grade one students had positive views on enhancing phonemic awareness through the multimedia CALL program. They were both motivated by and interested in the program. The results are consistent with the research of Hecht and Close (2002), in which students who learned through a multimedia program enjoyed this style of learning. The researcher interviewed kindergarten students who had been given activities through multimedia computer software in order to investigate their attitude towards developing phonemic awareness with multimedia computer software after training for six months. The findings of the study showed that they all had positive attitudes towards practicing their phonemic awareness through this material. The results of the study and the study of Hecht and Close (2002) demonstrate that kindergarten students enjoy practicing phonemic awareness through this instructional material; additionally, this material can motivate students to learn English.

The findings of the current study are also in accordance with the study of Hodgson and Holland (2010), in which students enjoyed and were motivated in learning with multimedia program. Forty students of elementary school were interviewed to explore their opinions on learning phonemic and phonological skills with the interactive multimedia program. The results showed that all 40 students enjoyed and were interested in practicing phonemic and phonological skills with the interactive multimedia program. These two studies draw similar conclusions which show that the participants enjoyed practicing phonemic awareness through this material.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, English phonemic awareness of Thai grade one students can be enhanced by the use of a multimedia CALL program in combination with the use of the whole word approach. Furthermore, all students provided a multimedia CALL program had positive views towards improving phonemic awareness through the multimedia CALL program while learning the English language through the whole word approach. This seems to indicate that a multimedia CALL program is effective as a supportive tool for building phonemic awareness. A multimedia CALL program can also increase students' interest and motivation because it can be created with a variety of activities that can encourage students to practice phonemic awareness (Nurulumama, 2010). Moreover, it can produce a positive language learning environment because students find the program enjoyable and thus it encourages them to learn the language (Gunduz, 2005).

V. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Firstly, there are many problematic consonant pairs of English that Thai EFL learners find difficulty in perceiving, discriminating, and pronouncing. Consequently, more research should create a multimedia CALL program or other materials to improve other problematic consonant pairs – not only the three pairs of /k/ and /g/, /f/ and /v/, and /s/ and /z/.

Secondly, due to the fact that the Center for the Improvement of Early Reading Achievement [CIERA] (2003) has classified phonemic awareness into eight levels, the researcher of this study chose only three levels of phonemic awareness. The researcher suggests that further study should enhance more complex phonemic awareness levels of Thai EFL learners.

Thirdly, this study was conducted with grade one students. It is recommended that further studies should be conducted with other grade levels of students or other groups of students in different contexts.

Lastly, this study used semi-structured interviews as one of the research instruments to obtain the views of nine students towards developing phonemic awareness through a multimedia CALL program while learning the English language through the whole word approach. It is suggested that further study should be conducted with a greater sample size which may help to gain more credible and detailed information regarding grade one students' views.

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Analysis of “Five-internal-organ” Relationship in College English Writing from the Perspective of "Five-element Model"

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Abstract—In this paper, the five-element theory and traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) Five-viscera Theory will be applied into the field of College English Writing (CEW). The characteristics and properties of the Traditional Five Elements and the Five Internal Organs have been in analogy to the five main elements in CEW, including idea, semantic aspect, grammatical aspect, lexical aspect and cohesion, the relationship among which will be verified based on the Generating Cycle and Restraining Cycle that are internal driving forces functioning in Five-viscera System of Chinese Culture, before coming to a conclusion that a dialectical unity relationship reinforcing each other exists in the elements of CEW.

Index Terms—Five Elements, Five Internal Organs, College English Writing, mutual generating and mutual restraining

I. INTRODUCTION

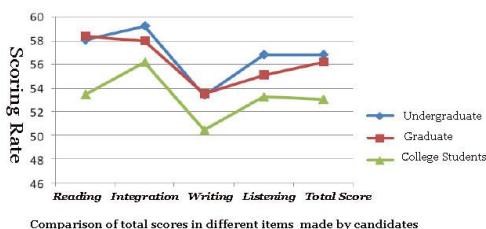
Creating specific writing lesson for Chinese English learners is challenging and time consuming for English teachers, but it is definitely worth the effort. In my experience, teaching writing through the perspective of traditional TCM five-viscera theory does interest students. This article will suggest a motivating way to teach writing with perceptions of relationship of “Five Internal Organs” of College English Writing (CEW) base on the perspective of “Five-Element Model”.

Can *Wuxing*, the traditional five-element theory be applied into the practice of English writing? The answer is YES. As we all know, in traditional Chinese medicine (TCM), the characteristics and properties of the Traditional Five Elements (Metal, Wood, Water, Fire, Earth) and the Five Internal Organs (Lung, Liver, Kidney, Heart and Spleen) have similar associations with the five elements in English writing: A) Grammatical Range & Accuracy; B) Coherence & Cohesion; C) Lexical Resource; D) Voice and Main Ideas; E) Task Response(meaning), the relationship among which will be verified based on the Generating Cycle and Restraining Cycle that are internal driving forces functioning in Five-viscera System of TCM. A conclusion will be made that a dialectical unity relationship reinforcing each other exists in the elements of English writing, and an effective output could take place if the five elements in English writing are considered sufficiently.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Current Teaching Practice of English Writing

In FL teaching of China, the development of writing skills has been emphasized in senior middle schools. Because of the complexities of writing, many teachers in university simply avoid the area, instead concentrating on reading and translation.



Writing is an effective way to communicate and express students' thoughts, feelings and opinions to others. English writing plays an important role in English teaching. As it is known to us all, written language is closely related to spoken language. It is impossible that a student who is poor in writing may be good at speaking, listening or reading. Learning English aims at using what we learned to write and speak. Remembering what we learned is only the first step. Additionally, writing, as one of the productive skills, should be viewed as ways and means to learn a foreign language.

In recent years, the use of new teaching materials and the changes of items in the College Entrance Examination, marks of writing have been raised. So writing becomes relatively effective means to exam students' comprehensive language proficiency.

There is a consensus among many experts and scholars in China and abroad that writing is conducive to the improvement of English proficiency. The statistic of CET-4 writing samples from the second half year of 2012 shows that Chinese college students are the poorest in writing test compared with other item testing (see figure below, by Jin Yan, 2013).

Over observation, most Chinese college students have less sense of wholly structured arrangements. Some of them have no bright thesis statement, some have no clear task response, and some have grammatical errors. Actually, the instructions of writing task are clear and concise, which ensure that candidates have something to say, a purpose for saying it and audience in mind when they write. However, the result seems a bit bad.

B. Five Viscera (zang-fu Organs) in TCM

Creating specific writing lesson for Chinese English learners is challenging and time consuming for English teachers, but it is definitely worth the effort. In my experience, teaching writing through the perspective of traditional TCM five-viscera theory does interest students. It is beneficial to illustrate students the important relationship of "Five Internal Organs" of English Writing by analogy with the traditional Five-Element Theory,

TCM holds that human life is a physiological process in constant motion and change. The understanding of the human body is based on the holistic understanding of the universe as described in Daoism, and the TCM approach treats zang-fu organs as the core of the human body, which are connected through a network of channels and blood vessels inside human body. Diseases of body surface tissues may also affect their related *zang or fu* organs (viscera). Affected *zang or fu* organs may also influence each other through internal connections. TCM treatment starts with the analysis of the entire system, then focuses on the correction of pathological changes through readjusting the functions of the zang-fu organs: heart, liver, spleen, lung, and kidney. They are related to Five Elements in the nature: WOOD, FIRE, EARTH, METAL and WATER. As there are similar properties. TCM practitioners used to address them together and thought that there exists two circular cycle systems in human body. One cycle is called generating cycle: lung METAL producing kidney WATER, kidney WATER nourishing liver WOOD, liver WOOD feeding heart FIRE, heart FIRE resulting in spleen EARTH, spleen EARTH generating lung METAL. The other cycle is named as restraining cycle: lung METAL restraining liver WOOD, liver WOOD restraining spleen EARTH, spleen EARTH restraining kidney WATER, kidney WATER restraining heart FIRE, heart FIRE restraining lung METAL.

When applied to TCM, the theory of five elements is used to explain both physiological functions and pathological changes and guide clinical diagnosis and treatment according to the properties of the five elements and their generation, restriction, subjugation and counter-restriction relationships. Each of the internal organs, according to the theory of five elements, pertains to one of the five elements. For example, the liver prefers to grow freely and dislikes depression, so it pertains to wood; the heart pumps blood to warm the body, thereby it pertains to fire; the spleen is responsible for transforming and transporting cereal nutrients to all parts of the body, thus it pertains to earth; the lung is marked by the functions of purification and descending, for that reason it pertains to metal; the kidney is in charge of storing essence and governing water, therefore it pertains to water.



The properties of the five elements serve as an analogy to explain the physiological functions of the five zang-organs. The manifestations of the mutual promoting relationship among the five zang-organs can be generalized according to the motion order of the five elements.

The liver promoting the heart means wood generating fire, such as the liver storing blood to supplement the heart; the heart promoting the spleen means fire generating earth, such as heart yang warming the spleen; the spleen promoting the lung means earth generating metal, such as "the essence distributed by spleen qi flowing upward into the lung"; the lung promoting the kidney means metal generating water, such as downward flowing of pulmonary qi supplementing the kidney water; the kidney promoting the liver means water generating wood, such as the kidney storing essence to nourish blood in the liver; etc

III. APPLICATION IN ENGLISH WRITING

A. *Yin and Yang in Writing*

As an ancient philosophical concept, the five elements of viscera works in an interactive and harmonious way. In language education, specially when teaching writing, the learners and the teacher could be called Yin and Yang, as Chinese ancient proverb says, one empty container and five chariots of knowledge. In addition, the teacher and teaching methods, the learners and their learning strategies, the textbook (teaching and learning material) and ideas inside, the language itself and culture included could be considered as yang and yin, because the pair of two opposites exists in one unity, mutually interactive, and participates in activities on a larger scale.

The use of the concept of yin-yang is a pragmatic one. It would be meaningful to say certain quality is yang and the opposite is yin, only if this designation classifies these two objects or qualities into two existing categories where many other things or qualities or attributes have already been classified. The truth is the learners and the teacher could be classified into Yang and Yin, if we emphasize on learning autonomy, like learners in strong motivation to learn and teacher in employment burnout.

A normal and ideal state in language education is that teacher functions as controller, director, manager, facilitator, and resource (H. Douglas Brown,1994), who interact and make two-way process of communication with classroom learners that have the willingness to listen, to experiment, to ask questions, to think about how to learn, to accept correction and to face up to making mistakes (Jeremy harmer ,1983), or classroom learners who have positive cognition, intrinsic motivation for meaningful learning, strategic investment of time, effort and attention , self-confidence, strong language ego(a second language identity), risk-taking to ask questions(H. Douglas Brown,1994), as interaction, the heart of communication, the collaborative exchange of thoughts, feelings, or ideas between or more people can result in a reciprocal effect on each other (Rivers, Wilga. 1987) put it this way: through interaction, students can increase their language store as they listen to or read authentic linguistic material, or even the output of their fellow students in discussions, skits, joint problem-solving tasks, or dialogue journals. To be exact, it is the interaction that produces Qi, a driving force existing in interacted discourse where learners and the teacher fulfill their objectives respectively for their roles being reversed. Just as what you see from the Figure 2, if teacher puts learners in her/his heart, and learners have teacher in their eyes, interaction between them would be possible. Meanwhile, when learning autonomy is increased, learners can be their own controller, director, manager or facilitator. There comes a state of unity, a dynamic equilibrium of educational functions, even in College English writing.

B. *Five Elements in Writing*

Here is a hypothesis: In College English writing, as a holistic view, there might be five elements similar to traditional Five Elements and Five Zang Organs, and the inner mechanism principle could be applied into College English Writing practice. Actually, there is the same attributes and characteristics?

Firstly, Each Chinese character is meaningful, even the constructing part of Chinese characters has specific meaning. The Chinese characters for “liver, spleen, lung, kidney ” has a common side construct, named “moon (yue) ”, a visible container; the word “HEART (xin)” has no “moon” construct, invisible, immaterial, and in line with the characteristics of fire’s being up forth coming. The WOOD, EARTH, METAL and WATER is under going or downward (Chen Junyu, 2012). *Huangdi Neijing*, also known as The Inner Canon of *Huangdi* or Yellow Emperor's Inner Canon, an ancient Chinese medical text mentions that HEART is the well-knit God governing mind and thoughts speaking out. In TCM, “God” orders the meridians to carry and distribute Qi and blood to all parts of the body, and connect the organs, limbs and joints. Therefore, in EFL, the heart should be the central idea of correspondence in English writing. As we know, when choosing a topic, we need to find ways to unlock the hidden ideas we have in our minds,, by brainstorming, free writing and looping techniques so as to generate ideas.

Secondly, the element of EARTH is the mother of all things, biochemical, nourishing all things. According to TCM, the organ spleen, is the source of Qi and blood, functioning as transporting water essence. Moreover, the spleen governs body muscles, with hidden nutrition. Similarly, the much semantic essence in meaningful context of EFL can be viewed as spleen. As we all now, after we explore our ideas, we need to put them into paragraph form, keeping in mind how showing and using facts and statistics makes writing powerful and convincing. The element of our intended meaning has to be conveyed to readers successfully. This step can be very fascinating adventure. By stepping out of our own selves and discover the impact of our words on the thoughts and eyes of our readers. Reediting and revising what we have created is a good way to make your meaning communicated effectively. Anyway, meaning is the mother of any compositions.

Thirdly, the corresponding viscera METAL element should be lung, which advocates fur, with vital Qi according to the Inner Canon of Huangdi (Hao Yi, 2011). In EFL, what is the fur of English writing? Surely the language message and grammatical rule are. Once we have made the necessary changes in your composition, we can rewrite it legibly, go over it carefully to see if the language sounds correct and the message seems complete and understandable. Most importantly, from the Chinese perspective, the message has to follow grammatical rules. In TCM, the lung governs air breathing, very consistent, and makes vital Qi moving smooth and forward until coming to a shape. Grammar is a system of rules governing the conventional arrangement and relationship of words in a sentence. Actually, the components of words (prefixes, suffixes, roots, verb and noun endings, etc.) are indeed a part of grammar. Here we not

only refer to sentence-level rules, but also the discourse rules which governing the relationship among sentences. Only all these grammatical form are correct, a good writing might be created, as the main function of grammar works as "breathing smoothly" (Liu Lihong, 2006).

In TCM, skeleton and bone belong to Kidney WATER, governing the flow of vital Qi and bones. In EFL, the element WATER seems like the piles and piles of words and phrases. In China, grammar was the major center of attention in language classes few decades ago. Nowadays vocabulary has become the focus of drills, exercises and memorization efforts. The semantic expression in English writing requires combined words and expressions to certain extend. Correspondingly, lexicon should make sense if compared to WATER, which is flowing and flexible and nutrition in feeding a discourse.

The final element WOOD is characterized by uprising, thriving, flourishing, generating, stretching, smoothing, literally springing forth of growth after long period of hibernation. WOOD, especially in spring, like the start of new life cycle, is associated with vigor, youth, and growth. It in energy is creative and expands up forward freely. In EFL writing class, what can be called WOOD is surely the linking words, which associates sentences, semantic forms and words. Based on the Inner Canon of *Huangdi*, liver WOOD belongs to Yin meridian, rather than meridian, so it should not classified as the surface of matter, but the hidden meridian. Coherence, as a hidden rule governing fluency and appropriate (Harmer J. 2000) is surely in analogy to WOOD.

IV. THE DIALECTICAL RELATIONSHIP

As a dialectical relationship exists in the five internal organs, there are some similar relationship among the such five writing elements as A) Grammatical Range & Accuracy; B) Coherence & Cohesion; C) Lexical Resource; D) Voice and Main Ideas; E) Task Response (meaning). The five aspects are corresponding with the minimum criteria proposed by Heaton (1988:146): language use; mechanics, Vocabulary; content; and organizations. They are also equal to the five elements claimed by Weir (1993:136): Grammar; Cohesion; adequacy of vocabulary for purpose; Appropriateness of language and layout; Content and organization. All these elements support the a good composition.

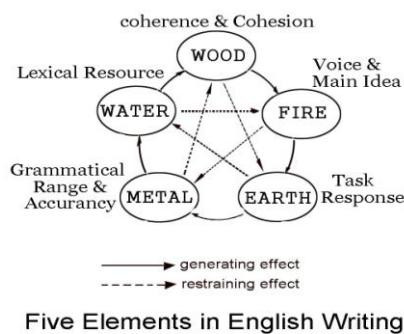
Weir 1993: 136	Heaton 1995: 146
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Relevance and adequacy of content ▶ Organization ▶ Cohesion ▶ Adequacy of vocabulary for purpose ▶ Grammar ▶ Punctuation ▶ Spelling ▶ Appropriateness of language to context, function and intention ▶ Appropriateness of layout 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▶ Content ▶ Organization ▶ Vocabulary (vocabulary range, idiomatic use of vocabulary) ▶ Language use (complexity of constructions) ▶ Mechanics (spelling, punctuation, writing conventions, capitalization, paragraphing etc.)

As to the generating cycle, the writer should have the view point or main ideas (Fire) first in her/is mind before expressing the meanings or messages clearly and directly, followed by appropriate structure where task responses can be reflected in each paragraph. Each passage should have correct grammatical form, varied, and accurate ranges. Coming to the next is the proper word choice and coherent writing text, which communicates the writer's voice about his thoughts, values or spirit. Just as the *Inner Canon of Huangdi* goes like that "the mortal body, is supported by bone-based stem, reinforced by a beam of the joints, piped by veins and meridians with flesh and skin surrounded here and there. Similarly, the five writing elements have the same functions which vocabulary and bones as skeleton, cohesion, coherence as the joints, and main ideas included in the context, where meaningful construction and grammatical form attached to the lexical chunks and items.

As for the Restraining Circle, accuracy featured by correct grammar usage affects the expression of cohesion and coherence. Less coherence restrains the output of meaning, which is more superior than fancy words. Word choice limits the effective and influent expression of points of view, which, in turn, has limited the vast usage of grammatical forms, as shown in figure 3.

This model can be seen in writing sentences, where cohesion and sentence structure are needed. Among the cohesive forms, lexical cohesion was the most prevalent. The use of lexical cohesion instead of other cohesive devices seems to be associated with the lexical resource and main idea. That is, lexical cohesion, by repeating words or phrases, seemed preferred for indicating textual relationships, rather than using substitution or reference. For example, a business English problem would be written in the following way:

John bought a *shirt* on sale for 50% off the original price. If the *shirt* originally cost \$25, what was the final sale price that *John* paid for the *shirt*? (Italics indicate lexical cohesion.)



Five Elements in English Writing

Notice in the example, the appropriate references such as "he" for John or "it" for shirt were not used. With respect to sentence structure, simple sentences were dominant, although some complex sentences were observed. It was interesting to note that the use of more complex sentence structures was subject to grammatical range and task response.

V. ANALYSIS OF SAMPLE WRITING

The below-mentioned sample writing is made by one of my college students who drafted the essay titled Love and Infatuation in FROZEN, after watching a cartoon movie FROZEN, which was American 3D computer-animated musical fantasy-comedy film produced by Walt Disney Animation Studios and released by Walt Disney Pictures.

There are two types of emotional sense: true love and infatuation. True love is a lasting long feeling, likely to include a process of "growing" in love, which cares about the loved person's merits and shortcomings, while infatuation is a sudden "falling" in love, which mainly concerns about one's own needs and satisfaction.

Prince Hans from Southern Isles attended Elsa's coronation Ceremony and fell in love with Princess Anna of Arendelle at the first sight. The young couple promised to marry each other. The end of the story told us that Hans was crazy about marrying into a throne of Kingdom Arendelle rather than the "loved" princess, as he had no chance to stand among his thirteen princes. It is evident that the short term feeling of relationship Princes Hans had towards Anna is infatuation instead of true love because true love is devoted to making the other person happy, while infatuation leads a person to a feeling of insecurity and no trust.

However, Kristoff, an ordinary Ice hunter from North Mountain could offer a hand to Anna when she was in trouble. He tolerated Anna's good and bad, and the concern for Anna developed naturally. When Kristoff knew that Anna might be drowned in danger, he returned to save Anna without hesitation. Obviously, Anna and Kristoff were able to get through their problems together, which showed that the feeling of true love meant to have one another in the eyes and take care of it forever.

A belief that the other person is beautiful is an important part of both infatuation and love, but a surface attraction is less important in true love. The couple in true love will usually build their relation on a broader base than just being drawn to a pretty face. True love involves a measure of belief in yourself and a degree of self-respect, a desire to sacrifice himself for your loved one, so that one may accept, respect and trust another person.

To make comments, i would like to say that this is a great essay, the main idea, language task, grammar, word choice, coherence, structure of paragraphs and sentences, are interacted, showing high level of English. Meanwhile, the comparison and contrast are clearly enlightened up.

Here is another simple writing of CET-4

Recently, museums in mounting numbers become admission-free to the public both home and abroad. The purpose of this practice is to offer more opportunities for citizens to explore and get easy access to the world of history, culture and knowledge.

Although free admission to museums enjoys distinct advantages, it also brings harmful effects. In the first place, these valuable cultural relics displayed may be damaged or destroyed consciously or unconsciously by the crowds. In the second place, it becomes a huge economic burden for museums to run as usual without any profits from the visitors.

It is my view that free admission to museums is of utmost significance. For one thing, we should appeal to our authorities to legislate strict laws and regulations to protect these museums. For another, we should cultivate the awareness of people that museums are extremely vital to us humans. It is high time that we attached great importance to our motherlands' splendid and glorious culture of more than five thousand years

Obviously, this composition shows strict arrangements of ideas. The main viewpoint is "Free admission to museums is of utmost significance". At opening sentence, the author states the purpose of taking free admission to museums, like offering more opportunities for citizens to explore, getting easy access to the world of history, culture and knowledge. and in the closing sentences, the author clarifies two actions, which echoes the opening sentences. It is the coherence and cohesion that generate proper main ideas (proper action to be taken can offset or inhibit the harmful effects caused by free admission to museums) , which are supported by correct word selection and grammar correction.

VI. SUMMARY

This analysis of Chinese Traditional Five-Element Theory applied in EFL or ESL where English writing is often taught, is just an attempt to explore the overall relationship among all element of writing. As a matter of fact, should all elements be carefully considered, an excellent article would be produced naturally, even though some hypothetical classifications of elements and relationships tend to be valuable for future empirical test. As a specific perspective of teacher's action research, it is necessary to consider the dynamic balance among all elements and find the right ways to deal with the troubling teaching issues. Anyway, this research opens up new paths for dynamic and effective classroom writing tips in EFL field.

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The Deviant Features of Trade Advertising Register in Arabic

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Abstract—Arabic, like all the world languages, has different regional varieties (dialects). Ferguson puts such dialects under the term *LOW VARIETY* of a language which generally deviates from the standard language model. The language of advertising, for example, deviates from the standard language. It has fore-grounded linguistic features and carries a style of language characterized by being persuasive and attractive. The linguists formulate a systematic and scientific model for this highly idiosyncratic use of language. In this paper, I collected some planned linguistic deviations in the written form of trade advertising in Arabic. These advertising expressions are analyzed at different linguistic levels; namely, phonological, morphological, syntactical and semantical. This study aims to throw lights on: 1- How the language of trade advertising in Arabic is constructed. 2- The extent in which the trade advertising variety in Arabic is different from the standard variety. 3- The purpose and role of inviting the trade advertising register. 4- Whether we can use the register of trade advertising in any other register.

Index Terms—advertising register, deviation, nonce- word, fore-grounding

I. INTRODUCTION

Needless to say, language is the best way to convey messages either through written or spoken forms. The written form (standard) is generally based on the high variety of language. However, the low variety is often accompanied by the spoken form (dialects). The literate native speakers of a language are able to cope with the spoken and written forms of the high variety of that language while those who are illiterate can communicate through only the spoken form of that variety. The low variety of Arabic, for example, has different regional dialects. Each dialect has linguistic features which differ from those of the others. This sociolinguistic phenomenon makes the people who belong to different geographical areas unable to fully cope with some linguistic items of the other communities. This, as I guess, is attributed to the peculiarities of those varieties and their being linguistically away from the norms of the standard (High Variety).

Institutional linguistics has witnessed a great development in realizing that the study of sub-languages and registers deserves greater scholarly attention than ever. Mehrotra (2000) says:

It is particularly so when the stylistic, pedagogical and descriptive views are involved. This clearly indicates a shift of emphasis from the "universalist tradition" to the tradition often termed as "particularist" stressing variation and change within a language in accordance with the divergences in communicative situations. (p. 18)

Crandall (1992) mentions that in the field of professional use of languages, each profession has its own code that has some items which cannot be easily deciphered by some people who are outside the circle of that profession. i.e., the members of each profession use a variety of a language which may not be understood by the hearer/addressee. The farmers of specific region, for instance, have some linguistic items understood by them exclusively because these items are circulated among them only. The same idea applies to physicians, businessmen, journalists, politicians, etc. The reason behind the difficulty in understanding the linguistic items by lay-persons is due to their deviation from the standard norms. In other words, the members of each profession communicate with each other by using a specific linguistic repertoire. This observable fact is not a defect in a lingo but I consider it a healthy phenomenon for any living language.

Linguists have examined communication among members of the same profession as well as between professionals and laypersons. They analyze the special register, discourse or speech involved. Generally speaking, members of different professions focus on content in a message, while linguists are more often interested in the language used in conveying messages. However, in those professions where a major objective is persuasion, language and techniques of communication are as important as the content of the message (*ibid*).

What concerns me here is the planned deviation, as Chapman (1987) calls it, in the written form of trade advertising. First, let us define the term "advertising". According to the definition of the Committee of the American Marketing Association (CAMA) advertising is non personal communication of information usually paid for and usually persuasive in nature about product, services or ideas by identified sponsors through the various media. Advertising is a style of immediate impact and rapid persuasion. The word "advertise" originates from the Latin word "advertere", which means "to turn one's attention to". The point of an advertisement is to persuade you of the merit of a particular product or

service, in order that you will part with some of your money. In general, whether the medium is print, radio or television, the advertiser can rely on your attention for only a very short time, and therefore the sales message must be short, clear, distinctive and memorable (Gove, 1976). Accordingly, linguists concentrate on studying the linguistic features that add power to the language of advertising. The producers and sellers of goods linguistically use a fore-grounded language to market their products. Such a language is not understood by only a specific group of people, but the advertisers try to select a style of a language that makes all people with their different classes, cultural backgrounds, and education levels understand it to buy those products. Leech (1966) says that the linguists who analyze the language of advertising point out to some features of the language of advertising. They share the same impression about it as simple and contain a strong verb. Advertising often pretends to be talking to the prospective customers. There is, therefore a heavy use of second person pronoun (you), especially at the beginning of clauses (imperative clauses). Others like Bollinger (1979) note the use of metaphors to unite product with admired concepts and of creative spelling and prosodic cues. Ogilvy (1983) points that the advertisers advise adhering to similar principles: holding attention, involving the audience in the message, and using language which is edited, purposeful, simple, direct and rich. The visible meaning of that advertisement sounds strange, bizarre and amazing. The advertisers have potential ability to depend on shared assumptions and expectations. The investigation of these two senses supports us with some insight into how to be more communicated with the hidden meaning than what is written. Pragmatically speaking, the invisible meaning is the cornerstone in the trade advertising. That is to say, when we read a trade text, we think about what is meant even when it is not actually written (Yule, 1997).

The example below is a name of a store written in the English language. It shows how the clear meaning in the language of advertising is not as vital as the invisible one.

A- BABY AND TODDLER SALE

Pragmatically, the advertiser here wants us to think not only about what words mean, but also about what he intends them to mean. In the normal context of our present society, we suppose that this store did not go into the business of selling young children from the store, but rather, it advertises clothes for babies. In short, this sentence is semantically deviant, because there is no collocation between **BABY**, **TODDLER** and **SALE** and surely babies can not be sold. This deviation lets the readers think about the invisible meaning.

Interestingly, I may say this sentence is also syntactically fore-grounded. The advertiser violates the rules of grammar by omitting the possessive phrase ('s & clothes) and the form of the sentence would be:

B- BABY AND TODDLERS' CLOTHES SALE.

This form is still odd grammatically because the subject of the sentence is missing. The correct form of the sentence according to the rule of grammar is:

C- WE SELL BABY AND TODDLER'S CLOTHES.

S V O

The sentence in the correct form (C) looks normal because it follows the grammatical norm of English language. The advertisers think that this method of constructing the language does not suit the advertising register because it has no power to attract the customers. However, the form (A) is more persuasive and suits the trade register. Trade advertising belongs to the category of short-text registers where a mere peripheral glance can put forward the form and the content of the message (Mehrotra, 2000). The analysis of this blurb¹ shows that writers normally make their style conform to the social function and formal conventions of a particular text type or genre. They do that because they want the readers to be socially tuned in to them.

Trade advertising in Arabic is the same. The advertisers make an effort to choose a peculiar register of language that persuades, attracts and magnetizes the customers for the purpose of marketing the products. Such a register which comes under the low variety is linguistically fore-grounded.

II. METHODOLOGY

In this paper, I present some samples out of a huge number of planned deviant trade advertising texts which are used in Arabic. They are analyzed at various levels of linguistics namely; phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and stylistics to identify the extent they are against the language norms of Arabic.

¹- A blurb is a text the publisher prints on the jacket or cover of a book or name of trade houses to give the potential readers an idea of what it is about, though obviously its primary purpose is to stimulate sale.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

	Arabic	transcription	English
1	طع 100 على كيفك	Ta'amiah ala kifek	Ta'amiah suits your mood
2	طخ X ضات	Takhfidha	discounts
3	قرص لوقر والحب يكبر اسرع بداعيه ابطئ نهاية اجمل حكاية	qurs lover walhub yekber. Asraa bidaiah, abttaa nihayah, ajmel hikaiah	Lover tablet and the love grow. Quick start, slow end and the best tale
4	شوارما على كيفك جربها مراره، تجربنا كل مراره	(Shawarma ala kifek. Jerrabha marrah, tijina kul marrah	Shawarma suits your mood Try it once, you will come always)
5	دولوني عليك	Dallluny alayk	They guided me to you
6	هو ده شعبان بناع السمك اللي بيقولوا عليه	hwua dah Shaaban bitaa assamak elly bi-yuqlu alih	Is this Shaaban's fish store the people talk about?
7	الورشة الفنية لتشخيص واصلاح امراض السيارات	Alwarshah alfanyiah litashkhis wa islah amradh assaiyarat	The workshop for diagnosing and repairing the cars' diseases
8	سمينا بنفسك	Sammina binafsak	you name us
9	بدون اسم	Bidun ism	without a name
10	اخى السائق: اطفال ليس لديهم فرامل وهذه مسؤولياتك	Akhi assa'eq: Al'aatfal bidoon faramel, hathihi mas'oletak)	Brother Driver: The children are without brake, this is your responsibility
11	ستي ماكس	City Max	City Max
12	ماجي لاند	Magic land	Magic land
13	وينتج لاند	Wedding land	Wedding land
14	ستي سموك	City Smoke	City Smoke
15	براندز فور لاس	Brands for Less	Brands for Less

These data of trade advertising will be investigated linguistically as follows:

1- (طع 100 على كيفك -)

This advertisement language is written in this way so as to attract the viewers. One should read it three or four times with concentration to decipher and understand its invisible meaning. If we analyze it morphologically, we note that this blurb violates the word formation norms. The writer invents orthographically a new word by combining the numerical item with alphabetical letters to create a new word (100 طع). Wales (1989) in his Dictionary of Stylistics calls this process "NONCE-WORD" where the writer coins a word which is used only once and never accepted through wider circulation. Here for a commercial purpose, the new orthographical shape of the word (طعمية) is replaced by another attractive and funny one which is (100 طع).

Syntactically, this advertisement breaks down the structure of the language. Only the object of the sentence is mentioned. The other parts of the sentence (subject + verb) are deleted for the advertising purpose. The correct form would be:

نحن نقدم طعمية على كيفك

-We provide Ta'amiah suits your mood.
S V O

Stylistically this planned fore-grounding is called ellipsis. It helps to focus on new or more important information. It is common in registers where economy is highly needed.



2- (طخ X ضات - Discounts)

Morphologically this word is coined in a deviant way. It is formed against the rules of word formation. The writer intentionally inserts the mathematical sign (X) in the middle of the word to stand for the deleted letters (فيـin) to create a nonce word called (discount- طخ X ضات). Phonologically, the correct word is (طخ ضات) not (طخ X ضات). i.e., (تـ) sound, which is plain alveolar, is the correct one instead of (ـطـ) which is emphatic alveolar. However, the writer violates the phonological norms of the word by using the low phonological variety of Arabic instead of the high one.

Syntactically, only the object of the sentence is mentioned. The subject and the verb are deleted because such blurbs belong to the category of short-text registers where a mere word can put forward the form and content of the message (see the advertisement No. 1)

(**قرص لوفر والحب يكبر اسرع بدايه ابطن نهایه اجمل حكاية**) (*Lover tablet, and the love grows. Quick start, slow end, best tale*). (*qurs lover walhub yekber. Asraa bidaiah, abttaa nihayah, ajmel hikaiah-*)

Phonologically, this advertisement has the final rhymes with the words (لوفر lover - يكابر yekber) and (ابطن نهایه bidaiah - نهایه nihayah). The phoneme /r/ is repeated finally in the words (lover- yakber). Similarly, the words (حکایه hikaiah - نهایه nihayah - باتناه bidaiah) have the same final sound /-aiyah/. The advertiser makes creative use of language by using the phonological possibility of a language to serve his business purposes.

Syntactically, this blurb has parallelism where the texts (**Asraa bidaiah, abttaa nihayah, ajmel hikaiah-**) are all noun phrases. The syntactic structure of the parts of the sentence is identical. These parts are in close sequence and their structure is (Adj + N). Leech (1969) defines this register which carries an emotive function as a kind of fore-grounded regularity.

Semantically, the metaphorical design is impeded where the tablet (- لوفر lover) has the super power to give quick start slow end and good tale. Form the pragmatic point of view this visible meaning carries another invisible meaning that can be deciphered if it is purchased or asked about.

4- شوارما على كيفك جربها مره, تجينا كل مره (*Good Shawarma... Try it once, you/shawarma always will come*).

From the syntactic point of view, the final part of this blurb is ambiguous. It accepts two subjects (**YOU** and **SHAWARMA**). The first sentence (A) shows that the subject of the sentence is **YOU**, whereas the second one (B) shows that **SHAWARMA** is the subject of the sentence. See the sentences below:

A- شوارما على كيفك جربها مره, انت تجيئنا كل مره

-Good Shawarma, try it once, YOU will always come.

B- شوارما على كيفك جربها مره, الشوارما تجيئنا كل مره -

-Good Shawarma, try it once, SHAWARMA will always come

Of course sentence (A) is more acceptable but the way in which the text is written gives the possibility to accept sentence (B) as well. This linguistic deviation, which is used to create the advertisement targets, the customers' attention to try that food item.

The use of second person addressee “**you**” tends to shorten the distance between the product or the producer and consumers, as if the producer or the advertisement is speaking to you face to face and making sincere promises and honest recommendations. In so doing, the advertisement slogans stand a better chance to move the receiver or customers to action. Because the receiver feels that he is being thought of and taken care of and he is the center point of the producers.

5- (للوني عليك) (*They guided me to you*).

The advertiser sees that these two words are enough to be the name of a very big store. Semantically, the writer here uses a deliberate overstatement or exaggeration to an illogical degree. This process is called hyperbole. Galperin (1977) defines hyperbole as a device which prevents people from explaining things in their true dimensions. The advertiser uses the plural pronoun (**they**) as the subject of the sentence to tell the readers that a huge number of people, with their different social backgrounds, always visit this shop and are interested in buying its items. In short, this place is known to all and all people advise me to go to see it. Metaphorically, we infer that the writer of this advertisement depicts the store as a man we are talking to and telling him that “they guided me to you”

6- هو ده شعبان بتاع السمك اللي بيقولوا عليه (*Is this Shaaban's fish store people talk about?*).



This is the name of a fish store written in the Egyptian dialect. It is constructed in a conversational way. Semantically, as Ullman (1951) mentions that this text contains an interjection which acquires emotive meaning to arouse emotion. There is also metonymy in this text. The writer displays the abstract notion (the fame and reputation this store has all over the town) by using a concrete deviant linguistic register that is represented in the name of the shop.

7- (لورشة الفنية لتشخيص واصلاح امراض السيارات) (*The workshop for diagnosing and repairing cars diseases*)



Semantically, this funny name is deviant where the writer uses the device of metaphor. He transfers the quality from one object to another. He displays the cars as if they were human beings suffering from diseases and characterizes the mechanic as a physician who diagnoses and treats the illness of the cars. Such linguistic deviation is intended to serve the business interest.

8- سميّنا بنفسك (you name us)



Stylistically, the advertiser here uses a psychological method to catch the customers' attention. He asks the sightseers to visit the store first and then select a name for it. Though the store is one, the object of the sentence is written as a second person plural (you name us) to show that there are many branches for this shop. He bets that the visitors will be highly attracted and will be regular visitors to that store.

The use of first person addresser “we” and “us” is the most direct way to inform the receiver about the ideas, views and credit of the sponsor of an advertisement. It is a little bit like a self-introduction to the potential customers to let them know you, recognize you, believe you and trust you.

9- بدون اسم (without a name)



The title above, semantically, indicates that no name can rank their position. They are above all names.

10- (اخي السائق: الاطفال ليس لديهم فرامل وهذه مسؤوليتك - Brother Driver: The children are without brake, this is your responsibility).



Semantically, this text carries an ironic meaning. It addresses the driver to take care when driving nearby children's school. The words **CHILDREN** and **BRAKE** have no collocation because it is the cars not the children who have brake. Metaphorically, the text means that the children do not take care when crossing the streets. However, the driver himself should be highly alert and careful about kids when they are crossing the streets.

سيتي مارت- 11-	(City Mart)
ماجك لاند- 12-	(Magic land)
وينج لاند- 13-	(Wedding land)
سيتي سموك 14-	(City Smoke)
براندرز فور لس 15-	(Brands for Less)
هوني مون 16-	(Honeymoon)

The trade names (10-15) are English names written in Arabic letters without mentioning any more details. The meanings of these names are not known among, at least, 85% of the visitors. However, those names are talked about and visited by many people with their different educational backgrounds. Only one curious visit for each store will give impression about its contents. The visitors will understand that **CITY MART** is a supermarket that contains all household items. **MAGIC LAND** is a garden for children to play therein. **WEDDING LAND** is a store from where you can buy all wedding requirements. **CITY SMOKE** sells smokers' supplies. **BRANDS FOR LESS** gives discount. **HONEYMOON** is a store that sells all marriage accessories. The orthographic code switching of the shops names is a kind of language register that is used for persuasion and a reference to a sophisticated place for prestigious people. The owners of these stores are highly convinced that using the English names for their shops is the best way to sound unique and attract the customers, though this western tendency in advertising is not appreciated by some Arab ethnic groups.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Every profession has its unique register. Each register is characterized by having linguistic items. These items have no model in the high variety of a language and linguistically do not follow the norms of the standard variety. The language of advertisement in Arabic, which is the main concern of this paper, is alike. It is featured by being unique and constructed in a way that serves the business purposes. It is fore-grounded and it deviates from the rules of the standard Arabic as well. The linguists call this "planned deviation". Without being deviant, the language of advertisement would never be suitable to be used as an advertising register. Accordingly, they try to make a scientific study for the advertising register. Scientific study means to study the language of advertisement at different levels of linguistics particularly; phonologically, morphologically, syntactically semantically and stylistically. We try to shed light on the extent the language of advertisement deviates from the system of Arabic. The researcher finds that, the language of advertising in Arabic is constructed in an idiosyncratic way suits the marketing purposes only. This register is only used in advertising. We cannot use it in other purposes because it is not applicable. That is why the linguists agree on the idea that each profession has a specific, unique and exclusive register. The language of literature, for example, is different from the language of elections, and the language of religion is different from the language of policy, etc. That means we cannot use the linguistic features of advertising in any other profession because the linguistic features of the language of advertisement is totally different from the linguistic features of other registers. Accordingly, the gate of research is open to make linguistic studies on the deviant registeral features of each profession individually.

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A Comparative Study of English TENSE and French TENSE

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Abstract—Since English and French, under Indo-European family, are subject to different branches, these two languages have similarities and differences which are quite essential for Chinese students either majoring in English with French as their second foreign language or in French with English as their second foreign language. The similarities between English and French make it easier for students to learn French or English, while the differences usually confuse the students' French-learning or English-learning. And above all, when students learn French TENSE, they often compare it with English TENSE, trying finding the similarities and differences between these two languages. The present paper aims at conducting a comparative study of English and French TENSES to find out the similarities and differences in their usages and structures, which is significant to enhance the students' impression of two languages' TENSES and clarify some misunderstandings in both English TENSE and French TENSE learning.

Index Terms—English, French, TENSE, comparative study

I. INTRODUCTION

Both English and French belong to Indo-European family, but English is one of Germanic groups and French Romance. Despite the fact that the history of Normandy Conquest is more than nine centuries long, the effect of French on English is beyond measure. After Normandy Conquest, abundant French words were flooded into English, exerting a great influence on the development of English. Since the two languages are similar in such aspects as pronunciation, lexicology and grammar, the study of the relationship between them has always been a hot spot to discuss in the study of foreign languages.

In China, lots of English majors choose French as their second foreign language and vice versa. Whether in English-learning or French-learning, for one thing, students often mix up English and French TENSES because of the similar structures, for another, they hardly succeed in clarifying the TENSE¹—the combination of tense and aspect. On this occasion, it is necessary to elaborate quite clearly the English TENSE and French TENSE respectively and conduct a comparative study of these two TENSES to find out the similarities and differences in their usages and structures.

Based on the modern grammatical system's classification of TENSE, the present paper tries to compare English TENSE and French TENSE by adopting language contrastive analysis, generating significance on the language studies and foreign language teaching. Section 2 discusses the classification of English TENSE. Section 3 shows the classification of French TENSE. Section 4 compares the two languages in TENSE.

II. ENGLISH TENSE

English, a marginal language between synthetic and analytic ones, has a tendency to be analytic, for English usually features the grammar through the word order and the functional words. TENSE is an essential part of grammar.

TENSE, the dominant topic in this paper, is the combination of tense and aspect. In the modern grammar system, “a tense system is a system associated with the verb where the basic contrasts in meaning have to do with the location in time of the situation, or the part of it under consideration” (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p.44). But the modern grammar system indeed differentiate “time” and tense, “time” being a concept but tense a name illustrating different temporal concepts in different contexts, yet the relationship between “time” and tense in English is not at all straightforward. All of this is quite opposite to the explanation of traditional grammar system, that tense should be identified on the basis of reference to time distinction, in which case tense is basically equivalent to “time”. From modern system's view, “a grammatical form or construction qualifies as an aspect if its main use is to indicate how the speaker views the situation described in the clause with respect not to its location in time but to its temporal structure or properties” (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p.51).

Tense and aspect are independent grammatical categories, the former being inflectional and the latter analytic. “Modern grammatical system divides tense into present and preterit based on the inflections added to the end of verbs, and the aspect into perfective and progressive on the state where an action is” (Wu, 1993, p.78). Therefore, eight kinds of TENSES are born through combining the two tenses and the two aspects.

¹ TENSE refers to the combination of tense and aspect in this paper, while “tense” means the location of time.

A. *The Present Tense*

1. The present tense is basically used to indicate present time that coincides with the time of utterance, for example, Mike goes to school early everyday.

My new job is in many ways similar to that which I was doing previously.

2. The present tense is also used for situations located in future time.

a. Futurate

The futurate is the construction in which present tense is used in main clauses to specify future time by a time adjunct, for example,

Exams start next week.

The next plane is at 10 o'clock.

b. Subordinate clauses

I'll get in contact with you if I arrives in New York.

I hope you are feeling better soon.

B. *The Preterit*

The preterit is mainly used to locate the situation, or the part of it in past time, usually accompanied by the indicator of time. Actually, "It is not necessary, however, for the past tense to be accompanied by an overt indicator of time" (Quirk, 1985, p.184).

The People's Republic of China was founded in 1949.

He was born in 1903, died in 1969.

C. *The Present Progressive*

1. The present progressive, marked by auxiliary *be* followed by a gerund-participle, is used for the situation being in progress at the time of present utterance or present periods, for example,

I am reading the Chemical magazine.

She is working for the TV station now.

2. Non-durative verbs in the present progressive can indicate future reference, such as *go, come, leave, arrive, land, die, start, return, join*, etc.

He is leaving tomorrow.

D. *The Preterit Progressive*

The central meaning of the preterit progressive is to present the situation being in progress in past time, for example, She was waiting for us this time yesterday.

I was reading when someone knocked on the door.

Mr. White said that he was leaving for London next Monday.

E. *The Present Perfective*

The present perfective is marked by the auxiliary *have* or *has*, highlighting the situation located in the past. To some extent, the present perfective is similar to the simple preterit, but the difference lies in that the current relevance. "With the present perfect the past time situation is conceived of as having some kind of current relevance, relevance to the present, whereas the preterit does not express any such relationship" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p.49). For example, I have closed the door.

The example mentioned above indicates that the door is closed now.

We have done what we should do.

F. *The Preterit Perfect*

The preterit Perfect is composed of the auxiliary *had*, illustrating the situation located in the past relative to some other past time, for example,

He had already left when we arrived.

Mr. Brown had told me his plan before he left for America.

G. *The Present Perfect Progressive*

Marked by the auxiliary *have* or *has* and *been* followed by a gerund-participle, the present perfect progressive views a continuous situation located in the past, presented as being in progress and predicated to continue in the future, for example,

She has been teaching English for ten years.

Ever since their marriage, the couple have been getting along well with each other.

H. *The Preterit Perfect Progressive*

Marked by the auxiliary *had* and *been* followed by a past-participle, the preterit perfect progressive indicates a continuous situation located in the past relative to some other past time.

He had been waiting for you before I called him up.

The future tense is exclusive in modern grammar system, which however, does not mean that English can not indicate the situation relating to future alternatively. With the help of auxiliary verbs, English can be used for future situation freely. This paper would like to take *do* as an example, “will/shall do; be going to do; be doing; be about to do; be to do”. Moreover, as mentioned above, the simple present tense can also refer to the meaning regarding future tense.

III. FRENCH TENSE

French TENSE, like English one, is composed of tense and aspect. Tense is basically the reference to time distinction, regrading the situation located in the present, the past or the future. While aspect elaborates how the situation starts, ends or continues. Generally speaking, each French TENSE is out of three constituents—le mode, le temps et l'aspect. However, this paper focuses on the tense (le temps) and the aspect (l'aspect) of two languages. Le temps can be divided into le présent, le passé et le futur based on the situation's location in time and l'aspect into aspect duratif, aspect ponctuel, aspect inaccompli, aspect accompli, aspect itératif, aspect progressif, aspect inchoatif, aspect terminatif, aspect antérieur immédiat and aspect ultérieur imminent.

A. *Le Présent de L'indicatif*

1. From aspect's view, le présent de l'indicatif is inaccompli, which indicates the situation located in the time of utterance, for example,

—Que font les enfants?

—Ils jouent au football dans la cour.

Il est malade, mais il ne veut pas aller voir le docteur.

2. It indicates a situation occurring in the past but continuing till the time of utterance, for example,

Elle travaille depuis l'âge de 16 ans.

Il ne fume plus depuis plusieurs mois déjà

(cited from Zhou, 2011, p.114)

3. It indicates a situation located repetitively or habitually, for example,

Le Samedi, nous allons à la piscine.

Elle chante toujours sous la douche.

4. It signifies a well-known truth or fact, for example,

Le Soleil est une étoile.

L'union fait la force.

5. It can be used for a situation located in the future, for example,

Attendez-moi, je reviens tout de suite.

Je pars en vacances demain.

B. *Le Passé Composé*

Le passé composé is a complex tense, marked by le présent de l'indicatif de l'auxiliaire être or avoir and the past participle. It belongs to l'aspect accompli.

It is for an accomplished action relative to the time of utterance, for example,

C'est bon! J'ai enfin terminé mes devoirs.

Je t'ai acheté des cerises; je sais que tu adores ça.

(b) It indicates a situation located within certain time, for example,

Je t'ai attendu pendant cinq minutes.

Ce matin, je me suis levé trop tard.

(c) It emphasizes a present state (état présent) influenced by a situation located in the past, for example, Nicolas est parti il y a trois heures.

—Est-ce que tu as fini tes devoirs?

—Oui, je les ai déjà finis.

C. *L'imparfait*

1. It can be used for a continuous and unaccomplished action or state in the past time, without the clear starting or ending line, for example,

Elle était ouvrière avant d'entrer à l'université.

Sa femme habitait dans une vieille maison quand il était tout petit.

(cited from Zhou, 2011, p.128)

2. With continuation, it is for a situation in progress in the past time, for example,

Monsieur Richer n'a pas pu participer à cette réunion, parce qu'il était en voyage à l'étranger.

Le professeur est entré dans la classe, pendant que nous chantions et dansions.

3. It also indicates a situation located habitually in the past time, with the occurrence of such adverbs as toujours, souvent, chaque matin, toutes les semaines.

Quand j'étais petite; je me levais chaque jour à sept heures.

Autrefois, Eva faisait souvent de la natation.

Here, it is necessary to clear the differences between l'imparfait and le passé composé. The former indicates the past and continuous action whose starting and ending time are not known, while the latter offers the relevant occurring time. Besides, l'imparfait emphasizes the continuous situation repetitively or habitually located, but le passé composé focuses on the repetitive situation which are not continuous any more.

D. Le Passé Simple

1. Le passé simple is used for a situation located in the relatively far past time and separated with the current state, for example,

Il finit par rentrer.

Il se leva, prit son manteau, ouvrit la porte et disparut dans la nuit.

2. Le passé simple is mainly applied to describe historical events, stories, fictions and biographies, for example, Victor Hugo mourut en 1885.

Einstein naquit en 1879.

L'homme fut l'œuvre du sixième jour de Dieu.

E. Le Passé Immédiat

Le passé immédiat, composed of le présent de l'indicatif de venir de followed by the verb, for example,

Il vient de quitter Paris.

Je viens de boire une tasse de café.

F. Le Plus-que-parfait de L'indicatif

Marked by l'imparfait de être or avoir and the past participle, le plus-que-parfait de l'indicatif is usually used with le passé composé, l'imparfait or le passé simple, indicating the situation located in the past relative to another past time, for example,

Ma mère s'était couchée quand je suis rentré chez moi.

Il crut que je n'avais pas bien compris ses intentions.

Depuis que sa mère avait quitté elle restait à la maison.

G. Le Passé Antérieur

The grammatical meaning of le passé antérieur is the same as le plus-que-parfait de l'indicatif, except for one thing that le passé antérieur is only collocated with le passé simple, for example,

Quand ses parents furent partis, il alluma l'ordinateur.

Dès qu'elle eut fini ses devoirs, elleaida à faire le ménage.

Aussitôt qu'il fut parti, le directeur lui téléphona.

H. Le Futur Simple

Le futur simple indicates the situation located in the near or distant future.

1. It signifies a thing that will occur at a certain time in the future.

D'après les prévisions, l'avion atterrira ce soir à 21 heures.

Jean Pierre aura 60 ans en l'an 2013.

2. a continuous action in the future

L'année prochaine, nous passerons quelques semaines à l'anglais.

3. a situation located respectively in the near or distant future

Tous les matins, vous ferez une heure de gymnastique, puis vous irez courir vingt minutes.

I. Le Futur Antérieur

In the aspect, le futur antérieur belongs to l'aspect accompli; in the tense, it indicates the situation located in the future relative to another future time, accompanied by such temporal adverbs as quand, lorsque, dès que, aussitôt que, après que, for example,

Je te téléphonerai dès que je serai arrivé.

Quand tu auras fini tes travaillles, tu pourras sortir.

J. Le Futur Immédiat

Le futur immédiat, orally used, indicates the situation located in the future time closely associated with the present time, marked by le présent de l'indicatif d'aller followed by infinitif, for example,

Je vais rentrer chez moi.

On va passer des examens.

K. Le Futur dans Le Passé

Le futur dans le passé can indicate the situation located in the future relative to some past time, for example,

Le directeur leur avait dit qu'ils ne pourraient revenir à l'usine qu'avec des cheveux courts.

Je pense que je n'aurais aucune difficulté pour passer cet examen.
 (cited from Ma, 2010, p.412)

IV. THE COMPARISON BETWEEN ENGLISH TENSE AND FRENCH TENSE

A. *Le Présent de L'indicatif*

1. Le Présent de L'indicatif—The Present Tense

a. Le Présent de L'indicatif in French and the present tense in English both can signify the undoubtful fact or truth, for example,

La lune tourne autour de la Terre.

The moon moves around the earth.

月亮围着地球转。

b. the situation frequently or habitually located;

Tous les matins, je fais une promenade.

I take a walk every morning.

我每天早晨都会散步。

c. the current state or features possessed by a person or a thing;

Cette machine marche très bien.

This machine runs very well.

这台机器运行得很好。

2. Le Présent de L'indicatif—The Present Progressive

To some extent, le présent de l'indicatif in French is equal to the present progressive, signifying the situation being in progress at the time of present utterance or present periods, for example,

—Qu'est ce que tu fais?

—Je fais mes devoirs.

—What are you doing?

—I'm doing my homework.

—你正在干什么呢?

—我正在做作业。

3. Le Présent de L'indicatif—The Present Perfective

The great difference between French TENSE and English TENSE lies in that the former does not have perfective, instead, le présent de l'indicatif is used for the meaning expressed by the present perfective in English, for example,

Elle apprend l'anglais depuis 4 ans.

She has studied English for four years.

她已经学习了四年英语。

4. Le Présent de L'indicatif—Futurate

Like present tense in English, le présent de l'indicatif in French can be used for situations located in future time, for example,

Je pars demain.

I start tomorrow.

我明天就动身。

B. *L'imparfait*

1. L'imparfait—The Preterit Progressive

a. the situation being in progress at the time of past periods;

Quand je suis entré, Pierre regardait la télévision.

When I came in, Pierre was watching TV.

当我进来的时候，皮埃尔正在看电视。

Il regardait la télévision pendant que nous faisions nos devoirs.

While he was watching TV, I was doing my homework.

当他在看电视的时候，我正在做作业。

b. the characters of objects or surroundings;

Il pleuvait hier.

It was raining yesterday.

昨天下了雨。

La neige couvrait la terre.

The snow was covering over the ground.

雪覆盖着大地。

2. L'imparfait—The Preterit

Il travaillait toujours jusqu'à minuit.
He always worked till the mid-night.
过去，他总是工作到深夜。
Avant, il habitait à la campagne.
He lived in the village in the past.
他过去住在乡村。

C. *Le Passé Simple*

Le Passé Simple—The Preterit
La République Populaire de Chine fut proclamée le 1er Octobre 1949.
The People's Republic of China was founded on October 1st, 1949.
中华人民共和国成立于 1949 年 10 月 1 日。

In French, le passé simple, less frequently used than l'imparfait, finds its place in writings.

D. *Le Passé Composé*

1. Le Passé Composé—The Present Perfective
J'ai porté mon parapluie.
I have carried my umbrella.
我已经带上雨伞了。
2. Le Passé Composé—The Preterit
Il est né en 1902.
He was born in 1902.
他生于 1902 年。

E. *Le Passé Immédiat*

Le Passé Immédiat—The Present Perfective/The Preterit
Je viens de finir mon travail.
I have just finished my work./I finished my work just now.
我已经完成我的作业了。/我刚刚完成我的作业。
Marie vient d'écrire une lettre à ses parents.
Mary has written a letter to her parents./ Mary wrote a letter to her parents.
玛丽给她父母写了一封信。

F. *Le Plus-que-parfait de l'indicatif*

Le Plus-que-parfait de l'indicatif—The Preterit Perfective
To some extent, it is similar to the preterit perfective not only in the meaning expressed but in the structure, for example,
Pierre avait déjà parti pour Allemand quand nous avons arrivé ici.
Pierre had already left for Germany when we arrived here.
当我们到达这里的时候，皮埃尔已经去德国了。

G. *Le Passé Antérieur*

Le Passé Antérieur—The Preterit Perfective
Both of them indicate the situation located prior to a past time, for example,
Dès qu'il eut fini son travail, ilaida les autres.
He helped others as soon as he had finished his work.
他一干完自己的活儿就去帮助别人了。

H. *Le Futur dans Le Passé*

Le Futur dans Le Passé—The Preterit Future
Both le futur dans le passé et the preterit future can indicate the situation located in the future relative to some past time, for example,
Les étudiants ont dit qu'ils visiteraient Notre Dame de Paris le lendemain.
The students said that they would visit Notre Dame de Paris the next day.
同学们说他们第二天要去游览巴黎圣母院。
Ils se rendaient compte que leur voyage serait difficile et dangereux.
They realized that their journey would be hard and dangerous.
他们意识到了他们的这场旅行将困难重重，充满危险。

I. *Le Futur Simple*

Le Futur Simple—The Future

Le train arrivera deux heures.

The train will be arriving at two o'clock.

火车两点到站。

Je suis sûr(e) que je ne me suis pas perdus dans la forêt.

I'm sure that I shall not lose my way in the woods.

我相信我不会再树林中迷路的。

In French, le futur simple, with the second person pronoun as subject, can be used for willing, order or advice, which is similar to the English structure of “will/shall do” whose subject is beyond second person pronoun, for example,

Vous prendrez la deuxième route à gauche.

You shall/will follow the second road on your left.

您走左边第二条路吧。

J. Le Futur Immédiat

Le Futur Immédiat—The Future

Je vais le faire dans un instant.

I'm going to do it in a moment./I'm about to do it in a moment.

我一会儿就做。

On va passer des examens.

We will succeed in the examinations.

我们会通过考试的。

K. Le Futur Antérieur

Le Futur Antérieur—The Present Perfective/The Future Perfective

J'irai au cinéma aussitôt que j'aurai fini mes devoirs.

As soon as I have finished my homework, I'll go to cinema.

我一做完作业就去看电影了。

Quand le soleil se couchera demain, les voyageurs seront revenus à l'hôtel.

When the sun goes down tomorrow, the tourists will have been back in the hotel.

明天太阳落山时，旅客们已经回到旅馆了。

TABLE

NOW, A CHART IS PRESENTED TO CLARIFY THE COMPARISON BETWEEN ENGLISH TENSE AND FRENCH TENSE

<i>French</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>English</i>
Le Présent de l'indicatif	The Present Tense The Present Progressive The Present Perfective Futurate	L'imparfait	The Preterit Progressive The Preterit
Le Passé Simple	The Preterit	Le Passé Composé	The Present Perfective The Preterit
Le Passé Immédiat	The Present Perfective The Preterit	Le Plus-que-parfait de l'indicatif	The Preterit Perfective
Le Passé Antérieur	The Preterit Perfective	Le Futur dans le Passé	The Preterit Future
Le Futur Simple	The Future	Le Futur Immédiat	The Future
Le Futur Antérieur	The Present Perfective The Future Perfective		

V. CONCLUSION

TENSE, being the essential part of grammar-learning, serves the students as a foundation for learning a language. Contrastive analysis is always considered as an effective approach to learning a language. Therefore, the contrastive analysis of English and French TENSES has great significance in foreign language learning and teaching field.

A successful comparison between English and French TENSES is of great importance for not only English majors with French as their second foreign language but also the French majors with English as their second foreign language or those who are interested in these two languages. All of them should clearly recognize the similarities and differences between English and French TENSES to facilitate their study in the two languages.

In conclusion, TENSE is an important part in grammar-learning. Only when we have a deep understanding of English and French TENSES can we better understand the two languages we are learning.

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The Impact of Motivating Iranian EFL Learners via Visuals on Their Listening Comprehension

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Abstract —Teaching listening has always been a big challenge for many foreign or second language teachers. One of the most important factors in this respect is the students' lack of interest in doing so. In order to solve this problem the use of visuals as a motivating factor for improving the students listening comprehension is suggested. A number of 150 elementary students were selected. They were divided into 2 language proficiency homogeneous groups. To compare the change in the degree of their motivation two sets of questionnaire were given to them. The control group was exposed to the listening material without seeing any visuals and just having a short oral pre listening activity, while the experimental group were shown a picture of the situation in which the conversation was taking place, while some predicting questions were raised. Then a listening comprehension test was given to both groups. By using statistical procedures a correlation was taken for comparing the motivation and listening comprehension scores and a t-test was measured for comparing the listening comprehension scores of the experimental group and the control groups. The results indicated that the use of visuals improves the listening comprehension of the subjects using visuals also improves their motivation.

Index Terms—motivation, listening comprehension visual aids

I. INTRODUCTION

As Anderson (1988) explains, it is sometimes observed that second language students' lack of listening comprehension is neither due to the voice quality nor language proficiency but it is because they do not want to do so. Some enormous researchers (Anderson, 1988; Ur, 1984; Brown, 2000) emphasized the importance of activating the learners' schematic information or background knowledge and benefit from their previous information in comprehending the material better; as Brown & Yule (1983) mention, in any context of conversation we will not be able to comprehend people if we do not have a presupposition about what they are going to talk. Therefore, providing the students with a "presupposition pool" will help them improve their comprehension. And this will be done through a pre-listening activity which will not only activate the students' background knowledge, but will also play a motivating role in the students. However, as current studies demonstrate a short pre-listening activity of as short as five minutes will help the listener to construct a "mental model" (Anderson, 1988), and make predictions about what they are going to hear (Ur, 1984) and these all make them motivated and anxious to listen. The importance of motivation in language teaching has been emphasized by many educators (Anderson, 1988; Ur, 1984; Benson, 1989; Sheerin, 1987; Field, Brown, 1993; Mccallanel, 1940; Brown, 2000; Smit, 2002; Cormon, 1986; Shelpgell, 1997; Noris, 2001). So the purpose of this study is to determine whether motivating the Iranian EFL learners via visuals has any impact on their listening comprehension.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Motivation

Motivation is a drive, impulse or desire that moves one to a particular action or helps people make different choices in their lives. (Brown, 1993; Beck, 1990; Petri, 1990). During the last 100 years the approach to motivation has changed a lot. Motivational research today may consider three major approaches: behavioral, cognitive, and humanistic. While behaviorists consider rewards as intrinsic motivating factor for the enforcement of a behavior (Thorndike, 1913), Hunt (1965) points out that we may often be motivated in a task not because of external rewards which are associated with it but because the behavior itself is rewarding. Hunt has in fact defined intrinsic motivation as the pleasure accompanied with a behavior regardless of the goal toward which it is directed. Spaulding (1992) believes that intrinsic motivation is evidenced whenever students natural curiosity and interest energize their learning.

Humanists are in this belief that individuals need to be successful, to improve and they want to reach the state of self-satisfaction; this self satisfaction is also gained when the students try to receive the others as well as their own appreciation that's why some times students look for challenging tasks. Atkinson (1964) in his theory of achievement

motivation clearly demonstrates this fact by stating that person's desire intermediate risk. Hence success (a reward) at an easy task does not increase the probability of undertaking that task again. Accordingly for a task to be motivating some amount of challenge is needed. In this respect Vygotsky (1978) mentions that there should be a balance between challenging and easy tasks. He believes that tasks which are beyond the person's Zone of proximal development are too difficult for the person to complete and tasks that are in the zone of the person's current development are easy enough that the person can successfully accomplish them without assistance of any sort. So for the students to maintain their intrinsic interest, academic assignment should be consisted of an appropriate balance between tasks in their zone of current development. When students are assigned tasks which are too difficult, beyond their zone of proximal development, they experience only failure, and their intrinsic motivation is necessarily undermined. In contrast tasks that are in their zone of current development but are a little challenging and they can fulfill it successfully increase their intrinsic motivation.

B. Teaching Listening Comprehension and the Related Theories

In recent years it seems as if the language teaching profession has placed a great emphasis on listening comprehension. According to Brown (2000) it is certainly because the language educators have noticed the importance of reception through which linguistic information is internalized over production. Though it seems as if speaking is the center of attention and it is a person's second language speaking which shows whether he or she knows the language or not, we should not forget that it is comprehension which precedes speaking. The idea of comprehending and listening before speaking was first introduced by Nida (1977b) when she proposed "passive (global) listening" and "selective listening". Global listening is actually a very active proves. Nida points out that the mind operates on incoming language input even when we are not making a conscious effort to learn; the mind assimilates, sorts and stores the many features of the input in order to gain total impression of its form and meaning. Asher's (1977) total physical response method is in accordance with Nida's theory. Later in other approaches such as natural approach, the priority was on listening in silence and students did not have to produce anything until they felt comfortable to do so. The research on the importance of input lead to Krashen's introduction of comprehensible input (1985) in which he explained the notion of (+1) that is for the input to be converted into intake, the listening material should be just a little above the learner's present ability. Krashen points out that a good language classroom is designed to make input comprehensible through extra linguistic support (use of visuals, gestures, and context) and by use of textual features (repetition, redundancy, and simplification). In selective listening, attention is directed towards specific language features. Later on the idea of converting the input into intake became very crucial in considering the role of listening in language learning. The study of listening comprehension investigates the process of listening and the effect of a number of different contextual characteristics and how they affect the speed and efficiency of processing aural language. Morely (1994) emphasizes the importance of listening activities in the classes and mentions that teachers who want to provide the most effective classroom experience for their students should consider that language input is as easy to process as spoken language received through listening. At the beginning stages of language study, before students have learned to read well, it is by listening that they can have the most direct connection to the meaning of the new language.

At the intermediate level, when students are refining grammatical system listening can be used to promote accuracy. At advanced levels regular program of listening can extend the limits of learners' vocabulary. And use of idioms, and build their appreciation for cultural nuances.

Anderson (1988), to define the factors affecting a successful listening, mentions that there are different ways in which a listener can or cannot process what he or she has heard.

1. Listener may not hear adequately
2. Lack of language proficiency
3. The listener is not interested in what is being said: He or she hears and understands but may have switched off consciously or unconsciously.
4. Listener wants to know about what is being said: there are messages that the listener attends to fully and from which he tries to construct a coherent interpretation.

Sometimes to find out if listener comprehended something, we ask the listener to talk about his own interpretation of what he has heard, so in this model listener is active and constructs a *mental model*. In order to construct an adequate mental model of a message you need to resort to some sources:

- General factual knowledge
- Local factual knowledge
- Socio cultural knowledge

The listeners' knowledge of the context of situation and background knowledge of the culture and society are crucial to listening comprehension. Any sentence listeners hear is matched against their mental models of the world as reflected in *scripts* and *schemas*. If the model of speaker and listener differ too much, they will have problem understanding each other.

Anderson (1988) mentions that background problems are either because of gaps in our knowledge of L2 culture, associations and references available to native speakers or lack of enough background knowledge which leads to misunderstanding even among native speakers.

There are different approaches to listening comprehension; information processing model can be considered one of these approaches in which the goal is the activation of students' background knowledge and the use of their schema in predicting what will come next. Teaching schemata use has been found to increase second language comprehension (Loyed & Carrel, 1987; Hudson, 1982). However instruction in schemata use is not enough in itself. Unless students have a strategy for checking the accuracy of their assumptions, schemata use may actually interfere with comprehension. (Block, 1986; Kasper, 1984). The second approach we can refer to is making a distinction between product versus process which has become an important one for all language skills, particularly, those labeled "receptive" and it signals an increasing recognition that language is a fixed system, a finished product is just one part of the picture. In recent years it seems as if the language teaching profession has placed a great emphasis on listening comprehension. According to Brown (2000) it is certainly because the language educators have noticed the importance of reception through which linguistic information is internalized over production. Though it seems as if speaking is the center of attention and it is a person's second language speaking which shows whether he or she knows the language or not, we should not forget that it is comprehension which precedes speaking. The idea of comprehending and listening before speaking was first introduced by Nida (1977b) when she proposed "passive (global) listening" and "selective listening". Global listening is actually a very active process. Nida points out that the mind operates on incoming language input even when we are not making a conscious effort to learn; the mind assimilates, sorts and stores the many features of the input in order to gain total impression of its form and meaning. Asher's (1977) total physical response method is in accordance with Nida's theory. Later in other approaches such as natural approach, the priority was on listening in silence and students did not have to produce anything until they felt comfortable to do so. The research on the importance of input lead to Krashen's introduction of comprehensible input (1985) in which he explained the notion of (+1) that is for the input to be converted into intake, the listening material should be just a little above the learner's present ability. Krashen points out that a good language classroom is designed to make input comprehensible through extra linguistic support (use of visuals, gestures, and context) and by use of textual features (repetition, redundancy, and simplification). In selective listening, attention is directed towards specific language features. Later on the idea of converting the input into intake became very crucial in considering the role of listening in language learning. The study of listening comprehension investigates the process of listening and the effect of a number of different contextual characteristics and how they affect the speed and efficiency of processing aural language. Morely (1994) emphasizes the importance of listening activities in the classes and mentions that teachers who want to provide the most effective classroom experience for their students should consider that language input is as easy to process as spoken language received through listening. At the beginning stages of language study, before students have learned to read well, it is by listening that they can have the most direct connection to the meaning of the new language.

Attention is paid to human beings as language processors than was previously the case. It is with the skills of listening that "processing" focus is most crucial. Sheerin (1987) explains that it is not just enough to examine the product that is whether the listener could understand or not. He emphasizes that we should pay a lot of attention to what may have gone wrong in the process of listening. If we do not do so, learners will use the same unsuccessful techniques on and on and they will not experience any improvement. From the process perspective wrong answers can be seen to be of more significance than correct ones. Teachers follow up incorrect responses in order to determine where understanding broke down.

Sheerin (1987) talks about teaching listening rather than testing it. She includes teaching effective listening involves adequate support and the provision of adequate task.

Morreale (2001) makes a distinction between competent and skillful listening. According to him a skillful listener understands the listening process, processes a set of listening skills, and is able to choose among and use those skills. While a Competent Listener includes the willingness to listen in a variety of different situations. Accordingly a Competent listener is the one who

- wants to listen effectively in a variety of situations
- Knows what to do to listen effectively in a variety of situations.
- Demonstrates the ability to listen effectively in a variety of situations.

So two elements transform skillful listening into competent listening. The motivation to listen effectively and the ability to do so across a variety of situations. People listen well when they are motivated to do so, for example when you like or admire the person who is speaking, or the person is communicating the information you want or need to know.

If you are a competent listener, you are motivated to listen even when you would rather not. So a competent model for listening calls for the listener to apply motivation, knowledge and skills to the three steps of receiving, constructing meaning and responding.

Morely (1994) and Brown (2000) introduce some principles for designing and performing listening techniques in the classroom

1. Increase the amount of listening time in second language classes

Input must be interesting, comprehensible, supported by extra linguistic materials and keyed to the language lesson. Teachers sometimes incorrectly assume that the input provided in the classroom will always be converted into intake.

2. Use listening before other activities: have the students listen to the material before they acquire to speak, read or write about it.

3. Utilize authentic language and contexts.
4. Activate top-level skills: Use techniques that are intrinsically motivating
5. Let the students do some predicting
6. Encourage the development of listening strategies: looking for key words, nonverbal cues to meaning, guessing at meanings

In recent years it seems as if the language teaching profession has placed a great emphasis on listening comprehension. According to Brown (2000) it is certainly because the language educators have noticed the importance of reception through which linguistic information is internalized over production. Though it seems as if speaking is the center of attention and it is a person's second language speaking which shows whether he or she knows the language or not, we should not forget that it is comprehension which precedes speaking. The idea of comprehending and listening before speaking was first introduced by Nida (1977b) when she proposed "passive (global)listening" and "selective listening". Global listening is actually a very active process. Nida points out that the mind operates on incoming language input even when we are not making a conscious effort to learn; the mind assimilates, sorts and stores the many features of the input in order to gain total impression of its form and meaning. Asher's (1977) total physical response method is in accordance with Nida's theory. Later in other approaches such as natural approach, the priority was on listening in silence and students did not have to produce anything until they felt comfortable to do so. The research on the importance of input lead to Krashen's introduction of comprehensible input (1985) in which he explained the notion of (+1) that is for the input to be converted into intake, the listening material should be just a little above the learner's present ability. Krashen points out that a good language classroom is designed to make input comprehensible through extra linguistic support (use of visuals, gestures, and context) and by use of textual features (repetition, redundancy, and simplification). In selective listening, attention is directed towards specific language features. Later on the idea of converting the input into intake became very crucial in considering the role of listening in language learning. The study of listening comprehension investigates the process of listening and the effect of a number of different contextual characteristics and how they affect the speed and efficiency of processing aural language. Morely (1994) emphasizes the importance of listening activities in the classes and mentions that teachers who want to provide the most effective classroom experience for their students should consider that language input is as easy to process as spoken language received through listening. At the beginning stages of language study, before students have learned to read well, it is by listening that they can have the most direct connection to the meaning of the new language listening for general gist.

The use of schemata promotes restructuring of language data so that greater segments of text can be grasped as a whole Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) point out that background information in the listener's mind is of two kinds: content schemata and formal schema. The former includes cultural knowledge, topic familiarity, and previous experience with a field. The latter refers to people's knowledge of discourse form: text types, rhetorical conventions, and the structural organization of prose. Both can help the listener in comprehending text.

C. Motivating Factors in Teaching Listening Comprehension

According to Galindo (1997) learners learn best when they can see a goal and can progress toward it. In real life when we listen to someone talking, we have a definition on-linguistic reason for doing so. In the classroom the genuine reason for listening is purely linguistic. So a nonlinguistic purpose has to be consciously superimposed in the form of a task.

According to Galindo (1997) learners learn best when they sense mastery. Sheerin (1987) mentions that listening exercises are meant to train not to test, and as Ur (1984) mentions the best practice is obtained by having learners do the activity more or less successfully not by having them fail. Sheerin again sites the old saying that: "nothing succeeds like success."

Learners also learn best when they see a relevance between the class topic and their lives.(Ur,1984) Listening to familiar text does not demand such intensive exercising of the perception or comprehension skills since the students know the content without being forced to listen but it has the value of distinguishing between listening for perception or listening for comprehension.

Speaking and listening need to be reacted to immediately. And the learning value of listening exercises is increased if there is immediate teacher feedback on student performance. Sheerin (1987) believes that positive feedback for learners means ensuring that they experience success as often as possible.

Task based teaching is crucial in motivating students to listen. We use different visuals which have the function of aids to learning, simply because they attract students' attention. It will be much more interesting to respond actively to something.(Ur 1984).Cook (1991) in favor of task based teaching of listening mentions that this approach helps the teacher to check that comprehension is taking place.

D. Using Visuals and Other Environmental Clues

Sherwyn (2001) mentions that visual aids assist in illustrating or supporting the content of a speech and add interest and excitement to it. They are useful when you need to clarify a difficult concept, present a complex idea, or demonstrate a process the audience would have difficulty understanding. Some environmental, usually visuals,

accompaniment to heard discourse is a characteristic of most listening situations. In the classroom these environmental clues will usually be represented by different kinds of visuals: pictures, sketches on the board or over head projects. Ur (1984) emphasizes that the presence of such materials is of immense value in contextualizing and bringing to life the listening situation as well as in aiding comprehension of language. She strongly believes that some kind of visual clue is essential in any language learning activity based on face to face communication. Visuals have an important function as aids to learning, simply because they are motivating, attract students' attention and help and encourage them to focus on the subject in hand. Ur (1984) mentions that it is relatively difficult to concentrate on spoken material that is heard blind, far easier if there is something relevant to look at.

III. METHOD

A. Subjects

The subjects participating in this study were randomly selected among elementary students of English at The Iran Language Institute. Two groups were selected at random.

An independent t-test was run to compare the mean scores of the experimental and control groups on the proficiency test. The t-observed value, 1.13, at 115 degrees of freedom was lower than the critical value of t, i.e. 1.96. (Table1). It could be concluded that there was not any significant difference between the two groups mean scores on the proficiency test. As displayed in Table 2 the mean scores for the experimental and control groups score, 23.65, and 22.77 respectively (Table 2) It could be concluded that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their language proficiency.

The F-test was run to investigate the homogeneity of the variances of the two groups ($F=2.15$) had a probability of .14, indicating that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their variances (Table1).

TABLE 1.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST: PROFICIENCY TEST

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Proficiency Test	Equal variances assumed	2.154	.145	1.137	115	.258	.8827	.77601	-.65446	2.41979
	Equal variances not assumed			1.119	102.138	.266	.8827	.78845	-.68119	2.44652

TABLE2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: PROFICIENCY TEST

Group Statistics						
	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
Proficiency Test	experimental	64	23.6563	3.84303	.48038	
	Control	53	22.7736	4.55159	.62521	

B. Instrumentation

To conduct this study, there were data collection instruments:

First a thirty five –item multiple choice test was developed in order to see if the subjects are homogeneous regarding their language proficiency; The test consisted of questions taken from Nelson's language proficiency tests.

The Second instrumentation was a Persian translation of a modified version of the Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery (AMTB; Gardner, 1985) to measure the motivation of the learners. This Test Battery consisted of 36 items in a Likert type scale. Each item scored one to five, making a total from 36 to 180 for each complete questionnaire. This test battery included a variety of subscales and each was meant to measure one aspect of the attitudinal or motivational characteristics of the individuals under study. Dastgheib (1996) has cited a number of researchers who had reported a satisfactory level of reliability and validity of the measures used in this test battery. (e.g. Gilksman, 1976,1981; Lalonde and Gardner, 1984; Gardner, Lalonde and Moorcraft, 1985; Gardner and Lysynk, 1990; Gardner and Maslintyre, 1991).Gardner's adapted version of AMTB had been supplemented by items developed in a pilot study by Dastgheib who conducted the pilot study among learners in two different schools.

In order to make the test appropriate for Iranian students, minor changes had been made in some of the items. The questionnaire had been translated into Persian and the accuracy of the translated copy had been checked by back translation method.

A pilot study conducted by Dastgheib indicated a satisfactory level of overall internal consistency reliability of .91.

Then a totally adapted version of a questionnaire written by Schimidt (1996) was given which aimed to measure the level of motivation generated during class by the materials in use. The questionnaire was also translated into Persian. To test the homogeneity of their listening comprehension a thirty item multiple choice test was developed by the researcher the material of which was taken from some authentic books such as New Interchange series.

And the last instrumentation was another teacher made listening test for the purpose of measuring their listening comprehension after the period of performing the treatment.

C. Procedure

The experimental group were treated by being shown some visuals related to the topic to which they were going to listen. Some predicting questions were raised as well in order to motivate the students toward finding the answer in the listening, while the control group had the predicting questions without seeing the pictures. To see if the use of visuals before listening would cause any significant difference.

D. Data Collection

The questionnaire and a test of proficiency were administered to the students.

The scores were entered into SPSS program. Because the first questionnaire, Gardner's, was in the form of popular 5-point Likert type scale, the responses had to be weighted. As Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1996) state, for favorable or positively stated items the numerical values 5,4,3,2 and 1, respectively were assigned to the response categories beginning at the favorable end. For example "strongly agree" with a favorable statement received at weight of 5, "agree" 4, "strongly disagree" weight of 1. For unfavorable or negative stated items the weighting was reversed, because disagreement with an unfavorable statement is psychologically equivalent to agreement with a favorable statement. Thus for unfavorable statements strongly agree received a weight of 1 and strongly disagree a weight of 5. The sum of the weights of all the items would present the individual's total scores.

A pre test of listening was administered too, to make sure that the subjects were homogeneous in their listening skill. (Table 3)

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST: LISTENING PRETEST

		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
Listening Pretest	Equal variances assumed	.964	.328	-.106	115	.916	-.0696	.65579	-1.36857	1.22942
	Equal variances not assumed			-.107	112.987	.915	-.0696	.65225	-1.36181	1.22266

The F-test was also run to investigate the homogeneity of the variances of the two groups. (Table4)

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: LISTENING PRETEST

Group Statistics		GROUP		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Listening pretest	experimental	64	21.0625	3.62038	.45255		
	Control	53	21.1321	3.41961	.46972		

At the end of the term in order to investigate the effect of our treatment on the subjects listening comprehension skill another test of listening was administered to the students, the results of which were analyzed through an independent t-test to see whether the treatment improved the subjects' listening skill or not (Table5).

TABLE5.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST: LISTENING POSTTEST

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Listening Post-test	Equal variances assumed	8.594	.004	7.961	115	.000	3.7647	.47291	2.82800	4.70148
	Equal variances not assumed			7.773	96.716	.000	3.7647	.48431	2.80349	4.72599

The F- test was also run to investigate the homogeneity of the variances of the two groups.(Table6)

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: LISTENING POSTTEST

Group Statistics

	GROUP	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Listening Posttest	Experimental	64	25.4063	2.23052	.27881
	Control	53	21.6415	2.88294	.39600

And finally Schmidt's test of motivation was administered again as the post test of motivation to see if the treatment had any effect on the motivation of the subjects.

The collected data were analyzed to determine whether:

Motivating the Iranian EFL learners via visuals has any impact on their listening comprehension.

The following tables display the descriptive statistics for the experimental, and control groups, together with the total number subjects statistics.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: TOTAL SUBJECTS

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
MOTIVATION PRETEST	88	100.00	181.00	159.1705	17.13384	293.568
MOTIVATION POSTTEST	117	42.00	103.00	79.5385	11.67486	136.302
PROFICIENCY	117	12.00	31.00	23.2564	4.18362	17.503
LISTENING PRETEST	117	9.00	29.00	21.0940	3.51593	12.362
LISTENING POSTTEST	117	16.00	30.00	23.7009	3.15754	9.970
MOTIVATION POSTTEST	117	43.00	104.00	84.7436	11.65684	135.882

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
MOTIVATION PRETEST	47	100.00	180.00	159.1702	16.77254	281.318
MOTIVATION POSTTEST	64	42.00	103.00	77.6719	12.70427	161.399
PROFICIENCY	64	13.00	31.00	23.6562	3.84303	14.769
LISTENING PRETEST	64	13.00	28.00	21.0625	3.62038	13.107
LISTENING POSTTEST	64	19.00	30.00	25.4062	2.23052	4.975
MOTIVATION POSTTEST	64	62.00	104.00	89.5625	9.23911	85.361

TABLE 9.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: CONTROL GROUP

Descriptive Statistics		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
MOTIVATION PRETEST	41	100.00	181.00	159.1707	17.74810	314.995	
MOTIVATION POSTTEST	53	61.00	100.00	81.7925	9.95250	99.052	
PROFICIENCY	53	12.00	31.00	22.7736	4.55159	20.717	
LISTENING PRETEST	53	9.00	29.00	21.1321	3.41961	11.694	
LISTENING POSTTEST	53	16.00	27.00	21.6415	2.88294	8.311	

IV. CONCLUSION

The statistical procedures were conducted and applied to the gathered data .the data from the first questionnaire were subjected to a t-test lending support to the claim that using visuals will improve the Iranian EFL learners' motivation; it will also improve Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension. This small-scaled research demonstrates the value of pre-listening activities in elementary classes, which are most often neglected. The result of the study illustrates that elementary students can also benefit from a higher degree of motivation if they are made curious about what they are going to listen to and this happens when they have some information about what they are going to hear and they have an image of the situation in which the talking is taking place or the thing about which the topic of talking is related to. So pre listening activities are very helpful especially when as happened in this study are aimed at contextualizing the material for the students and they make them curious about what they are going to listen. Therefore, what I am suggesting is that a pre- listening activity which provides some extra information for the students from which they can benefit as some presupposition or provides an image of what they are listening to should become an inseparable part of all lecture- based classes, if the instructor wishes to promote better learning among his students. For example if the lecturer in a biology class is describing the biological system of one's body, his teaching would be more effective if he first tries to provide the students with an illustration of that system.

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A Corpus-based Study of Chinese English Learners' Use of *Somewhat**

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Abstract—This study investigates Chinese English Learners' usage of one of the downtoners----*somewhat* in an attempt to explore the features and development pattern of Chinese English Learners' usage of this downturners. The study reveals that the Chinese English Learners differ greatly from the native English speakers in frequency, collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody. In order to improve the Chinese English learners' language proficiency, it's imperative for the teachers to change the traditional English teaching approach and adopt the corpus-driven teaching method.

Index Terms—downtoners, written language, somewhat, extended meaning unit

I. INTRODUCTION

Intensifiers are the words that serve as modifiers of adjectives, adverbs, verbs and prepositional phrases to describe the state or degree of the topics being talked about and intensify the meaning expressed in these words. According to Quirk, there are two types of intensifiers, amplifiers and downturners.

Amplifiers scale upwards. They are divided into (a) maximizers, which can denote the upper extreme of the scale, and (b) boosters, which denote a high degree, a high point on the scale. Downtoners have a generally lowering effect on the force of the verb or predication and many of them apply a scale to gradable verbs. They can be divided into four groups: (a) approximators serve to express an approximation to the force of the verb, while indicating that the verb concerned expresses more than is relevant. (b) compromisers have only a slight lowering effect and tend to call in question the appropriateness of the verb concerned. (c) diminshers scale downwards and roughly mean 'to a small extent'. (d) minimizers are negative maximizers, '(not) to any extent'. According to Quirk, *somewhat* can be classified as a diminisher.

As to the study of the units of meaning, most of the primitive studies regard word as the basic unit of language. Sinclair(2004) pointed out that there are many cases in texts where the independence of the choice of words is compromised, because other patterns cut across them and constrain them. That is, some words predict the appearance of other words because they are frequently co-occurrent. He further proposed the extended meaning unit, which combine collocation, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody. Collocation is a frequent co-occurrence of words; colligation is the co-occurrence of grammatical choices (Firth) to account for the greater variation; semantic preference refers to the meaning of the words frequent collocates; semantic prosody is attitudinal, and on the pragmatic side of the semantics/pragmatics continuum. Semantic prosody has a leading role to play in the integration of an item with its surroundings. It expresses something close to the 'function' of the item. The extended meaning unit changes the traditional linguists' practice of isolating words from grammar; it removes the research focus from the actual words to the grammatical features co-occurrent with the word; it is a more complex and comprehensive unit combining semantics with pragmatics.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

With the development of the corpus linguistics, intensifiers attract the attention of many corpus linguists' attention. Granger (1998) made an investigation on the collocation of the intensifiers ended with -ly. Lorenz (1998) studied the adjective intensification of the Germany English learners. Kennedy (2003) found that different maximizer will co-occur with different words.

Greatly influenced by these studies, Chinese linguists began to make contrastive investigation on the use of intensifiers of Chinese English learners. Maocheng Liang (2003) analyzed the intensifiers in the oral production of Chinese English learners in a corpus of Chinese EFL learners' spoken English and compares it with that in an English native speakers' corpus. His corpus-based analysis reveals that Chinese EFL learners use the booster word very far too much, and this results in a tendency of overstatement. Zhang Xia (2005) investigates the intensifiers in the Chinese non-English major EFL learners' oral production in COLSEC. Her study reveals that Chinese non-English major EFL learners tend to overuse, underuse and misuse many intensifiers compared with the native speakers. Wang Haihua and Chen Guohua (2007) pointed out that high-school Chinese EFL learners overuse the intensifiers like so, very and much.

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They also found that the variety and quantity of the intensifiers used by these learners will greatly increase as their language proficiency improves.

At present, studies on the intensifiers have the following two drawbacks: 1. majority of the previous studies centered on amplifiers while neglecting downtoners. 2. most linguists study the use of intensifiers in oral production while investigation on the intensifiers in written language are rare. The application of intensifiers is one of the important factors in EFL learners' language proficiency, thus studies on these intensifiers play a significant role in the investigation of learners' interlanguage. Studies on downtoners, an indispensable part of the intensifiers, are far from enough considering from the depth and width of the previous studies. The present study will investigate the use of *somewhat*, one of the downtoners, in the Chinese EFL learners and compare it with the native speakers.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Question

This study sought to find out answers to the following research question:

- Is there a significant difference in the frequency of *somewhat* in written language between the Chinese EFL learners and the native speakers?
- Is there a significant difference in the core collocation, colligation, semantic preference and prosody of *somewhat* between the Chinese EFL learners and the native speakers?
- Is there a significant difference in the use of *somewhat* among the Chinese EFL learners in different levels?

B. Instruments

The native English corpus used in the present study is the BYU-BNC developed by Davies Mark with the BNC (British National Corpus) developed by the Oxford University Press as the basis. The BYU-BNC has over 1,000,000 million words, and is composed of two parts: written language and oral language. The learners' English corpus in this study is the Chinese Learners' English Corpus (CLEC). CLEC, with over 1,000,000 words, is developed by Gui Shichun and Yang Huizhong. It is composed of five sub-corpus, each sub-corpus belongs to a specific level of the Chinese English Learners. (st2: middle school; st3: the students that passed College English Test Band 4; st4: the students that passed College English Test Band 6; st5: the freshmen and sophomore of the English majors; st6: junior and senior students of the English majors). In this study, the five sub-corpus are re-classified into 3 groups, that is, primary English learners—st2, medium English learners—st3 and st4; advanced English learners—st5 and st6. Antcon developed by Laurence Anthony of the Waseda University is used as the searching instrument of the present study.

C. Procedure

- Step 1: search the node—*somewhat*, and compare the frequencies of the word in the two corpora.
- Step 2: search the significant collocations of *somewhat* in the two corpora and make a contrastive analysis.
- Step 3: conclude the collocation of *somewhat* in the two corpora and make a contrastive analysis.
- Step 4: conclude the semantic preference of *somewhat* in the two corpora according to the significant collocations.
- Step 5: make a contrastive analysis of the semantic prosody of *somewhat* in the two corpora.
- Step 6: conclude the features and development patterns of the use of *somewhat* of Chinese English learners of different language proficiency.

D. Data Analysis

1. Frequencies

	BNC	CLEC	Chi-square	Significance (p)
raw frequency	4317	15		
standard frequency (per million)	50.0349	14.0108	27.6730	0.000***

As is shown in Table 1, Chinese English Learners use significantly less *somewhat* compared with the native English users, which coincides with the research result of the previous studies of Maocheng Liang (2003) and Xia Zhang (2005). The reasons of the underuse of *somewhat* may be: a. Most of compositions in the CLEC, the topics of which are given beforehand, are argumentative essays. In order to make the essays more argumentative, the students will try to use more maximizers to intensify the mood, consequently they will use less downtoners. b. *Somewhat*, according to the English-Chinese dictionary, means“有点，稍微”，and there are many other words and phrases that have the similar meaning , like *a little, a bit, kind of*. *Somewhat* is the most difficult word in this group of synonyms, and it is acquired later than other synonyms according to the teaching syllabus of China. So when the student wants to express “有点、稍微”，they will try to avoid the use of *somewhat* for making less mistakes.

2. Significant Collocations

The first 50 significant collocations of *somewhat* in BNC are listed in Table 2. Among the 50 significant collocations, there are 24 adjectives, 18 verbs (with 13 past participles and five present participles), four adverbs and three nouns. Because past and present participle can be used as verb and also as adjective to denote the condition, the concordance

lines will be further analyzed in the present study.

TABLE 2:
SIGNIFICANT COLLOCATIONS OF *SOMEWHAT* IN BNC (FIRST 50)

order	collocation	frequency	MI score	order	collocation	frequency	MI score
1	different	180	3.42	26	remote	13	3.60
2	similar	76	3.45	27	dubious	12	5.52
3	surprisingly	32	5.02	28	obscure	12	4.73
4	larger	29	3.33	29	recovered	12	3.87
5	unusual	26	4.11	30	superficial	11	5.22
6	arbitrary	25	5.93	31	complicated	11	3.35
7	albeit	23	5.45	32	ironic	10	5.22
8	surprising	23	4.11	33	reluctant	10	3.74
9	vague	22	5.34	34	artificial	10	3.22
10	confused	22	4.65	35	variable	10	3.22
11	manner	22	3.27	36	blurred	9	5.33
12	surprised	21	3.55	37	contradictory	9	5.06
13	differently	20	5.20	38	bizarre	9	4.52
14	easier	19	3.27	39	crude	9	4.12
15	aback	18	7.25	40	disappointed	9	3.53
16	surprise	17	3.17	41	tended	9	3.13
17	ambiguous	15	5.56	42	isolated	9	3.08
18	uncertain	15	4.29	43	esoteric	8	6.59
19	misleading	14	4.82	44	bemused	8	6.13
20	restricted	14	3.55	45	simplistic	8	5.86
21	confusing	13	5.42	46	shaky	8	5.55
22	reluctantly	13	5.20	47	strained	8	4.81
23	disappointing	13	5.12	48	slower	8	4.55
24	lacking	13	4.52	49	neglected	8	4.15
25	modified	13	4.21	50	odds	8	3.89

Quirk(1985) pointed out that some adjectives look like participles with the suffix -ing or -ed can be classified as participial adjectives. These participial adjectives present static meaning, which are not connoted in their corresponding verbs. The standard of judging a participle is whether an adjective or a verb is to use the word *seem* to substitute the linking verb *be*, because only the *be* followed by adjectives can be substituted by *seem*.

In the present study, the researcher uses this standard to analyze all the concordance lines. The research shows: a. There are altogether 76 present participles in all the concordance lines, and all these participles are used to denote the state of something or an affair. b. There are 153 past participles in all the concordance lines. 41 of them are used to denote an action, and the remaining 112 items are used to signify the outcome or the state of something or an affair. According to the above-mentioned analysis, a conclusion that *somewhat* is usually used as downtoners to lower the meaning of the adjectives denoting the nature and state of a thing or an affair.

There are 15 concordance lines of *somewhat* in CLEC; they are listed in Table 3. Five of them are used to modify verbs, another five are used to modify adjectives, two for modifying preposition, two for preposition phrases and one for explaining the meaning of the whole sentence.

TABLE 3:
CONCORDANCE LINES OF *SOMEWHAT* IN CLEC

1	English word, sometimes, it is	somewhat	difficult for you to pronounce, time by t
2	spend more time on lessons. So	somewhat	we are more busy than before. In
3	for the job. Even if they are	somewhat	unsuitable to it, they convince that the
4	and light rarely patronized the	somewhat	Stygian staircase; everyone was apathetic
5	year old small black old suitcase,	somewhat	like school bag. At the beginning of the
6	middle of a park. Restaurant A is	somewhat	like a classical restaurant. Oil paintings
7	but patient as well. They seem	somewhat	hopeful but have to wait plentifully outside
8	ets with money; however, it also	somewhat	ruined our lives. Actually, these damages
9	ich we easily neglect and which	somewhat	influence our studies. First, is interest.
10	views upon life and death have	somewhat	altered. Still, Chinese people believe that
11	nnd, on the contrary, it produces	somewhat	criminals. What's wrong? To punish the c
12	rthermore, though a degree might	somewhat	appears theoretical, actually it values
13	certification, a certain degree is	somewhat	a kind of proof of a graduate's educational
14	they like them. Military service is	somewhat	compulsory. Some young people are
15	As to the people, their taxes can	somewhat	be lessened for the military budget goes

There is a striking difference in the collocates of *somewhat* between the Chinese English learners and the native English speakers. The latter prefer to use *somewhat* to modify adjectives, while Chinese English learners prefer to use it to modify verbs for lowering the degree of the action. The cause of this difference lies in the differences of the two languages. According to Lian Shuneng (2010), more verbs are used in Chinese which makes Chinese dynamic, while native English speakers prefer to use more nouns in their utterance, which makes their language static. For the Chinese English learners, they are unconscious of this striking difference between the two languages and transferring the features of their native language to the target language, which leads to the gap in the collocates of *somewhat*.

3. Colligation

In the written language sub-corpus of BNC, there are altogether 4317 concordance lines with somewhat as the node. In the present study, 86 samples are further retrieved by random sampling (pick out one in every 50 concordance lines). According to these samples, the frequent colligation patterns of the native speakers is summarized as follows:: a. ADV + ADJ(33 items like *different, harsh, liberal, revolutionary*) 2. ADV + ADJ + N (28 items like *incautious nature, dull performance, mystical feature*) 3. ADV + PREP (10 items like *to my surprise, to Henry's disappointment, after its initial wartime*) 4. ADV + ADV (10 items like *nervously, severely, surprisingly, unceremoniously*) 5. V + ADV (3 items like *recovered, withered*) 6. ADV + V (two items: manipulate, undermine)

The frequent colligation of *somewhat* in CLEC are: a. ADV + V (five items: influence, appears, altered, ruined, lessen) b. ADV + ADJ (four items: difficult, unsuitable, hopeful, compulsory) c. ADV + N (two items: criminals, a kind of proof) d. ADV + ADJ+ N (one item: Stygian staircase) e. ADV + PREP (two items, like) f. ADV + SENTENCE (one item: we are more busy than before.)

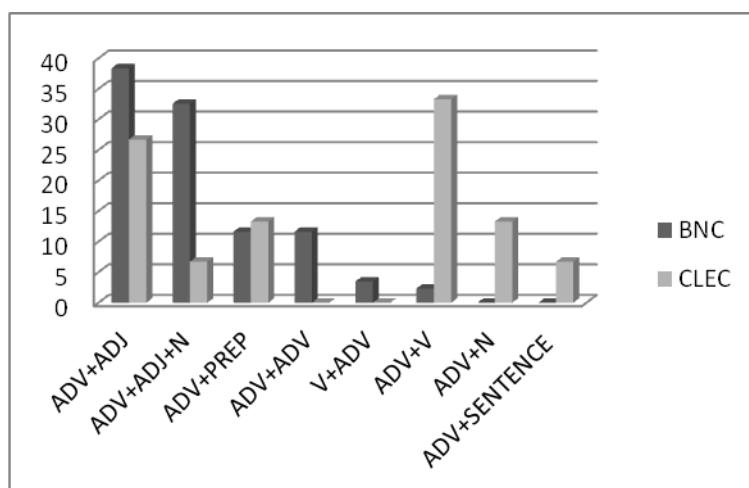


Figure 1: Colligation of *somewhat* in BNC and CLEC

Figure 1 indicates the colligation of *somewhat* in BNC and CLEC. The colligation of the Chinese English learners has the following features compared with the native speakers: a. use less ADV+ADJ and ADV+ADJ+N; b. use more ADV+V; c. misuse ADV+N and ADV+SENTENCE which are never used by the native speakers.

The study shows that the Chinese English learners have mastered the major function of *somewhat*—using it as downtoner to modify adjective and lower the degree and reduce the tone of this word. The colligations used in CLEC are greatly deviant from those in BNC. The Chinese English learners created some colligations that do not conform to the language norms of the native speaker. Most of the Chinese English learners think that learning English means “vocabulary + module test”, while neglecting the acquisition of the colligation of English words. As to the vocabulary, most of them only endeavor to memorize the spelling of each word, while neglecting the collocation and colligation of the word. In using English, they prefer the pattern of “blank-filling”, that is, they will first establish the sentence structure in Chinese and then finish the sentence by filling the blanks by using the English words. In choosing the appropriate word, their first consideration is the Chinese meaning of the word but not native speakers’ habit of using that word. That is why some students even use *somewhat* in some ways that are deviant from those of the native speakers.

4. Semantic Preference

In BNC, the frequent collocations of *somewhat* can be classified into two groups:

a. The words that are used to describe the nature or the relationship of certain things. For example, there are words describing complexity as *complicated/ simplistic/ abstract/ variable/ chequered/ superficial*, and words describing similarity and discrepancy as *different/ similar /differently/ akin*. Biber et al (2000) pointed out that the function of adverbs of degree in academic writing is to express the degree of discrepancy. The present study shows the words expressing similarity and discrepancy are not only the significant collocations of *somewhat* in academic writing but also the collocations in all written language.

b. The words that are used to describe the emotion or attitude. As words to describe surprise like ‘surprising/ surprised’; words to describe doubt and uncertainty like ‘confused/ vague/ ambiguous/ uncertain/ misleading/ confusing/ dubious/ obscure/ blurred/ controversial/ illusory/ shaky/ bewildered/ ambivalent/ bemused/ suspect/ skeptical’; and words describing unwillingness like ‘grudging/ reluctant’.

Downtoners has a lowering effect on the meaning and tone of the language and the use of downturners can avoid expressions that are too absolute. Both the study of Maocheng Liang (2003) and Xia Zhang indicate that Chinese English learners overuse some intensifiers. This result indicates that Chinese English learners try to avoid plain expression by using some intensifiers, but most of them prefer the use of amplifiers with *very* as an example. The use of

these intensifiers can upgrade the mood and meaning of the language and leave a deep impression on the readers (most of them are the exam markers). The use of downtoners can avoid some expressions that are too exaggerating and absolute, thus making the language mild and negotiable. Chinese English learners do not conform to the language rules of the native speakers in using *somewhat*, which cause the divergence of the semantic preference of this word.

5. Semantic Prosody

The significant collocations of *somewhat* in BNC take on negative meaning like ‘misleading’ and ‘uncertain’, as a result, the semantic prosody of *somewhat* is negative. On the contrary, the semantic prosody of *somewhat* in CLEC is mixed with both collocations expressing positive meaning like ‘*hopeful*’ and collocations expressing negative meaning like ‘*ruin*’ and ‘*unsuitable*’. This discrepancy is largely due to the over-emphasis of the memorizing of the spelling and Chinese meaning of the English words in the English teaching and learning of China. The trend of over-emphasizing the spelling and meaning of the English word lead to the neglect of the collocation, colligation and the semantic prosody and the word. It’s advisable for the English teachers to put the language learning in a broader framework that is the extended meaning unit and put more emphasis on the observation and acquisition of the semantic prosody of each word.

6. Development Pattern

The present study shows that the Chinese English learners acquisition of *somewhat* is gradable and progressive. As to the usage of *somewhat*, the primary English learners cannot use it, the medium English learners use more and the advanced English learners use the most. The result indicates that with the improvement of the learners’ language proficiency, the frequency of the use of *somewhat* develops gradually, which is clearly shown in figure 2. But there is no significant difference in the use of *somewhat* between st4 and st3 in the medium English learners, and also there is no significant difference between st6 and st5 in the advanced English learners. This result shows that during a certain period of the learning process, there will be acquisition plateau. In the acquisition plateau, the learners’ use of specific language feature does not develop with the improvement of their language proficiency, or it is fossilized. Figure 3 shows the gradable feature of the Chinese English learners’ usage of *somewhat*.

According to the features of the development pattern of the Chinese English learners shown in this research, the Chinese English teachers should try to arouse the language learners’ awareness of learning English vocabulary in a broader language context and try to assist them to imitate the native speakers’ way of using the language. In this way, the Chinese English learners can avoid transferring the language features of their first language and truly master the language like a native speaker. On the other hand, the fossilization stage, which is a great hamper in language learning, can be greatly shortened by the constant input of “real English”.

TABLE 4
FREQUENCY OF SOMEWHAT IN EACH SUB-CORPUS

Sub-corpus	Raw frequency	Standard frequency (per million)
St2	0	0
St3	2	9.6113
St4	2	9.3961
St5	5	23.3089
St6	6	26.5362
Sum	15	14.0108

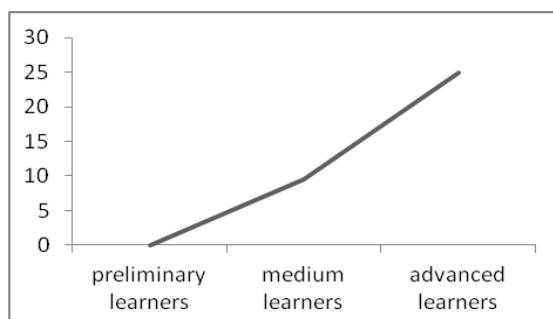


Figure 2: development pattern of Chinese English Learner’s usage of somewhat

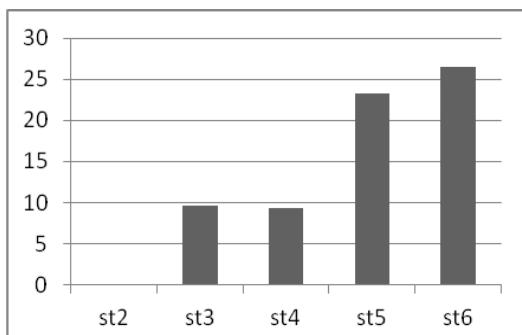


Figure 3: frequency of somewhat in the sub-corpus of CLEC

IV. CONCLUSION

The appropriate use of downtoners, which has a lowering effect in the tone and meaning of the language, can avoid mechanical and inflexible language usage. The Chinese English learners use less *somewhat* compared with the native English learners. The underuse of the downtoners can cause the confusion of the degrees of language expression. Besides the frequency, the usage of Chinese English learners differs greatly in the significant collocations, colligation, semantic preference and semantic prosody. The cause of this discrepancy lies in the inappropriate language teaching and learning habit. English teachers in China prefer to teach and explain the word in isolation, while neglecting the acquisition from a broader framework—learning the word in the framework of extended meaning unit. The students form a bad view of treating memorizing words as the equivalent of learning English. In this sense, it is advisable to carry out the vocabulary teaching under the framework of extended meaning unit to make the students know not only the surface meaning of the English vocabulary but also the deep information of the vocabulary, including: frequent collocations, the grammatical collocations and its pragmatic function. Moreover, the corpus-driven teaching method can be employed to stimulate the interests of English learners and make them acquire the language in real language data.

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Variability of Grammatical Features of Persian Translations by Translators' Gender

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Abstract—The purpose of the study was to investigate whether there is a meaningful relationship between translators' gender and their translations in terms of such grammatical features as mechanics (misspellings and punctuation), syntax (voice, tense and aspect of verbs), and lexis (SL intrusion and sexually-explicit terms) based on the proposed model, called translation performance with grammatical, textual and sociolinguistic branches. For that reason, the same sample English text was imparted to both female and male translators to be rendered into Persian to ascertain if they vary linguistically, and if they do so, what areas are more frequently different. The sociolinguistic factors as well as textual dimensions of the language were not scrutinized in the study. The participants were 30 male and 30 female undergraduate senior students of English at three universities in Qom, Iran. These 60 participants were selected out of 150 students who scored as high as 6 in the IELTS given to them and showed their English proficiency. By analyzing the data elicited descriptively from each translation, primarily, via *t* test; only 3 out of 15, variables demonstrated a significant difference between translations made by both genders contributing to the research. Thus, although these 3 variables verify the meaningful relationship between translator's gender and their translation performance, these elements are not enough to indicate that the grammar of translations is significantly different.

Index Terms—translation, gender, cultural studies and translation performance

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Overview

According to Flotow (2001), “The combination of gender and translation continues to be a productive and stimulating area of research....” There have been plenty of researches and projects exploring and scrutinizing gender-related issues. As claimed by Simon (1996), women by and large saw themselves as being marginalized and suppressed by the male-dominated societies throughout the history, and, since women were not allowed to write, they envisaged translation as a means through which they could establish themselves in the language and culture of the dominant groups; i.e. the only outlet to express themselves.

Chamberlain (1988) stated that “the issues relating to gender in the practice of translation are myriad, varying according to the type of text being translated, the language involved, cultural practices and countless other factors” (p. 96). It appears that feminist linguistics as an offshoot from feminism and linguistics, particularly critical discourse analysis, on the one hand, and a simultaneously concerted emphasis on culture from cultural studies, on the other, have made a thought-provoking interface for thinkers to explore. Many gender-related issues, or rather, comparative analyses of gender and other factors have remained intact and need to be addressed properly, despite “a burst of activity around questions of gender in translation in the mid-1990s” (Flotow, 2001). For instance, Perteghella (2008) stated that translation studies, both theory and practice, saw a renewed interest in the analysis of gender and ideology in the 1990s. Also, Simon (1996) wrote about an extensive study of feminist issues surrounding translation studies.

Similar to the present work, another one of the researchers who undertook a study trying to bring gender, ideology and translation together was Leonardi (2007). By selecting Italian novels which had been translated into English as her corpus, she made an attempt to discover whether men and women translate differently in order to “establish a comparative framework for the contrastive analysis of the translation strategies of male and female translators” (Leonardi, 2007, p. 19). Additionally, Leonardi (2007) intended to analyze “the role and effects of ideology-driven shifts in translation as a result of gender differences” (p. 289). She hypothesized that women and men translate differently, and then, some translations may be the result of differences in the translators’ as well as the authors’ sex, various text types chosen for translation and/or different socio-cultural background (Leonardi, 2007, p. 20). Her methodology was critical contrastive text linguistics by analyzing thematic structure, word order, punctuation, mistranslation, omission, addition as well as grammatical, syntactical, lexical, semantic and pragmatic levels. This analysis also incorporates paratextual and paratranslational materials like forewords and prefaces. Perteghella (2008) believed that Leonardi’s (2007) intention was to investigate the differences between ideologically modified or mediated translation choices in light of translation strategies and shifts. In spite of her valuable contribution to bring translation, gender, ideology, style and genre together, perhaps, it would have been better to discern how the same source text had been translated by female and male translators instead of selecting a variety of novels being translated into English.

B. Statement of the Problem

There has not been a research done as to discover if there is a problem when translators of both genders attempt to construe a text. No one can deny that the outcome will be different however faithful the translators try to be to the SL on account of the variety of decisions made. If a given text possesses a particular facet, let's say sexually-explicit terms, it may be a better and wiser idea to give it to a special gender of translators that showed that particular characteristic. Hence, the present study sought to investigate how the translators' linguistic performances vary by gender.

C. Significance of the Study

As remarked by Hamerlain (2005), translators always bring into a text a number of beliefs and values, and as promoted by Talbot (2003), gender is an ideological prescription for any kind of behavior. There appears to be a lack of research as regards the "differences of linguistic features" in the area of translation resulting from the gender of the translators, and that whether these differences are consistent.

D. Domain of the Study

Since there was little work conducted as far as such grammatical features as mechanics, syntax, and lexis were concerned, the present study strived to investigate any possible consistencies revealed by the linguistic differences of the Persian translations of an English text as a result of the gender of the translators without letting the translators know of those particular items under question in order to have valid results. The researcher has formulated the hypothesis that female translators translate some of those particular aspects of a text differently from male translators whilst no significant evidence was found to show that translators' gender plays any role in the way they approach the same text on the whole. Owing to the absence of enough empirical research along the same line, the subject needs to be carried out with various languages for a good amount of time after eliminating all other impertinent variables that might vitiate the outcome of the research.

E. Research Questions

In this present study, there are two main questions that the researcher was trying to investigate. The first one seems microscopic in the sense that there are certain areas in some texts to be translated which need to be scrutinized such as mechanics (misspellings and punctuation), syntax (voice, tense and aspect of verbs), and lexis (SL intrusion and sexually-explicit terms) as part of the grammatical features based on the proposed model, called translation performance with grammatical, textual and sociolinguistic branches. The second, in comparison with the above-mentioned query, appears to be macroscopic. In other words, a bigger picture like the whole text is going to be probed here in this study. Some of these large-scale and small-scale points went unnoticed in previous studies, so to speak. Anyway, the following research questions will be addressed in this research:

Q1: How do translations done by male and female translators differ in the use of such linguistic, or rather grammatical features as mechanics (misspelling and punctuation), syntax (voice, tense and aspect of verbs), and lexis (SL intrusion and sexually-explicit terms)?

Q2: In what areas do translations differ by the gender of their translators? Is grammar different in the translations made by both genders?

F. Research Hypotheses

The present researcher has made the following hypotheses in order to answer the aforesaid questions based on the model in figure 1.1 below:

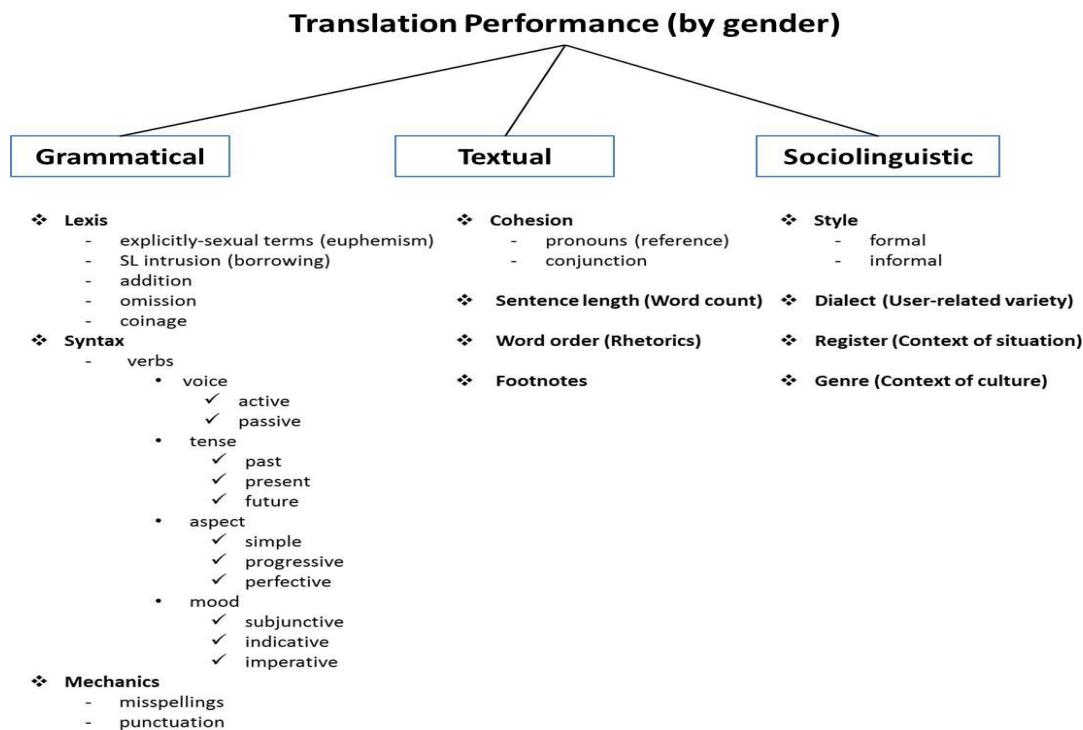


Figure 1.1 The model proposed by the researcher to analyze any given (translated) text with

H1: Female translators translate three of those grammatical aspects of a text differently from male translators: erroneous translation of sexually-explicit terms, use of past-tense and present-tense verbs.

H2: There is no significant evidence demonstrating the fact that translators' gender plays any role in the way they approach the same text in terms of grammar and discourse.

G. Key Terms

Translation, cultural studies, gender, translation performance

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Overview

The researcher was trying to determine whether there would be a significant difference of grammatical features based on the gender of the translators by descriptively comparing 30 translations rendered by female translators with the same number of translations rendered by male translators. A sample English text was carefully composed of one-paragraph plot outline of *Wuthering Heights*, Emily Bronte's masterpiece, as well as a passage with a few questions on sex in *Wuthering Heights* followed by a typical Freudian interpretation and critique. All the three sections of the English passage were imparted a taste of sexually-explicit materials without informing the contributing translators in order to trigger a clear-cut response, or rather, a tell-tale translation. The population was selected from the university English students; i.e. from the eighth semester of the undergraduate level of the State University of Qom, Qom Open University and Azad University, Qom Branch. It is worth mentioning that the respondents were given the IELTS listening, reading and writing sub-tests to reveal their language proficiency to some extent before they commenced translation. This was done so as to rule out any other potentially irrelevant variables tampering the results of the research. Consequently, sixty male and female translators were chosen out of 150 participants in order to have the best of them in the study.

B. Design

As can be expected, the methodology of academic research papers should follow a rational trend. If there is enough evidence to support the hypothesis after having observed the data, the hypothesis is confirmed; if not, the null hypothesis will apply, or the hypothesis will be disconfirmed. Thus, this research employed an observational method to find out the role translators' gender might play in their translations. The conditions were also controlled to the degree possible in order that the other impertinent variables would not mar the results, and that the conditions would be equal for all participants, both male and female.

The approach was more quantitative than qualitative throughout the research. It was quantitative in the sense that most of the data were in a statistical form, so it was approximately easy for computation and classification. Hence, this study is not only analytical but also strictly descriptive. Accordingly, two major tables were drawn for sorting and summarizing all the data observed in the translations rendered by 60 translators.

C. Participants

The participants of the present research were chosen from among Iranian students who were undergraduate seniors studying English translation at the State University of Qom, Qom Open University and Qom Branch of Azad University. The philosophy behind this type of selection was first they were translation students and they seemed to be perfect individuals who could take part in this study, and second, their level of English proficiency made it much easier to contribute in addition to the advanced level of the sample English text cut out for students as semi-professional translators at a stage near their graduation.

The city Qom was prioritized not only because its students were far more accessible to the researcher at the place of study, but it was safer to have one city in order to limit its atmosphere. Furthermore, the age of students was taken into account so as to bring this factor somewhat under control by keeping it within the range of 23 and 30.

D. Materials

The sample English text was composed of a one-paragraph plot outline of *Wuthering Heights*, one of Emily Bronte's masterpieces, followed by a few general questions on sex in the story along with a typical Freudian interpretation by Linda Gold. The entire material had come from two websites that will be quoted in the reference list. The rationale behind selecting this novel out of many stories was its characteristics that met the researcher's requirements.

There were some items in the sample text that came under grammatical organization of language like lexis, syntax and mechanics. Seventeen sexuality-related terms including sex, sexual passion, losing her cherry, sensual, breast, chastity, illegitimate, incest, sexual force, sexuality, make love, sexual relations, primitive drives, coitus, orgasm, penis and vagina were specified by the researcher as sexually-explicit terms. So, there were four subcategories under the variable sexually-explicit terms, i.e. whether these sexually-explicit words were rendered correctly or incorrectly into Persian, the same English words were used in their translations or omitted in the first place. SL intrusion is another one of those elements that the researcher intended to compare in the two-gender translators' translations. Both sexually-explicit terms and SL intrusion which was only a single-subcategory variable are matters of lexis, but any additions and omissions were not calculated due to the scope of this study, and also there was no coinage on the part of the contributing translators so that it could be brought into play.

Verbs which pertain to the syntax of language came under scrutiny too. There were 62 verbs used in the sample text that had been divided by the researcher into the categories of voice, tense and aspect. The present study planned to check if there were any differences between the number of active (58) versus passive (4) voices in both the sample text and the translations attempted by males and females. There was no future tense in the original sample while there were 56 present and 6 past verbs. Any contrast in this regard might be of interest. As for the verb aspect, there were 58 simple and 4 perfect verbs, but no progressive tense. It was left that way, and no progressive verbs were injected so as to see possible shifts on the part of the translators toward this aspect of the verbs. It could be helpful to see which of the two sexes retain the verb aspect of the original text. Thus, on the whole, there were nine subcategories under the variable verbs, i.e. active versus passive voices; past, present and future tenses; simple, progressive and perfect aspects; as well as the total number of verbs itself. However, the mood of the verbs was not gauged owing to the scope of the study.

The last grammatical dimensions were the frequency of misspellings and punctuations. Misspelling had only one subcategory to be checked while punctuation all across their translations was divided into two constituents: proper use of punctuation and poor use of punctuation.

In addition to grammar, textual or discoursal constituents received no attention here, and were left to another study.

E. Procedures

The procedure of each and every research needs to be planned and organized carefully since it is subtle and vital. The path every research takes determines and influences its results in a particular way. That is why the following procedures were taken throughout the study:

First and foremost, a particular text was found and developed one way or another to meet the intended requirements. In other words, it was coupled with another text of similar nature and adapted to enjoy the features which would lend themselves more easily to investigation. As a case in point, the text should essentially possess enough number of pronouns in order for the researcher to check the references found in their translations. The material required a kind of boost or change to enrich it, let's say, for sexually-explicit terms as an example so as to provide the stimulus for the translators to react.

Another important step was screening the students who were going to be selected to translate the sample text and contribute to the research. Not only for the same reason being mentioned earlier but also for concerns of practicality, validity, reliability and widespread acceptance, an IELTS test was chosen and prepared for as many participants as ready to join. In view of the fact that all the parts of an IELTS package was not basically needed, only the listening, reading and writing subtests were opted and copied according to the number of individuals taking the test. So, speaking subtest, which had not been thought of as helpful due to its nature, was excluded. As Duran et al. (1985) put, "The TOEFL's omission of oral production content is ostensibly justified by research that has shown positive correlations between oral production and the behaviors actually sampled on the TOEFL" [as a standardized proficiency test] although it has been included in recent years (as cited in Brown, 2004, p. 26). Not to mention, for economic reasons as

well as matters of practicality such as time constraint and large-scale administration, a full examination seemed out of the question. Then, the participants were given the academic-module IELTS to respond under conditions based on its standard guidelines. After two hours and a half, the answers were collected and later corrected.

Only those who scored as high as 6 were granted with the sample text to translate so as to recruit the best and the most suitable participants. The overall band score 6 was chosen owing to the definition of satisfactory level of English which says those who do so “have generally effective command of the language despite some inaccuracies, inappropriacies and misunderstandings, and can use and understand fairly complex language, particularly in familiar situations” (Adams & Peck, 2000, p. 12). Additionally, it is enlightening to know that most universities all across the globe admit students scoring 6 into English programs and courses.

Next, 60 students 30 of which were female and the rest male were chosen out of 150 individuals being given the IELTS test. These 60 participants were believed to know English at a satisfactory level necessary for the task. On a separate day and time, the chosen students were imparted the sample text the researcher meticulously prepared in advance for the task of translation. Of course, it ought to be noted that prior to their answering the IELTS test as well as translating the sample text for translation, they were informed of the steps of both the IELTS test and the translation task respectively to ensure all of them would understand what to do and to rule out other influencing factors like anxiety caused by confusion. Nevertheless, the participants were not provided with little nuances and features that were going to be investigated in the research in order that their awareness of the grammatical criteria would not affect and bias the results of the study. It was insisted that the conditions remain similar if not the same. For instance, the place of the translation was the class atmosphere for all participants even though there were different classes due to approximately high number of students required to take part in the project so as to achieve an objectively appropriate goal. Another example was all of the participants were allowed to use dictionaries for translation, but not for IELTS.

After collecting the 60 translations done by 30 female and 30 male participants, their prominent characteristics which were the researcher’s criteria underwent a close scrutiny. Then, they were tabulated and classified. That is, the features of the variables utilized in the participants’ translations were calculated and assigned to the aforesaid tables for the purpose of cozier comparison and analysis. Lastly, all the data, and later the means extracted from each and every translation into the tables, except a set of observed values pertaining to the qualitative variable punctuations that was gauged by Chi-square test, were assessed by the *t* test to make sure and fathom out which differences are significant. According to Richards, platt and Weber (1985), “Chi-square is a procedure in statistics which is used to determine whether the relationship between two or more variables is independent,” and “it measures whether a particular distribution of observed values is sufficiently different from an expected distribution to indicate that it cannot be explained as a chance occurrence.” Hatch and Lazaraton (1991) held that the *t* test is the most felicitous gauge to compare the two means if the comparison is run between two independent samples whereas a matched *t* test should be applied if the comparison is drawn between two dependent samples, namely, the data comes from the same subjects taking two different tests. This brings the study to the next part that encompasses the date analysis and their results.

III. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

A. Overview

The present chapter deals with data analysis and results of the study. This study planned to explore the grammatical differences of translations conducted by both sexes of translators. For this reason, first, senior students of English were selected by IELTS to make sure that the most eligible students would be opted to contribute to the research. Next, they were given the same sample text with certain traits to construe so as to reveal differences based on gender of the translators. Yet, the participants were not informed of those characteristics in order that the entire research would not be biased and affected.

The grammatical variables under investigation here consisted of the sexually-explicit terms, SL intrusions, verbs, misspellings and punctuations. Accordingly, the researcher employed a linguistic approach to discover how the performances of male and female translators vary. Having collected their translations, the details related to each variable were extracted and classified. Then, the aforementioned data were analyzed in the form of descriptive statistics as follows:

B. Data Analysis and Results

TABLE 3.1
THE NUMBER OF CORRECT TRANSLATIONS OF SEXUALLY-EXPLICIT TERMS

Group Statistics

sex		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Correct translation of sexually-explicit terms	M	30	13.17	1.683	.307
	F	30	12.10	2.618	.478

TABLE 3.2
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF CORRECT TRANSLATIONS OF SEXUALLY-EXPLICIT TERMS
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	
Correct translation of sexually-explicit terms	Equal variances assumed	6.452	.014	1.877	58	.066	1.067	.568	-.071	2.204
	Equal variances not assumed			1.877	49.482	.066	1.067	.568	-.075	2.208

As shown by the above computation, there is not a meaningful difference in the number of accurate sexuality-related words translated by both males and females. With the confidence interval of 95%, the P value was 0.066 which is a more than 0.05. So, the same calculation demonstrates that there is not a meaningful relationship as far as the variable of correct sexually-explicit terms is concerned.

TABLE 3.3
THE NUMBER OF INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS OF SEXUALLY-EXPLICIT TERMS

Group Statistics

sex		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Incorrect translation of sexually-explicit terms	M	30	2.4000	1.42877	.26086
	F	30	3.4667	2.11291	.38576

TABLE 3.4
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS OF SEXUALLY-EXPLICIT TERMS

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	
Incorrect translation of sexually-explicit terms	Equal variances assumed	5.948	.018	-2.291	58	.026	-1.06667	.46568	-.199883	-.13451
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.291	50.935	.026	-1.06667	.46568	-2.00159	-.13175

Given the results obtained from the tables above, there is a meaningful difference in the variable of erroneous sexually-explicit terms calculated from the translations of female and male translators. With the confidence interval of 95 percent, *t* test was utilized to assess the P value of the data in this variable. As for the Sig. of 0.026 which was counted by the *t* test, it can be judged that there exists a meaningful difference between the number of sexually-explicit terms rendered by female translators and the one by male translators because the P value of this variable was less than 0.05. The mean of the female translators' erroneous sexually-explicit terms was 3.46; and that of male translators, 2.4.

TABLE 3.5
THE NUMBER OF SL INTRUSIONS OF SEXUALLY-EXPLICIT TERMS

Group Statistics

sex		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SL intrusion of sexually-explicit terms	M	30	.7333	1.20153	.21937
	F	30	.3667	.85029	.15524

TABLE 3.6
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF SL INTRUSIONS OF SEXUALLY-EXPLICIT TERMS
Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
SL intrusion of sexually-explicit terms	Equal variances assumed	1.203	.277	1.364	58	.178	.36667	.26874	-.17128	.90461
	Equal variances not assumed			1.364	52.222	.178	.36667	.26874	-.17255	.90588

Concerning the results gained from the tables above, there is not a meaningful difference in the variable of SL intrusion of sexuality-related terms; namely, the students intruded SL terms in their translations instead of rendering them into Persian. The confidence interval of this test was 95 percent, and the P value computed from the means of the data was 0.178 which is above the standard Sig. 0.05.

TABLE 3.7
THE NUMBER OF SEXUALLY-EXPLICIT TERMS OMITTED

Group Statistics

		sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Omission of sexually-explicit terms	M	30	.7000	1.08755	.19856	
	F	30	1.1000	1.15520	.21091	

TABLE 3.8
RESULTS OF T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF SEXUALLY-EXPLICIT TERMS OMITTED

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Omission of sexually-explicit terms	Equal variances assumed	.181	.672	-1.381	58	.173	-.40000	.28967	-.97984	.17984
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.381	57.790	.173	-.40000	.28967	-.97988	.17988

As the above-mentioned tables suggest, there is not a meaningful difference in the number of sexually-explicit terms crossed out of the translations of both sexes of translators. There was 95% confidence interval in the *t* test conducted for this variable. The P value of the test was 0.173 that is higher than 0.05 as the cornerstone. The means of the variable were 1.1 and 0.7 for females and males respectively. Thus, this difference is not significant.

TABLE 3.9
THE NUMBER OF SL INTRUSIONS

Group Statistics

		sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
SL intrusions	M	30	5.83	13.734	2.507	
	F	30	2.33	4.452	.813	

TABLE 3.10
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF SL INTRUSIONS

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
SL intrusions	Equal variances assumed	4.040	.049	1.328	58	.189	3.500	.2636	-1.776	8.776
	Equal variances not assumed			1.328	35.027	.193	3.500	.2636	-1.851	8.851

As exhibited by the above data, there is not a meaningful difference in the number of SL intrusions utilized by both male and female translators. With the 95% confidence interval, the Sig. was 0.189 which is a more than 0.05. It ought to be noted that the means of SL intrusions in both males' and females' translations were 5.83 and 2.33 in the order reported. Consequently, the same information verifies that there is not a meaningful relationship as far as the variable of SL intrusions is concerned.

TABLE 3.11
THE NUMBER OF ACTIVE VERBS

Group Statistics

sex		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Active verbs	M	30	70.27	6.690	1.221
	F	30	67.83	6.347	1.159

TABLE 3.12
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF ACTIVE VERBS

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Active verbs	Equal variances assumed	.254	.616	1.445	58	.154	2.433	1.684	-.937	5.803
	Equal variances not assumed			1.445	57.840	.154	2.433	1.684	-.937	5.804

In view of the results attained from the tables above, there is not a meaningful difference in the variable of active verbs counted from the translations of female and male translators. Having applied the 95% confidence interval, *t* test was utilized to assess the P value of the data in this variable. The mean of the female translators' active verbs was 67.83; and that of male translators, 70.27. Considering the Sig. of 0.154, it can be judged that there is not a meaningful difference between the number of active verbs used by female translators and the one by male translators because the P value of this variable was less than 0.05.

TABLE 3.13
THE NUMBER OF PASSIVE VERBS

Group Statistics

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
Passive verbs	M	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		30	5.9333	1.74066	.31780				
Passive verbs	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	.892	.349	.337	58	.738	.16667	.49507	-.82433	1.15766

TABLE 3.14
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF PASSIVE VERBS

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Passive verbs	Equal variances assumed	.892	.349	.337	58	.738	.16667	.49507	-.82433	1.15766
	Equal variances not assumed			.337	56.260	.738	.16667	.49507	-.82498	1.15831

In light of the tables drawn above, there is not a meaningful difference in the variable of passive verbs used in the translations of both groups of translators. The confidence interval of this test was 95 percent, and the P value figured out from the means of the data was 0.738 which is above the standard one, i.e. 0.05. It is worth mentioning that the mean for female individuals was 5.76 while the mean for their male peers was 5.93.

TABLE 3.15
THE NUMBER OF PAST VERBS

Group Statistics

		sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Past-tense verbs	M	30	20.67	9.904	1.808	
	F	30	27.63	14.670	2.678	

TABLE 3.16
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF PAST VERBS

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
Past-tense verbs	Equal variances assumed	7.410	.009	-2.156	58	.035	-6.967	3.232	-13.435 -.498
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.156	50.889	.036	-6.967	3.232	-13.455 -.479

As put forward by the above-cited tables, there exists a meaningful difference in the number of past verbs used in the translations of both genders of translators. There was 95% confidence interval in the *t* test carried out for this variable. The P value of the test was 0.036 that is less than 0.05 as the criterion of all the *t* tests. The means of the variable were 27.63 and 20.67 for females and males respectively. As a result, this difference is significant.

TABLE 3.17
THE NUMBER OF PRESENT VERBS

Group Statistics

		sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Present-tense verbs	M	30	56.8667	12.32249	2.24977	
	F	30	45.8000	16.37997	2.99056	

TABLE 3.18
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF PRESENT VERBS

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	Lower
Present-tense verbs	Equal variances assumed	4.804	.032	2.957	58	.004	11.06667	3.74231	3.57561 18.5577	
	Equal variances not assumed			2.957	53.862	.005	11.06667	3.74231	3.56334 18.5700	

According to the tables above, there is a meaningful difference in the variable of present verbs used in the translations of both genders. The confidence interval was 95 percent, and the P value computed via the *t* test was 0.005 which is a lot less than 0.05. The means for both male and female participants were 56.86 and 45.8 respectively. Therefore, the difference between the number of present verbs used by male translators and that of the ones employed by their female counterparts is highly significant.

Since there had not been any future-tense verbs in the ST and the fact that neither females nor males made use of future verbs in their translations, the statistics for this variable was zero, and hence no meaningful relationship. The original sample text had been void of the future tense, and it was intentionally left intact to ascertain whether it could be exploited by any participants, or rather, any specific group of translators. So, the text was not injected with the previously-mentioned tense. If positive, it could have been one of those areas that the performance of both genders of translators varies. Be that as it may, neither of the sexes employed this tense in their translations.

TABLE 3.19
THE NUMBER OF SIMPLE VERBS

Group Statistics

		sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Simple verbs	M	30	85.03	110.058	20.094	
	F	30	62.77	8.866	1.619	

TABLE 3.20
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF SIMPLE VERBS

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	
Simple verbs	Equal variances assumed	2.897	.094	1.105	58	.274	22.267	20.159	-18.086	62.619
	Equal variances not assumed			1.105	29.376	.278	22.267	20.159	-18.940	63.473

As displayed by the above tables, there is not a meaningful difference in the number of simple verbs utilized by both male and female translators, as far as the variable of aspect is concerned. With the 95% confidence interval, the Sig. was calculated 0.274 by the *t* test, which is a more than 0.05. It is, however, to be noted that the means of simple verbs in both males' and females' translations were 85.03 and 62.77 in the order mentioned. Inevitably, the same information justifies that there is not a meaningful relationship.

TABLE 3.21
THE NUMBER OF PROGRESSIVE VERBS

Group Statistics

		sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Progressive verbs	M	30	2.6333	2.34128	.42746	
	F	30	3.2000	2.35475	.42992	

TABLE 3.22
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF PROGRESSIVE VERBS

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	
Progressive verbs	Equal variances assumed	.254	.616	- .935	58	.354	-.56667	.60626	-1.78022	.64689
	Equal variances not assumed			-.935	57.998	.354	-.56667	.60626	-1.78022	.64689

As illustrated by the above data, there is not a meaningful difference in the number of progressive verbs utilized by both male and female translators. With the 95% confidence interval, the Sig. was 0.354 which is a more than 0.05. It is interesting to state that the means of progressive verbs in both males' and females' translations were 2.63 and 3.2 in the order written. On that account, the same information verifies that there is not a meaningful difference in relation to the variable of progressive verbs.

TABLE 3.23
THE NUMBER OF PERFECT VERBS

Group Statistics

		sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Perfect verbs	M	30	8.4667	3.91930	.71556	
	F	30	6.8667	3.74841	.68436	

TABLE 3.24
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF PERFECT VERBS

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Perfect verbs	Equal variances assumed	.016	.899	1.616	58	.112	1.60000	.99014	-.38199	3.58199
	Equal variances not assumed			1.616	57.885	.112	1.60000	.99014	-.38207	3.58207

With respect to the results derived from the tables above, there is not a meaningful difference in the variable of perfect verbs used in the translations of female and male translators. With the application of the 95% confidence interval, *t* test was utilized to assess the P value of the data in this variable which was 0.112. The mean of the female translators' perfect verbs was 8.66; and that of male translators, 8.46.

TABLE 3.25
THE TOTAL NUMBER OF VERBS

Group Statistics

		sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Total verbs	M	30	76.13	6.842	1.249	
	F	30	73.80	6.277	1.146	

TABLE 3.26
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE TOTAL NUMBER OF VERBS

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Total verbs	Equal variances assumed	.256	.615	1.376	58	.174	2.333	1.695	-1.060	5.727
	Equal variances not assumed			1.376	57.576	.174	2.333	1.695	-1.061	5.727

In relation to the tables above, there is not a meaningful difference in the total number of verbs used in the translations of both groups. The confidence interval of this test was 95 percent, and the P value assessed from the means of the data was 0.174 which is above the standard Sig., namely, 0.05. It is helpful to know that the mean for female individuals was 73.80 while the mean for their male peers was 76.13.

TABLE 3.27
THE NUMBER OF MISSPELLINGS

Group Statistics

		sex	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Misspellings	M	30	5.73	6.475	1.182	
	F	30	6.30	5.273	.963	

TABLE 3.28
RESULTS OF THE T TEST FOR THE NUMBER OF MISSPELLINGS

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Misspellings	Equal variances assumed	1.720	.195	-3.72	58	.711	-.567	1.525	-3.618	2.485
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.72	55.714	.712	-.567	1.525	-3.621	2.488

According to the data above, there is not a meaningful difference in the variable of misspellings occurring in the translations of both sexes. The confidence interval was 95%, and the P value computed through the *t* test was 0.711 which is higher than 0.05. Hence, it can be judged from this portion of research that there is not a meaningful difference as regards this variable.

TABLE 3.29
PUNCTUATION

			sex			
			M	F	Total	
Punctuation by sex	Good use of punctuation	Count	24	20	44	
		% of Total	40.0%	33.3%	73.3%	
	Poor use of punctuation	Count	6	10	16	
		% of Total	10.0%	16.7%	26.7%	
Total		Count	30	30	60	
		% of Total	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	

TABLE 3.30
RESULTS OF THE CHI-SQUARE TEST FOR PUNCTUATION

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.364 ^b	1	.243		
Continuity Correction ^a	.767	1	.381		
Likelihood Ratio	1.375	1	.241		
Fisher's Exact Test				.382	.191
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.341	1	.247		
N of Valid Cases	60				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.00.

As opposed to all the preceding calculations, Chi-square test was employed to assess the Sig. of the tabulated data, for these qualitative data were dealt with here in this part of the study. Correspondingly, the researcher was not to compute the means. But rather, it was about percentages. The whole population was divided into two groups, in addition to their sex, and that was, those translators who made good use of punctuations and those who made poor use of them in their translations. As illustrated by the above-cited tables, there is not a meaningful difference in the way both genders of translators utilize punctuations. There was 95% confidence interval in the Chi-square executed for this variable. The P value of the test was 0.243 that is more than 0.05 as the standard criterion. Hence, this information does not indicate any significant difference.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A. Discussion

As noted earlier, the purpose of this study was to ascertain whether there is any meaningful relationship between the translators' gender and the way they translate the same text. A linguistic approach was applied to the study. In other words, translation performance was branched off into grammar, textuality (discourse) and sociolinguistics. Every one of them was also separated into their own constituents as follows: discourse comprised cohesion (pronouns and conjunctions), sentence length (word count), footnotes and word order (rhetorics) while grammar entailed lexis (sexually-explicit terms and SL intrusions), syntax (verbs) and mechanics (misspellings and punctuations). In contrast, sociolinguistics incorporated style, dialect, register and genre. Most of these major variables, in turn, consisted of some minor, or rather, sub-variables. Of course due to a number of reasons like the limitations given the proportions of this study, only the grammatical dimension of the translation performance was to be investigated here to see if it would reveal any meaningful link between the translators' gender and their translations.

Unlike other researches conducted in the same or similar literature, this study posed new questions on the relationship between gender and translation. Previous literature has been wrestling with the surroundings of the notion of gender and/or sex such as feminism and struggling to look at the issue from a special angle whereas the present study attempted to delve into the heart of the matter. That is to say, a translated text has certain characteristics that other translations created, or even "recreated," by a different translator do not, and the first observable ingredient is the language used in them. However, there were some studies which paved the way for and lent a hand to future work

ranging from the very early claims of Jespersen's (1922) and Lakoff's (1975), as biased and stereotypical some of them looked, to the latest ones held by Flotow (2002) and Leonardi (2007). Each took the foot of the studies one step forward, so to speak.

For instance, taboos or four-letter words had been a subject that was worked on by the experts in the field. It was believed that women, particularly in collegiate atmosphere, are less prone to use taboos. Earlier to her 1975's research which asserted that women use more (super)polite forms and hypercorrect grammar, Lakoff (1973) concluded that women's insecurity and uncertainty, owing to sexism, resulted in more proper use of the rules of Standard American English grammar that was found in the speech of men (as cited in Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2003, p. 486). Johnson (1993) spoke of a double standard against women, and disagreed with the conclusion that if women used them, they would be called unladylike. Salami and Awolowo (2006) proved the role gender played in the use of 4-letter words. Notwithstanding, religion was found to have no effect. Owing to the sensitivity of the issue in Iran, the four-letter words were soft-pedaled or trivialized to sexuality-related terms. The researcher was trying to see how many of them the translators would render, or if they do so, whether they translate them correctly or cross out. According to tables 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 3.6, 3.7 and 3.8, about 71.18% of females and 77.47% of males translated these terms correctly while 20.35% of females and 14.12% of males translated them incorrectly. Only the latter result proved to be significant. So, a higher percentage of males tend to render the sexually-explicit terms correctly. Besides, 2% of females and 4.29% of males brought those English words into their translations instead of translating them into Persian. It is interesting to know that 6.47% of female translators and 4.21% of males omitted the aforesaid words. However, the last two results did not show a meaningful relationship. Anyhow, that the frequency of taboos is lower in women's language is not apparently verified or implied by the present study since the rationale behind insertion of such terms in the sample English text in the first place had been to see if female translators would avoid them for any reasons like leaving these delicate words out of their translations. It was contrastively observed that women translated such touchy words just as men did, at least in this corner of the globe and at this juncture of time.

As exhibited by tables 3.9 and 3.10 in the previous part, the number of SL intrusions (as another element of lexis) was calculated in both groups' translations although it could not show any meaningful distinction between their texts. This subject is still fresh and requires to be tested further with more cases and languages.

As demonstrated by tables 3.11, 3.12, 3.13 and 3.14 that were related to the voice of the verbs used in the translations of both sexes, it seemed that there was no meaningful relationship between gender and the voice of the verbs, as far as syntax is concerned. In other words, gender played no role in the number of active and/or passive voices available in the translated texts of the same ST rendered by both sexes. The finding of this section of the study agreed with Sterkel's (1988) analysis of 108 students' business communication writing styles at Colorado University in that no relationship could be detected and established between gender of the translator and the number of passive voices used in their texts.

Given the tense of the verbs, both the past and the present tenses were found to be meaningfully significant in the sense that although female translators employed more past-tense verbs, they tended to use fewer present-tense verbs in their translations. These statistical results belong to the tables 3.15, 3.16, 3.17 and 3.18 in the section on data analysis and results. However, no tables were drawn for the future tense because the sample text did not possess any future-tense verbs and it remained untouched in order to witness possible shifts toward this particular tense in the translations by either group, but neither males nor females showed any tendency to use this tense in place of other tenses.

Tables 3.19 and 3.20 suggested that there was no significant difference between number of simple verbs used in males' translations and that of females' ones, as far as aspect of the verbs under syntax is concerned. As cited before and displayed by tables 3.21 and 3.22, the original sample text given to all the participants had been void of progressive verbs, and it was kept that way. That is, it was not enriched with any progressive verbs to see if the translators of any sex would like to take advantage of this aspect in their Persian translations. Although some individuals of either gender employed this aspect a few times, the *t* test indicated no significance as for the difference. In view of the perfect verbs as another important aspect in both English and Persian which were reflected in tables 3.23 and 3.24, a meaningful relation could not be found due to the resemblance of the number of perfect verbs used in both genders' translations. The final item pertaining to the domain of verbs that was investigated in the study was the total number of verbs utilized in the translations attempted by both groups. The *P* value of the tables 3.25 and 3.26 that was higher than 0.05 did not show any significance on the aggregate.

Another fresh subject that was touched on here was misspellings (as an element of mechanics) although it rendered to be insignificant. Based on the tables 3.27 and 3.28, the study could not show that there was a meaningful difference between the number of misspellings present in male translations and in the translations of their counterparts. Likewise, punctuation, which was also a new issue under investigation, did not show any difference between male and female translations. The mere difference this variable had with all the other variables going under scrutiny here was that since it had been a qualitative issue, it needed to be computed by a different test. That is why its calculation was carried out by Chi-square test even though the difference was not significant, as revealed by tables 3.29 and 3.30. However, it is enlightening to know that the percentage of male translators (80%) who had good use of punctuations was four times as much as males (20%) that had poor use whereas the percentage of female translators (66.66%) who had good use of punctuations was approximately twice as much as that of those females (33.34%) that had poor use.

Last but not the least, 67% (20 cases) of women did not translate the most important part of the title of the sample text, i.e. Wuthering Heights whilst about the same percentage (67% or 20 cases) of men translated one or both part(s) of the aforesaid proper noun.

B. Conclusion

The purpose of the present study was to ascertain whether the translations attempted by male and female participants would vary linguistically. The result of the study showed that both hypotheses were verified. In other words, six linguistic features were observed to be significantly different. However, this was not enough to conclude that grammar and discourse in the translations of both genders are meaningfully different. For that reason, such linguistic features as lexis (sexually-explicit terms and SL intrusion), syntax (voice, tense and aspect of verbs) and mechanics (misspellings and punctuation) were scrutinized through a thorough scan of the translations of those individuals contributing to the study. Each of the above-mentioned variables were also divided into their own subcategories, and later tabulated for easier analysis. The researcher employed a rather descriptive procedure due to the quantitative nature of the research and the classification of the statistics. Since some of the areas under investigation were quite fresh with almost little background, this study appeared to pioneer some areas of grammatical factors organizing each and every translation performance. However, the textual facets as well as sociolinguistic dimensions were not touched on here.

Far few linguistic features, along the same line, had been descriptively assessed. Many ideas regarding the distinction in language use between the males and females had been purported, yet only a few of them were put to test, and at times if some scholars did so, they went too far, jumped the conclusion, and/or generalized their findings.

Hence, upon close examinations of the statistics derived from the preceding tables, it is observed that six of the variables, assessed by the *t* test, were meaningfully different between female and male translators. They are as follows:

1. Male translators rendered sexually-explicit terms more correctly than females.
2. Female translators used more past-tense verbs than their male peers.
3. Males utilized more present-tense verbs vis-à-vis females.

C. Implications of the Study

The goal this study sought to achieve was to ascertain the variability of linguistic features in the translations of English texts into Persian. It was hoped that the findings of the study would set the theoretical stage for analysis of the interaction between gender and translation since some of these grammatical characteristics had not undergone descriptive scrutiny. It has long been claimed that the language of men and women are dissimilar, still the constituent ingredients of language, here, translation seem to have been neglected because tremendous amount of heed, constantly and increasingly, is being paid to sociolinguistic and functional aspects. It is true that these crucial categories affect the outcome, or for want of a better term, the language used in translation, but it is to be noted that the twists and turns of the "modern" theories in the field should not make the researchers overlook, or rather, downplay the role of discourse and grammar as the most observable part and parcel of language. As a case in point, apart from better understanding the linguistic differences between the translations attempted by male and female translators in Iran, the present research helps discern a good translator from among a population with a specific sex to be more efficient when dealing with a particular text, say, with a higher rate of sexually-explicit terms.

D. Limitations of the Study

One of the problems that most studies have in common is the number of participants contributing to the study. Though adequate it may sound, 60 individuals (30 females and 30 males) might be a small population to deduce and induce theories for sure. Of course, this population was the result of screening 150 undergraduate senior students of English. When they are screened by IELTS or any other proficiency tests to assess their knowledge and command of English, merely a few of them are capable of passing the examination and meeting the requirements. In order to accumulate 30 participants on each side of the continuum of gender, the researcher had to resort to various classes that might have had a spectrum of individuals with a variety of conditions, which made the road bumpy at first. Some participants might have a "shaded identity," meaning that they do not belong to a specific gender definitely because the borderline between the two genders is not so clear-cut. Sporadically, they might blur the findings and impair the results. Not to mention, the findings could have been boosted by more professional participants than simply the ones elicited from translations rendered by B.A. senior students of English.

In addition to the vast amount of time such field studies consume, motivation posed a grave challenge. It was excruciatingly difficult to persuade everyone to partake in the study, and if they do so, they attach enough importance and take it seriously. Another limitation that the present study was grappling with had been such variables as race and ethnicity. People from a particular place may have a particular mentality. Of course, the present research took place in Qom, Iran so as to strive to retain these variables constant although there are always immigrants everywhere. Age was kept within the range of 23 and 30 to somewhat bring it under control. Perhaps it could have been better if this range had been more limited. Similarly, the applicants' exposure to English like movies, magazines, novels, etc. could not have been brought under control. Coates (1986) nicely maintained that "social differentiation in language does not exist in a vacuum; it interacts in a complex way with other kinds of social differentiation" (p. 204). However, it is too

grueling to take into consideration such variables as religion, mental attitude, cultural background, social class, economic status and so forth. Last but not the least, textual and sociolinguistic features were not captured in this study.

E. Suggestions for Further Research

The domain of activities within the interaction between gender studies and translation studies is so immense and novel that all the work done hitherto looks like a newborn baby in comparison with the developments in other studies. As Flotow (2001) pointed out, "A number of recent, everyday examples of gender in translation are a sign that the topic is not only hard to kill but can provide material for impassioned discussion" (p. 2).

By virtue of the very fact that there were some limitations in the present study, the following suggestions were made to nurture the research, particularly through more comparative means:

1. Sociolinguistic and textual factors need to be injected into the study as separate and independent variables to discover what results they will bring about, and how they will vary.
2. Much more participants may be incorporated into the study to yield a better and more reliable result.
3. Such variables as religion, mental attitude, cultural background, social class, economic status, etc., if thought of and inserted into the study, may be decisive in the outcome. It can be highly efficacious to bring those elements into play.
4. The present research concentrated on written translation. It is recommendable to see the results by examining the oral translation, or better, interpretation.
5. Other textual genres could be selected to see what happens to the results.
6. It will be helpful and constructive to encompass other grammatical features like coordinate structures, subordinate clauses, expressions, idioms and sentence type, i.e. simple, compound, complex or a combination.
7. More professional individuals may be hired or urged to join the project.
8. Finally, there should be something done to remove the obstacle of motivation on the part of participants since they pay little attention to the study if they ever take part. Economic assistance may be of help occasionally.

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A Contrastive Study of Chinese Learners' Acquisition of English Non-alternating and Alternating Unaccusative Verbs

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Abstract—English unaccusative verbs pose great difficulties to second language learners. The distinction between non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs makes the learning task even more difficult. This study conducts a contrastive study of how Chinese learners acquire these two types of verbs in terms of acquisition sequence, acquisition problem and developmental patterns. It finds that non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs are completely different from each other in acquisition sequence and acquisition problem, but are partly different in developmental patterns.

Index Terms—Second language acquisition, non-alternating unaccusative verbs, alternating unaccusative verbs, acquisition sequence, acquisition problem, developmental patterns

I. INTRODUCTION

The Unaccusative Hypothesis (Burzio, 1986; Perlmutter, 1978) postulates that intransitive verbs are not homogeneous, but consist of two sub-classes, namely unaccusative verbs (e.g. *arrive*, *sink*) and unergative verbs (e.g. *laugh*, *walk*). The surface subject of unaccusative verbs is the underlying object, while that of unergative verbs is the underlying subject. As far as English is concerned, the distinction between unaccusative verbs and unergative verbs is morphologically unmarked, because both types of verbs are canonically used in the active voice. Moreover, English unaccusative verbs can be further divided into non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs, depending on their ability to participate in transitivity alternation. The former can only be used as intransitive verbs (e.g. *appear*, *exist*) while the latter can also be used as transitive verbs without undergoing morphological changes (e.g. *break*, *melt*).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Zobl (1989) finds that English unaccusative verbs pose great difficulties to English as a second language (hence L2) learners. Three types of errors are reported. First is avoidance, which refers to L2 learners' reluctance to accept the intransitive use of non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V structure (e.g. *A leaf fell* or *The fish burned in the oven*). Second is passivization, which refers to L2 learners' production and acceptance of the passive use of non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-Be-Ven structure (e.g. *An accident was happened* or *The ice was melted*). The third type is transitivization, which refers to L2 learners' production and acceptance of the transitive use of non-alternating verbs in the NP1-V-NP2 structure (e.g. *The magician disappeared the dove*).

Deguchi and Oshita (2004) note that the acquisition of unaccusative verbs is one of the most extensively studied L2 lexical issues. However, most of the previous studies focus on the distinction between unaccusative and unergative verbs. In contrast, studies that are devoted to the distinction between non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs are much smaller in number.

Sorace (1995) proposes the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, which suggests that unaccusative verbs form a hierarchy ranging from core unaccusative verbs to peripheral ones. Moreover, core unaccusative verbs are acquired earlier than peripheral ones. According to this hypothesis, non-alternating unaccusative verbs are placed at the core of the hierarchy and are predicted to be acquired before alternating unaccusative verbs, which are peripheral. However, Ju (2000) finds that there is no difference between these two types of unaccusative verbs, because they are equally passivized by EFL learners.

Yip (1995) claims that non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs pose different acquisition problems. To acquire non-alternating unaccusative verbs, L2 learners need to expunge the ungrammatical passive use of these verbs from their interlanguage grammar. To acquire alternating unaccusative verbs, they need to functionally distinguish the intransitive use of these verbs from their passive use. Cai (2000) suggests that the acquisition of alternating unaccusative verbs is for L2 learners to acquire their intransitive use on the basis of their transitive use.

Oshita (2001) postulates the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, which states that L2 learners do not distinguish unaccusative verbs from unergative verbs when their proficiency is low. And they undergo a U-shaped developmental process in their acquisition of English unaccusative verbs. However, Hwang (1999) finds that L2 learners display a

rising pattern in their rejection of the ungrammatical passive use of non-alternating unaccusative verbs, but a falling pattern in their acceptance of the grammatical intransitive use of alternating unaccusative verbs.

Two points can be made about the previous studies. First, previous studies usually explored the acquisition sequence, acquisition problem and developmental patterns of non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs in a separate way. Second, no consensus has been reached over these three issues. It is therefore necessary to undertake a study that will include all these three issues so as to delineate a complete picture of L2 acquisition of non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

This study had three research questions to answer. (1) Which type of unaccusative verbs do Chinese learners of different proficiency levels acquire first, non-alternating or alternating ones? (2) What kind of acquisition problems do non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs pose to Chinese learners of different proficiency levels? (3) What kind of developmental patterns do non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs follow?

B. Subjects

Four levels of Chinese English learners participated in this study. The low-level learners were 2nd-year students from Hua Luogeng High School in Jintan, Jiangsu Province, while the lower-intermediate learners were 3rd-year students from the same school. The intermediate learners were 2nd-year English majors from Suzhou University, Jiangsu Province, while the advanced learners were 1st-year graduate students of English from Nanjing University in the same province.

C. Target Words

This study chose six non-alternating unaccusative verbs (appear, arrive, exist, fall, happen, remain) and six alternating verbs (break, change, improve, increase, melt, sink) as its target words.

D. Instruments

Following Hwang (1999), this task adopted an acceptability judgment task and presented each target word in the NP-V, NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures. For non-alternating unaccusative verbs, the intransitive use is grammatical, while the passive and transitive uses are both ungrammatical. For alternating unaccusative verbs, not only the intransitive use, but also the passive and transitive uses are grammatical.

Since this study was concerned with L2 acquisition of English unaccusative verbs, qualified subjects should, as suggested by Ju (2000), have acquired the rule of English passive voice. Therefore, twelve pseudo passive sentences (e.g. *My bike stole yesterday*) were included as distracters. All the test sentences and distracters were mixed and randomized. But sentences with the same target word were so ordered that they did not appear in adjacency. The subjects were asked to rate the acceptability of each sentence on a 5-point scale ranging from -2 to +2.

E. Data Processing

The subjects were asked to provide the correct alternative when assigning a negative score. If their correction touched upon the real concern of the test sentence, their negative score would be retained. If their correction was irrelevant or unnecessary, their negative score would be changed into the corresponding positive score. In a word, the corrections the subjects made outweighed the scores they gave. Since the distracters were grammatical errors, they should be scored negatively. If a subject made three or more wrong judgements on the twelve distracters, he or she would be disqualified, resulting in the deletion of their data from the data pool. Finally, the low-level group had 33 qualified subjects, the lower-intermediate group 49, the intermediate group 43, the advanced group 29.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Acquisition Sequence

1. Avoidance

Table 1 shows that four levels of Chinese learners all accepted non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V structure significantly more often than they did with alternating ones. In other words, they overcame the problem of avoidance of non-alternating unaccusative verbs earlier than that of alternating ones.

TABLE 1:
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TESTS ON THE NP-V STRUCTURE

NP-V	Non-alternating unaccusatives		Alternating unaccusatives		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Low	1.10	0.68	0.35	0.90	5.286	.000
Lower-intermediate	1.34	0.41	0.77	0.57	6.344	.000
Intermediate	1.61	0.61	0.89	0.61	5.620	.000
Advanced	1.83	0.19	1.45	0.51	3.668	.001

2. Passivization

Table 2 shows that four levels of Chinese learners all accepted non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-Be-Ven structure significantly less often than they did with alternating ones. That is to say, they recovered from the error of passivization of non-alternating unaccusative verbs earlier than that of alternating ones.

TABLE 2:
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TESTS ON THE NP-BE-VEN STRUCTURE

NP-Be-Ven	Non-alternating unaccusatives		Alternating unaccusatives		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Low	-0.30	0.82	0.62	0.90	-6.823	.000
Lower-intermediate	-0.42	0.96	0.35	0.76	-6.963	.000
Intermediate	-1.18	0.78	0.25	0.78	-11.295	.000
Advanced	-1.67	0.43	0.21	0.86	-11.660	.000

3. Summary of Avoidance and Passivization

Summarizing the comparison between non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs with respect to avoidance and passivization, one can see that all levels of Chinese learners performed better on non-alternating unaccusative verbs than alternating ones. This suggests that they acquired non-alternating unaccusative verbs earlier than alternating ones.

B. Acquisition Problem

1. Non-alternating Unaccusative Verbs

For non-alternating unaccusative verbs, the NP-V structure is the only grammatical syntactic option, while the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures are both ungrammatical. To become target-like, Chinese learners should accept the NP-V structure, but reject the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures. Given the fact that Chinese learners were asked to score these structures on a 5-point scale ranging from -2 to +2, the maximum correct score for non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V structure was +2, while those for the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures were both -2.

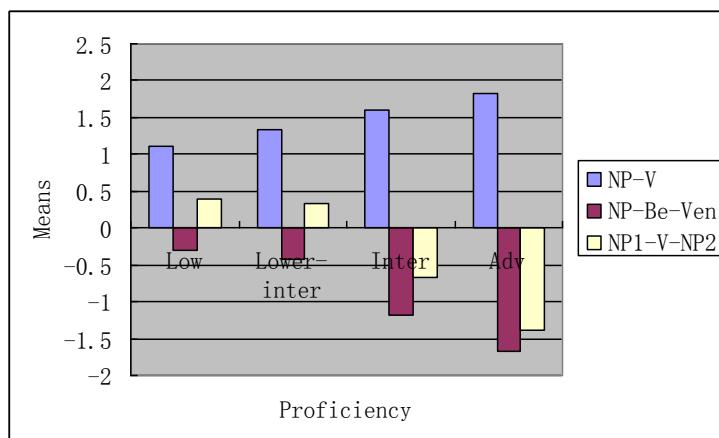


Figure 1: Means of Non-alternating Unaccusative verbs in Three Structures

Figure 1 shows that low-level Chinese learners' means of the grammatical NP-V structure was slightly above 1.0, which kept a relatively large distance from the maximum correct score of 2.0. Their means of the ungrammatical NP-Be-Ven structure was negative but was above -0.5, which kept a very large distance from the maximum correct score of -2.0. Their means for the ungrammatical NP1-V-NP2 structure was positive, which was seriously deviant from the maximum correct score of -2.0. The low-level Chinese learners' pattern was roughly replicated by the lower-intermediate learners. In contrast, the intermediate and advanced learners' patterns were different. For one thing, their means of the grammatical NP-V structure became more and more positive. For another thing, their means of the ungrammatical NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures became more and more negative. This suggests that Chinese learners at upper levels became more and more target-like in their judgments of non-alternating unaccusative verbs presented in different structures, grammatical and ungrammatical alike. That is to say, Chinese learners at upper levels could establish the correct argument and syntactic structure representations of non-alternating unaccusative verbs.

The differences between Chinese learners at lower levels and those at upper levels suggest that the acquisition of non-alternating unaccusative verbs was to reinforce the grammatical intransitive use of these verbs on the one hand and to expunge their ungrammatical passive and transitive uses on the other hand. This finding is more complicated than what Yip (1995) suggests in that she only touches upon the ungrammatical passive use, but makes no mention of the grammatical intransitive use and the ungrammatical transitive use. Therefore, the acquisition problem of non-alternating unaccusative verbs is more complex and more difficult than what Yip (1995) claims.

2. Alternating Unaccusative Verbs

For alternating unaccusative verbs, the NP-V, NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures are all grammatically correct. However, the NP-Be-Ven structure was designed to be an inappropriate syntactic choice in the acceptability judgment task of this study. Since the contexts provided for alternating unaccusative verbs did not suggest an agent, it was infelicitous to use them in the NP-Be-Ven structure. To become target-like, Chinese learners should accept the NP-V and NP1-V-NP2 structures, but not to accept the NP-Be-Ven structure. Given the fact that Chinese learners were asked to rate these structures on a 5-point scale ranging from -2 to +2, the maximum correct scores for alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V and NP1-V-NP2 structures were both +2, while that for the NP-Be-Ven structure was -2.

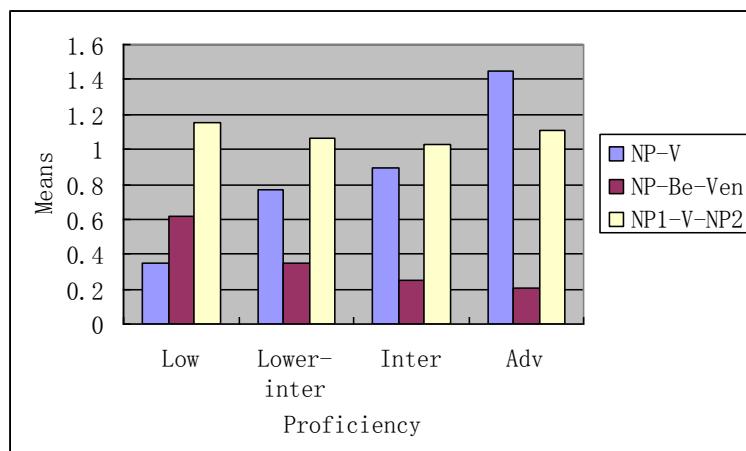


Figure 2: Means of Alternating Unaccusative Verbs in Three Structures

Figure 2 shows that the low-level Chinese learners' means of the NP-V structure was below 0.5, while that for the NP1-V-NP2 structure was above the 1.0. Given the fact the maximum correct scores for both structures were +2, it is evident that the low-level Chinese learners had not acquired the intransitive use of alternating unaccusative verbs, but had basically acquired their transitive use. In contrast, the advanced learners' means of the NP-V structure was above 1.5, while that for the NP1-V-NP2 structure was also above the 1.0. This suggests that the advanced learners had acquired both the intransitive and transitive uses of alternating unaccusative verbs. In this sense, the acquisition of alternating unaccusative verbs was for Chinese learners to acquire the intransitive use of alternating unaccusative verbs on the basis of their transitive use. This finding is consistent with what Cai (2000) suggests.

3. Contrast between Non-alternating and Alternating Unaccusative Verbs

The acquisition problem of non-alternating unaccusative verbs is for Chinese learners to establish and reinforce the grammatical intransitive use of these verbs on the one hand and relinquish their ungrammatical passive and transitive uses on the other. The acquisition problem of alternating unaccusative verbs is for Chinese learners to incorporate the intransitive use of these verbs into their interlanguage grammar, which first develops the transitive use of these verbs. It is therefore evident that these two types of unaccusative verbs pose different acquisition problems to Chinese learners.

C. Developmental Patterns

1. Non-alternating Unaccusative Verbs

First, as far as the NP-V structure was concerned, the results of a one-way ANOVA showed that the differences between the four proficiency groups were highly significant, $F(3, 150) = 12.692, p = .000$. The results of a post hoc multiple comparisons test (Tamhane) revealed that the means of the low-level learners was not significantly lower than that of the lower-intermediate learners, but was significantly lower than those of the intermediate and advanced learners. The means of the lower-intermediate learners was not significantly lower than that of the intermediate learners, but was significantly lower than that of the advanced learners. The means of the intermediate learners was not significantly lower than that of the advanced learners. Therefore, a slow, non-continuous developmental pattern with a rising trend emerged in Chinese learners' acceptance of non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V structure.

Second, with respect to the NP-Be-Ven structure, the results of a one-way ANOVA showed that the differences between the four proficiency learners were highly significant, $F(3, 150) = 22.251, p = .000$. The results of a post hoc multiple comparisons test (Tamhane) revealed that the means of the low-level learners was not significantly higher than that of the lower-intermediate learners, but was significantly higher than those of the intermediate and advanced learners. The means of the lower-intermediate learners was significantly higher than those of the intermediate and advanced learners. And the means of the intermediate learners was significantly higher than that of the advanced learners. Therefore, a developmental pattern of initial stagnation and subsequent decrease emerged in Chinese learners' judgment of non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-Be-Ven structure.

Third, as for the NP1-V-NP2 structure, the results of a one-way ANOVA showed that the differences between the four proficiency learners were highly significant, $F(3, 150) = 35.279, p = .000$. The results of a post hoc multiple

comparisons test (LSD) revealed that the means of the low-level learners was not significantly higher than that of the lower-intermediate learners, but was significantly higher than those of the intermediate and advanced learners. The means of the lower-intermediate learners was significantly higher than those of the intermediate and advanced learners. And the means of the intermediate learners was significantly higher than that of the advanced learners. Therefore, a developmental pattern of initial stagnation and subsequent decrease emerged in Chinese learners' judgment of non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP1-V-NP2 structure.

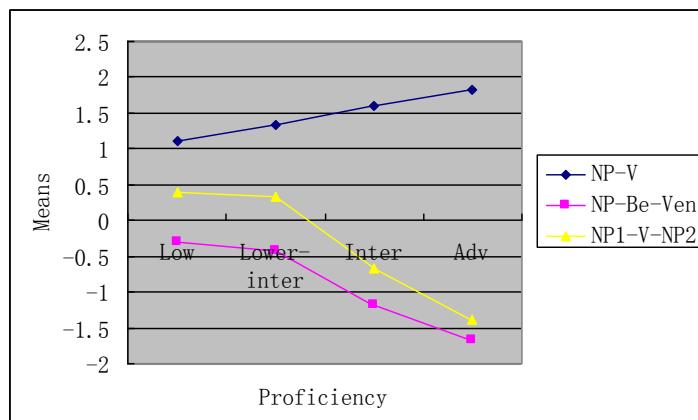


Figure 3: Developmental Patterns of Non-alternating Unaccusative Verbs in Three Structures

Summarizing the developmental patterns of these three structures, one can see that Chinese learners' judgments of non-alternating unaccusative verbs became more and more target-like with the improvement of their L2 proficiency. On the one hand, they became more and more acceptable of the grammatical intransitive use of these verbs in the NP-V structure, despite the fact that their change was slow and non-continuous. On the other hand, they became more and more unacceptable of the ungrammatical passive and transitive uses of these verbs in the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures, despite the fact that they were subject to an initial stagnation.

It is safe to say that Chinese learners achieved a better acquisition of non-alternating unaccusative verbs when their L2 proficiency improved. Their progress could be attributed to the facilitative function of positive evidence and the inhibitory function of indirect negative evidence. The positive evidence referred to the fact that the input always presents non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V structure. The availability of such positive evidence could help Chinese learners to establish such a syntactic representation in their minds. Since Chinese learners at upper levels normally received more positive evidence than their lower-level counterparts, it was natural that they were more acceptable of the intransitive use of non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V structure. The indirect negative evidence referred to the fact that the input never presents non-alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-Be-Ven structure or the NP1-V-NP2 structure. When Chinese learners noticed the non-occurrence of these two structures, they were likely to refrain from accepting them. Eventually, they would reject them.

2. Alternating Unaccusative Verbs

First, as far as the NP-V structure was concerned, the results of a one-way ANOVA showed that the differences between the four proficiency groups were highly significant, $F(3, 150) = 14.879, p = .000$. The results of a post hoc multiple comparisons test (Tamhane) revealed that the means of the low-level learners was not significantly lower than that of the lower-intermediate learners, but was significantly lower than those of the intermediate and advanced learners. The means of the lower-intermediate learners was not significantly lower than that of the intermediate learners, but was significantly lower than that of the advanced learners. The means of the intermediate learners was also significantly lower than that of the advanced learners. Therefore, a developmental pattern of initial stagnation and later increase emerged in Chinese learners' acceptance of alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V structure.

Second, with respect to the NP-Be-Ven structure, the results of a one-way ANOVA showed that the differences between the four proficiency groups were not statistically significant, $F(3, 150) = 1.683, p = .173$. Therefore, a horizontal developmental pattern of no changes emerged in Chinese learners' judgments of alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-Be-Ven structure.

Third, as for the NP1-V-NP2 structure, the results of a one-way ANOVA showed that the differences between the four proficiency groups were not statistically significant, $F(3, 150) = .344, p = .793$. Therefore, a horizontal developmental pattern of no changes emerged in Chinese learners' judgments of alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP1-V-NP2 structure.

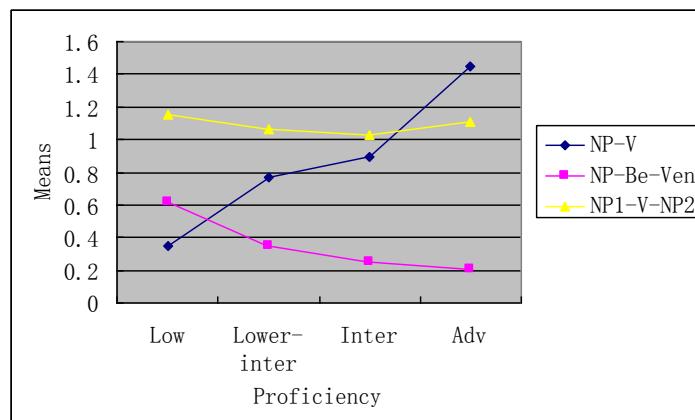


Figure 4: Developmental Patterns of Alternating Unaccusative Verbs in Three Structures

Summarizing the developmental patterns of these three structures, one can see that when Chinese learners' L2 proficiency improved, their judgments of alternating unaccusative verbs became more target-like only in the NP-V structure, but were subject to stabilization in the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures. There were different reasons for the developmental changes that happened to these structures.

Chinese learners' growing tendency to accept the intransitive use of alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V structure could be attributed to the facilitative function of positive evidence. That is, Chinese learners at upper levels normally received more L2 input that presents alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-V structure. As a result, they gradually recognized that it is allowed to use alternating unaccusative verbs in this intransitive way and thus became more and more acceptable of such a usage.

Chinese learners' unchanged tendency to accept the passive use of alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP-Be-Ven structure could be explained by their insensitivity to contextual appropriateness. Given the fact that the passive use of alternating unaccusative verbs was designed to be contextually inappropriate as in *His lifestyle was completely changed after he got married*, Chinese learners were expected to become more and more unacceptable of such a usage when their L2 proficiency improved. But they did not show any signs of change. That is to say, Chinese learners at upper levels were no better than their lower-level counterparts in recognizing this error of contextual inappropriateness. Therefore, it is possible to say that Chinese learners' sense of contextual appropriateness did not improve with the improvement of their L2 proficiency.

As for the lack of changes in Chinese learners' acceptance of the transitive use of alternating unaccusative verbs in the NP1-V-NP2 structure, it was hard to explain. On the one hand, all the proficiency groups' means, as can be seen from Figure 4.6, were above 1.0, indicating that all of them had basically acquired the transitive use of alternating unaccusative verbs. On the other hand, their means, which were only slightly above 1.0, were somewhat distant from the maximum correct score of 2.0, suggesting that their acquisition was not completely successful.

3. Contrast between Non-alternating and Alternating Unaccusative Verbs

Summarizing the developmental patterns of non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs, one can see that there were both similarities and differences between them. The similarities were found in the NP-V structure. That is, a developmental pattern with a general rising trend emerged in Chinese learners' acceptance of both non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs. The differences were found in the NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures. That is, a developmental pattern with a falling trend emerged for non-alternating unaccusative verbs, while a developmental pattern of no changes emerged for alternating ones.

D. Discussion

This study finds that non-alternating unaccusative verbs are acquired earlier than alternating ones. This finding supports the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis (Sorace, 1995), which posits that non-alternating unaccusative verbs are core while alternating ones are peripheral and predicts that the former are acquired before the latter.

This study finds that non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs pose different acquisition problems. The former is for L2 learners to strengthen the grammatical intransitive use of non-alternating unaccusative verbs on the one hand and abandon their ungrammatical passive and transitive uses on the other. The latter is for L2 learners to integrate the intransitive use of alternating unaccusative verbs on the basis of the transitive use of these verbs. This finding is more complicated than Yip (1995).

This study finds that non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs undergo partially different and partially similar developmental patterns in three structural variations. However, none of the patterns are U-shaped. The lack of a U-shape casts doubts on the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis (Oshita, 2001), which predicts such a developmental pattern for L2 acquisition of English unaccusative verbs. The rising trend of the grammatical NP-V structure for both non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs is suggested as a result of the facilitative function of positive evidence. The falling trend of the ungrammatical NP-Be-Ven and NP1-V-NP2 structures for non-alternating

unaccusative verbs is suggested as a result of the inhibitory function of indirect negative evidence. It is evident that positive and negative evidence are conducive to the development of L2 acquisition of English unaccusative verbs in different aspects. Since both positive and negative evidence can be considered as L2 input, it is possible to say that L2 input plays an important role in L2 acquisition of English unaccusative verbs.

V. CONCLUSION

This study conducted a contrastive study of Chinese learners' acquisition of English non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs in terms of acquisition sequence, acquisition problem and developmental patterns. It found Chinese learners acquired the former earlier than the latter. And they were faced with different acquisition problems and underwent partially similar and partially different developmental patterns. This study focused on the between-group variations in L2 acquisition of English non-alternating and alternating unaccusative verbs. Future studies are suggested to investigate this issue in greater details by examining the between-verb variations in L2 acquisition of English unaccusative verbs, non-alternating and alternating alike.

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The Impact of Persian Language on Indian Languages

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Abstract—The purpose of the paper is to examine the impact of Persian language on many Indian Languages like Bengali, Punjabi, Urdu, Gujarati, Telugu, and Hindi etc. For historical reasons, Indian languages have borrowed a great number of Persian words and phrases from Persian language that they have been using in the society of India. Old Persian Language, Middle Persian Language, and Modern Persian Language will be examined. Many Indian languages and Persian languages are part of the Indo-European languages. India and Iran have always had close relationship with each other; this relationship has been observed even before the advent of Islam. The time of Persians king was available trade ties between two nations who travelled with their ships and passed from Persian Gulf to Indian Ocean. The above Indian languages will be discussed briefly in this paper.

Index Terms—Persian language, Indian languages, old Persian language, middle Persian language, modern Persian language

I. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this brief article is to highlight the impact of Persian language on Indian Languages.

Gleason (1961) pointed out that "Indo-European is the largest and most important language family, from the point of view of both the social importance of the major language in the group, and their interest to linguists. The term Indo-European is applied to the family of languages that spread initially throughout Europe and several parts of south Asia and that are in modern times used in every part of the world. This family is divided into several sub-families or branches or groups, each of which comprises several languages "(cited in Varshney1998, p. 403). Persian language as one of the branches of Indo-European languages has had a major linguistic and literary influence on Indian Languages. Safavi (2006) argued that "all Indian languages like Bengali, Punjabi, Marathi, Gujarati, Telugu, and Hindi etc. contain a great number of Persian words and phrases for which they have no synonym"(p. ix). Persian language was spoken Middle East, and Asia countries roughly from 1000 AD to 1800 AD and it was used as lingua-Franca of many countries over the world. The Persian language was used as a second language in South Asia it was served as the language of culture and education in several Muslim Courts in South Asia and became the sole official language under the Mughal emperors. During the power of Mughal in India, the culture and education of India was influenced by Persian language and the relationship between two nations in literature and science was at its peak and Persian language was official language of India. In this time, almost all languages of India have been influenced by Persian language not only in India literature but also in the speech of the common people. Persian language has had strong influenced on Urdu, Punjabi, and Sindhi in India. Other Indian languages like Hindi, Gujarati, Marathi, and Rajasthani have borrowed a great number of Persian words and phrases from Persian language. Safavi (2006, p. ix) indicated that "Mughal kings patronized Iranian poets and scholars and the impact of Persian culture and language is discernable on all aspects of intellectual and socio-cultural life of India. Indian officers and nobles employed at the court, wore Iranian dress, spoke Persian language and enjoyed Persian poetry". She added that "From the East to West this synthesis of two cultures can be observed in architecture, painting, music, and poetry. Agra, Fatehpur Sikri, the Deccani mosques and mausoleums, Maharaja Ranjit Singh's forts, many Gurdwaras, Akbar's tomb at Sikandra and of course the Taj Mahal are eye-catching examples of the Persian influence"(p. ix). According to Nizami (2013), the Persian language had influenced on all aspects of Indian life, such as political, literary, cultural, and religious aspects. He added that in the history of India during the medieval period, a number of Iranian cultural streams in the realm of polity, social traditions, literature, historiography and mystic thought seem flowing in every direction enriching the soil and contributing to the variegated culture pattern of India. It was generally believed in India during the Sultanate period that kingship was not possible without emulating Persian customs, ceremonies and principles of government.

The role of Persian language in India was very important and it was used as the second official language of India, The Persian language considered as the language of culture and science of Subcontinent, before the British colonized India. The Persian language was replaced by English Language in India in 1832. Before 1832, the Persian language was spoken by people from Sind to Bengal. The Farsi language is used among the Indian people as only the same language

among them where as Indian languages differed from group to group and the people had the different dialects in every place of Subcontinent.

II. THE HISTORY OF PERSIAN LANGUAGE

In the case of the history of Persian language, Persian language is known as one of the oldest languages in the world, this language is directly related to Indo-European language and it is known in the world as a branch of Indo-European language and it has root in the history of human being and came back to Aryans group were an old group arrived to Persia area from western Asia. Rashidvash (2012) mentioned that among the earliest civilizations in Mesopotamia, Iran was inhabited by human. But Iranian history dates back to 3200 BC. The first dynasty was Achaemenids, and the great founder of this empire was Cyrus. In addition, he was the first emperor established the charter of human rights and this empire was overthrown by Alexander the Great in 330 BC was empire of Seleucid Greek Dynasty. In this discussion, we consider briefly the history of the Persian language from Old Persian language to Modern Persian language. Old language in Iran is referred to Achaemenid Iranian language (until 400 BCE); this language is related to Avestan or Zarathushtra language. Fekri- Ershad and Mehrabi (2006) divided the Iranian old language into the four parts: 1. Old Persian, 2. Avestan, 3. Sacian, and 4. Median. Abolghassemi (1994) indicated that in the beginning of the first Millennium B.C., one of the Iranian Arian groups settled down in the high grounds of Iran, thus; old Persian language became independent language and the language prevailed in the area along with the other local dialects were used by the people. What we get information from period of old language, was based on Hinz (1973), "this language, like many other old languages had some peculiarities which underwent many changes during different times" (cited in Fekri- Ershad and Mehrabi 2006, p.202). Bartholomae (1901) mentioned some of these peculiarities as follows:

1. The old Persian vocabulary had three forms of weak, gund (strong), and vrdchli (stronger), and each form served a special purpose. In other words, the stem of each word appeared in the lexicon in one of these three forms.
2. The nouns had three genders: masculine, feminine, or neutral, in singular, dual and plural form. All nouns could syntactically fall in one of the eight cases: nominative, accusative, vocative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive, and locative, the nouns, according to the sound in which they ended, had special conjugation in these eight cases.
3. Pronouns, too, were conjugated in the eight cases above mentioned and had three genders and three numbers, but personal pronouns had no gender.
4. Adjectives were conjugated according to the gender, number, and case of the nouns they modified.
5. In Old Persian, many inflections were derived from the verbal roots each of which was used for a special purpose. Verbs had different modes; e.g. indicative, imperative, optative, conjunctive and injunctive. They had three voices: active, passive and middle. Different forms were made by adding the marker to the verb stem (cited in Fekri- Ershad and Mehrabi 2006, p.202).

Old Persian language used as an official language in the Old Iranian society spoken by Iranian people in the dynasty of Achaemenid kings such as Cyrus and the great Darius. In addition, their empire was overthrown by Alexander the Great. Middle Persian language started before the Iranian accepted Islam as an official religion. Middle Persian language is referred to 400 BCE-900CE. In this time, Iran was under empire of Sassanid, there are many languages, thus; two important languages used as official languages spoken by the Iranian people: Sassanid' language spoken in western south of Iran and the other language was spoken in the western north of Iran called the Parthian language. Fekri- Ershad and Mehrabi (2006, p. 203) mentioned some of the important features of Middle language as follows:

1. The phonological system of Middle Persian, which was based on Old Persian phonemes, was in fact considered as something between Old and New Persian, and by comparing these two systems we can understand its phonology. This comparison tells us that the phonemes of that period underwent changes in some aspects before they reached the next period.
2. Because of the phonetical changes and morphological endings, the Middle Persian vocabulary became shorter and simpler. For example, the adjective "kapautaka" changed to "kabod" after transition from Old Persian to Middle Persian.
3. In Middle Persian, nouns and pronouns lack gender and the number of 'dual' has disappeared.
4. The eight cases of nouns and pronouns limited to two forms of *casus rectus* and cases *obliquus*.
5. With the decrease of the eight cases, there was a need for prepositions. Prepositions were added to the syntax one by one.
6. The system of verbs, which was previously very comprehensive and complicated, became a lot simpler. Among the different modes of verbs, the injunctive did not transfer to Middle Persian, and the other modes were confined to two forms: present and past.

In addition, before Iran was attacked by the Muslim Arabs in the 7th century, the major important language was written by Iranian people was 'Pahlavi'. In this time, the role of much simplification of inflection grammatically, was taken placed in Middle Persian language. New Persian language appeared along with changes from Middle Persian language, in this time, Arabic vocabulary appeared in the language of Iranian people. Iranian people accepted Islam as an official ideology and the modern Persian language used by Iranian in new period was similar to Arabic language based on alphabetically, but the two languages were not similar in vocabulary and grammar, and their families were different. In addition, many Arabic words were used by Iranian speakers in order to communicate with themselves. New Persian language developed in 8th century after the empire of Caliphate at Baghdad in the 9th century was overthrown

and Dari language as new language accepted by the Iranian people as independent language and this language used in many areas such as Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Afghanistan, India, Pakistan, Turkmenistan and many other countries. The accepted of the new language was along with changes in the Middle Persian language, Fekri-Ershad and Mehrabi (2006, p.204) indicated most important of the changes as follows:

1. There happened some slight changes in the Persian phonetic system; some old phonetic forms can be traced in some Persian dialects of today.

2. The writing system, once again, changed and some other forms such as *Naskh* and *Nastealigh* replaced the old one.

3. The most important change that took place in this period was the appearance of Arabic vocabulary in the language, and by passing of time, the vocabulary of other languages such as Turkish, France, Russian, English, etc. joined Persian.

However, the modern Persian language in some other countries such as Western countries is known as Farsi language. Another name of Farsi is called Persian, Iranian 'Farhangestan' as the official the Persian Language and Literature Academy use Persian word instead of Farsi word in cultural, diplomatic and scientific communication over the world.

III. THE INDIAN LANGUAGES

The major Indian languages are closely related to Persian language; in this paper briefly discussed: Urdu, Bengali, Punjabi, Gujarati, Telugu, and Hindi. They are prominent languages of India among the other Indian languages have been more influenced by Persian language during the period of the interaction between two nations. Urdu is one of the important Indian languages was born as independent language in the end of the 4th century AD. This language is more spoken by the Indian Muslim groups over India. This language was born out of the interaction between Persian language and Hindi language and thus, Urdu borrowed many Arabic words, the Arabic words along with Persian and Hindi words made the basis of Urdu language. When Turks and Mongols came to India, they introduced Arabic and Persian languages. The most important reason for the development of Urdu language was the interaction between the Turkish people and soldiers with common people in Delhi after, the conquest of Delhi. In 18th century, Urdu has influenced on Indian literature and in this time, this language became more important and popular language over Subcontinent and it has found its prominent place in Indian society. Urdu language is one of the Indo-Aryan branch of the Indo-European languages, thus; it used as an official language of Muslim groups and in Pakistan country is spoken as their national and lingua franca. Bengali is one of the major important languages in India has been influenced by Persian language in the history of Subcontinent. Bengali is one of the families of Indo-Aryan language. It is mother tongue of west Bengal people and Bangladesh nation. Tahir Ali (2006) defined Bengali language as one of the sweetest language around world and He added that this language has a very literature in prose and poetry both. According to Tahir Ali (2006), the history of Bengali language divided into three periods as follows:

1. The old Bengali Period;

2. The middle Bengali period;

3. The modern Bengali periods.

The old Bengali period came back to 950 A.D. and continued up to 1200A.D. The middle Bengali period started from 1200 A.D. TO 1800 A.D. The modern Bengali period started from 1800 A.D. and it is still used as native language of Bengal people in Subcontinent. In addition, before the advent of Muslim rule, the Sanskrit was more interested in the area more than Bengali language by the Bengal people. Punjabi is one of the Indian languages has been influenced by Persian language in Subcontinent. This language like Bengali language is one of the families of Indo-Aryan language, thus; it is mother tongue of the Northwest of Indian people and part of Pakistan. Punjab language as one of the independent languages of India appeared in the 12th century, thus; this language used by the huge population of Sikhs in Punjab. Punjab language has influenced on Indian cultures, today, we can see that the role of this language is very important in Indian Bollywood cinema, in addition, some poets and songs written by great Indian poets in Punjab language used by Indian artists in Bollywood cinema. This language used among the Indian people in other countries such as England, Wales, U.S.A, Canada, and Arab countries. It is known as the first official language of the Indian states of Punjab. Hindi language is known as one of the three Indian educational languages (English, Hindi, and Local language) in Subcontinent. It is one of the official languages of Indian people in India and it is recognized by the Indian government as language communication along with English language for the union government in Subcontinent. Hindi language is called as one of the members of Indo-Aryan groups and one of the branches of Indo-European Language spoken by Indian people in India and over the world. It is also known as the fourth spoken language speaking in the world. If we come the history of Indian languages, we pay attention that Hindi was part of Urdu language, today; linguistically, both of them are the same language, and belong to Indo-European language, thus; Hindi language was born out of the interaction among Arabic, Persian, English, even Sanskrit words. There is only written difference between Urdu and Hindi languages is that Urdu language is written in a Persian-modified Arabic scripts whereas Hindi is written in the Devanagari script (Watkins, et al, 2013). After independence of India, the government of India released the following conventions:

1. standardization of grammar: In 1954, the Government of India set up a committee to prepare a grammar of Hindi; The committee's report was released in 1958 as "A Basic Grammar of Modern Hindi"

2. standardization of the orthography, using the Devanagari script, by the Central Hindi Directorate of the Ministry of Education and Culture to bring about uniformity in writing, to improve the shape of some Devanagari characters, and introducing diacritics to express sounds from other languages.

In addition, Hindi language is used more than other Indian languages in Indian movies in India.

The one of the Indian language, we consider it, it is called Gujarati. Gujarati belongs to Gujarat area in India and the official language of the West India and thus; it is one of the members of Indo- Aryan groups and one of the branches of Indo-European Language. Historically, this language divided into three parts: Old Gujarati language started from AD 1100 to 1500, Middle Gujarati language was between AD 1500 to 1800, and new language of Gujarati recorded from AD 1800. Gujarati language is the fourteen regional Indian languages among the twenty-two official languages in Subcontinent. This language was the mother tongue of the great leader of India, Mahatma Gandhi. The last Indian languages is considered in this paper is Telugu. Telugu is one of the branches of the Dravidian language; it is used as the official language of Andhra Pradesh State. Telugu language, Except; Hindi and Bengali languages; is known as the third most spoken language in Subcontinent. Historically, this language divided into the four periods: the first period came from 200 BEC to 500CE; the second period started from 500CE to 1100CE; the third period was between 1100CE and 1400CE; and the last period started from 1400CE to 1900CE. Thus, this language also used as one of the movie languages in Indian Bollywood cinema in India. The aim of this part of the article was to familiar briefly the audiences with Indian languages are closely related to Persian language

IV. PERSIAN LANGUAGE INFLUENCE ON INDIAN LANGUAGES

The aim of this brief paper is to highlight a few important features of the Persian language which enriched the Indian languages during the history of the relationship between the two nations. One of the best interactions between the Iranian and Indian nations came to the period of The Mughal rulers in India. In this time, the impact of the Persian language has been seen on all aspects of life of Indian people such as their culture, language, the most important of this relationship between Iran and India came to the influenced of Iranian culture and language on India language and culture is that in this time, we can see emergence of an entirely new style of poetry and prose in India literature, according to Safavi (2006, ix)," the interaction of Indo-Iranian cultures also gave birth to a new language 'Rekhta or Urdu' which is a synthesis of Hindi, Persian and Arabic words." In discussion of the influence of Persian language on Indian languages, the discussion is considered briefly as follows:

One of the official Indian language was under influence of the Persian language is Bengali language, or language of the west Bengal people. In the early 13th century Bengal was conquered by Muslim, leader, namely Ikhtiyaruddin bin Mohammad Bakhtiar Khilji. From this period, Bengal people accepted new culture, according to Tahir Ali (2006) Bengali people tried to learn new language (Persian), thus; number of the Persian words, phrases and idioms which enriched their language. He added that "Muslims Sufis, who had already reached Bengal and settled here even centuries before the advent of Muslim rule, also played, directly and indirectly, an important role in the development of Bengali language and literature. In fact, it was the preaching of the Muslim Sufis of Bengal through which Persian mystical elements as well as Persian words and thoughts started penetrating into Bengali poetry" (p.2). The role of the Persian language was very vital in the progress of Bengali poetry; we can see hundreds of the Persian words in poetry of Bengal; even after the establishment of Muslim rules in the area. Some the famous Persian books' stories and poets translated into Bengali language such as Laila and Majnu, Hafiz Shirazi, (Hafiz Shirazi is a Great poet in Iranian literature and very famous over the world), Yusuf and Zulaikha, etc.

One of the official languages of Indian people has borrowed a great number the Persian words and phrases and idioms is Urdu language. We said that Urdu language was born out of the interaction between Persian and Hindi and Arabic languages. Bahri (1960, p. 9) argued that" the most important influence of Persian on Hindi, it has been recognized, was the growth and development of Urdu language and literature." Historically, Urdu word has been derived from Turkish term which was used military station during the period of Mughal rule in India. Urdu language like Bengali language was under influence on Persian language, what it is very clear, is that impact of the Persian language and literature on Urdu has been considered, according to Bahri (1960) Urdu literature adopted Persian literature in form and conception, in addition even in feeling, and in local colouring. Many Persian books such as Leila and Majnu, Shirin and Farhad, and Yusuf and Zulaikha which have been famous in Iranian culture translated into Urdu language. In discussion of the relationship between the two languages, particularly, in the form of poetry, Urdu language adopted the impact of the Iranian poetry (Persian poetry as one of the richest poetry in the world and it always bless the literature of human being in the during history of mankind). Many great Iranian poets have influenced on Urdu poetry, many Urdu poets such as Wali,Mir, Sauda and Insha used the Persian vocabularies in their poems. Many Persian vocabularies have been used in Urdu language along with compound with an Urdu word ' karna or کرنا کردنگ' are expressed as follows:

Persian word	Urdu word	English word
qahbool kardan	قبول کرنا (qahbool krna)	accept
shak kardan	شک کرنا (shak krna)	suspect
mahroom kardan	محروم کرنا (mahroom krna)	deprive
negah kardan	نگاہ کرنا (negah krna)	look at

safar kardan (safar krna) سفر کرنا travel

In addition, the decline of the Persian language as a vehicle of Urdu literature as one of the official Indian languages began rapidly in the Mughal period comeback to the death of Aurangzeb was one of the Mughal Emperor. In the time of British Empire in India, Urdu was favoured by the British more than Hindi language. For historical reasons, "they soon discovered that it was easier to win over the Muslims than to appease the Hindus. It was; therefore, politically expedient for the British to encourage Muslim institutions (Bahri, 1960, p.13)."

Hindi language used as one of the three official Indian languages (Hindi, English, and Local language) in Indian educational system and also it used as lingua franca in order to link Indian people in Subcontinent. In the history of India, Hindi language has basically been influenced by Persian language. Hindi language or Hindu language as one of the major important Indian people language adopted by government of India as an official language along with English language in India, regarding to the important of English language in India, after India revolution in 1947; the great prime minister of India, Nero argued that we need English language as language that can help to us communicate with all of people in the world and open the window of knowledge and science towards to India. According to Bahri (1960), the period of Persian influence, started with establishment of Muslim Rule in Delhi and ends with the fall of British Power in India. The history of the influence of Persian language on Hindi language divided into seven items, and according to Bahri (1960) the influence of Persian language on Hindi language has been more than seven centuries. Historically, the seven periods are written, briefly as follows:

- historically, the seven periods of history, briefly as follows:

 1. From 1200 to 1400 A.D., this period is called negligible influence of Persian language on Hindi language;
 2. From 1400 to 1600 A.D., this time is called tangible influence of Persian language on Hindi language;
 3. From 1600 to 1750 A.D., this age is called harmony among classes and there was period of healthy political and social co-operation between Muslims and Hindus. In this time, Akbar king was ruler, the political harmony was initiated by Akbar and social harmony by Sufis and Bhaktas.
 4. This age started from 1750 to 1836. Urdu language was born and used as a form of literature in northern India. Hindi language is considered as a common medium of literature for Hindus as well as Muslims. In this time, Persian language has influenced on Hindi language normally and without any forced. This period is also called the golden age of Hindi literature.
 5. This period started from 1837 to 1900, we call the period of over-emphasis on Arabo-Persian due to the organized patronage of Urdu by the British and consequent suppression of Hindi in Northern provinces of India. In this period, Hindi language has been influenced by Persian through Urdu in its all spheres of life: education, administration and correspondence, besides literature, thus; Hindi imitated Urdu.
 6. This time is known as a reaction against over-Persianization began from 1900 when Hindi language used as an alternative court language in U.P state in India and Persian words and forms still used in speech and literature, thus; this period is called the time of toleration. All India started pro-Sanskrit tendencies which have ever grown in all aspects of their life and which have given a severe setback to the influence of Persian language.
 7. The last period of the influence of Persian language on Hindi language came back to the 20th century, in this era, Hindi language adopted as the official language of the Union of India. This language has been recognized in Devanagari and then it used in India script instead of Urdu and Persian scripts.

Even today, the largest numbers of Persian words are available in Hindi language used in the society of India among people of Subcontinent. A number of the Persian words have been borrowed by Hindi language are mentioned as follows:

Persian	English
asman	sky
kalam	pen
rah	way
tang	narrow
zahar	poison
iman	faith
avaz	voice
khat	letter

In addition, many other Indian languages such as Gujarati, Telugu, and Punjabi have been influenced by Persian language during the period of Persian language had power in India. Many Iranian texts and books have been translated into Gujarati, Telugu, and Punjabi languages. Today, the impact of Persian language can be seen in written and spoken of the languages and Persian words still exist in Gujarati, Telugu, and Punjabi .

V. CONCLUSION

In this conclusion, first, Iranian language is historically considered and then the influence of the Persian language on Indian languages mentioned. The Iranian languages include Persian (Farsi), Pashto (in Afghanistan and Pakistan), Kurdish (in much of Middle East), Ossetic (in the Caucasus), and a large number of smaller languages. The Persian language spoken in Tadjikistan is called Tadjik. Two important Iranian languages: Avestan was the language of

Zoroastrian religious texts and Old Persian language was the language of the Persian Empire (Trask, 1996). Many Indian languages are the branch of Indo-Aryan language contains Hindi, Urdu, Gujarati, Panjabi, and Bengali.

The first shape of Iranian civilization in India was Persian language developed by Mughal period. The Persian language became the official and government of India, in that time, Mughal had power, specially "Akbar" was one of the powerful emperors developed the Persian language as the official language of this empire and Indian people had adopted this language more than the other languages such as Arabic language. The Persian language became the language of diplomacy, main language (administration) of India. Therefore, Indian People have borrowed a number of The Persian words and many Indian poets and writers adopted it as the language of poetry and literature. Today, a number of the Persian language are available in the poetry and literature and even in Indian local languages. In 1832 the Persian language was replaced by English language when British entered in India.

Thus, regarding what has been presented in this paper, Indian people adopted the influence of the Persian language on their languages and cultures and this relation was closer ties between two nations in the time of Akbar emperor in the 16th century.

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A Research of College English Reflective Teaching in China*

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Abstract—"Reflective teaching", as a reform in international teachers' education as well as a theory of teacher training, aims to promote teachers professional development. Based on the analyses of moral responsibility of teaching and actual result of teaching techniques, it has gradually developed into a powerful teaching trend which has been influencing practice of education all over the world. This paper aims to clarify the following problems: what is reflective teaching; why is reflective teaching worth doing. By analyzing the theoretical bases and previous research of reflective teaching, it further proposed five aspects of reflective teaching for high school teachers to employ in their teaching practice in China.

Index Terms—reflective teaching, English teaching, practice

I. INTRODUCTION

The general and long standing problem of China's college English education is that much time is consumed but little effect achieved. The inefficient and even negative classroom teaching can't meet the needs of the fast development of China, nor to suit the needs of opening up to the outside world. Who are the most to blame, educational system, teachers or learners? Some people may say under the current educational system centered on National College Entrance Exams, both teachers and learners are test-driven and busy with all kinds of tests. However, some experts are convinced that it is the teachers who should take the larger part of the blame for the low efficient learning. Most college teachers are experience-oriented and have simply been teaching on empirical basis. Such simple and empirical teaching for twenty years may be just a repetition of twenty times for a year's work. Empirical teaching is known as the one that copies mechanically and applies indiscriminately learning theories or lack of analysis and reasoning. Those who adopt traditional teaching method are called experience-oriented teachers. Most empirical teachers practice automatically and intuitively and rely on the description of the theories which are beyond their understanding. In addition, they make interactive decisions on the basis of instinct and intuition rather than reflection and rationale. On the contrary, effective teaching is characterized by making decisions through reflection, rationale and consciousness. Therefore it is necessary for us to seek inspiration in which teachers may reflect what they are doing and why they are doing it.

Since reflective teaching theory was first introduced to China in the 1990s, it has aroused much concern in the field of teaching theory and practice. Reflective teaching, in brief, is one in which all the teaching process is reflected so as to be improved constantly, and it is also a process in which teachers criticize and analyze their teaching by virtue of logical reasoning, scrutiny, judgment and the positive attitude toward reflection. The reason why reflective teaching springs up lies in the fact that reflective teaching, in nature is to inspire the teachers to reflect on their teaching style and thus find their problems and shortcomings for further improvement. The more teachers reflect, to some extent, the better they will teach and the better the teaching outcomes will be. Therefore, it is necessary to encourage teachers to adopt reflective teaching.

To adopt reflective teaching, on the one hand, is in the hope of consistently finding problems by examining one's teaching practice. On the other hand, it will further arouse teachers' sense of responsibility and awareness to improve their teaching. Traditional teaching practice focuses on what to teach and how to teach on the part of the teacher, but it ignores how to learn on the part of learners. Besides, it lays stress on imparting knowledge while paying little attention to language practice and usage. Such teaching not only frustrates learner's enthusiasm of language learning, but also throttles students and teachers' creativity. Consequently, it has vital theoretical and practical significance to probe into the nature and implication of reflective teaching in college English instruction.

II. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Reflective teaching aims to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Theory and practice are two integrate parts in qualified education as well as teachers' professional development. Theory serves as a guide and direction for the

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teachers while practice takes a domain role in shaping teacher development. In education, the problem of how to bridge theory with practice becomes a severe question which has haunted educators for decades. All studies on teacher development emphasize that it is very difficult for an individual to influence established patterns in schools. Educational change seems to be a beautiful idea of teacher educators, but generally not much more than an ideal. The teacher education is faced with a severe problem that is it creates little transfer from theory to practice. Elliot (1991, p.45) points out that 'teachers often feel threatened by theory' and these feelings are further strengthened by the society. The reality is that though teachers are aware of the importance of theory as a means to support practice, the everyday problems in their classrooms which they are struggling with leaves the idea of applying theory an impossible mission. It follows then the teachers choose to consider teacher education too theoretical and useless in order to get out of the sense of frustration. While this turned out to only widen the gap between theory and practice. Elliot (1991, p.47) concludes:

The perceived gap between theory and practice originates not so much from demonstrable mismatches between ideal and practice but from the experience of being held accountable for them.

Reflective teaching offers an alternative approach and is given a central place in teacher education. Reflection is considered to be an important means to link theory and practice for it helps teachers to become teacher researchers through critical reflection about their teaching behaviors. The strength of teacher researcher is the development of a better understanding of classroom practice in ways that are specific and local. What experts lack is a teacher's insider perspective on the classroom context and the research findings they generalized are to the larger educational community. To become a teacher researcher means that the teacher can thoughtfully examine and analyze classroom practices through intentional and systematic inquiry into teaching. Calderhead and Gates (1993, p.2) maintain that teacher education programs based on notions of reflective practice espouse one or more of the following aims:

1. To enable teachers to analyze, discuss, evaluate and change their own practice, adopting an analytical approach towards teaching;
2. To foster teachers' appreciation of the social and political contexts in which they work, helping teachers to recognize that teaching is socially and politically situated and that the teacher's task involves an appreciation and analysis of that context;
3. To enable teachers to appraise to moral and ethical issues implicit in classroom practice, including the critical examination of their own beliefs about good teaching;
4. To encourage teachers to take greater responsibility for their own professional growth and to acquire some degree of professional autonomy;

III. THEORETICAL BASES OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING

Reflective teaching is base on principles of well-debated schools of thought, and by its very 'intentional' nature is bound up in phenomenological discourses. It is connected to theories of cognition and meta-cognition, constructivism and humanism.

A. Definition

About reflective teaching there is no single or simple definition. It is hard to place a definitive label on it because of the complexity of the action itself. Reflective teaching is derived from a philosophy idea --- reflection, which was first put forward by Dewey in 1930's in his works *How We Think*. Dewey(1933,p.4) defines reflection as that 'it involves not simply a sequence of ideas, but a consequence---a consecutive ordering in such a way that each idea determines the next as its proper outcome, while each outcome in turn learns back on, or refers to, its predecessors'.

This concept of Dewey is extended by Schon. His (Schon, 1988) contribution is to combine reflection with teachers' professional development and divided reflection into 'reflection-in-action' and 'reflection-on-action'.

The popularization of reflective teaching is due to the contribution of Cruickshank and Applegate (Cruickshank et al, 1981) and Zeichner (Zeichner, 1981,p.2). They have reported on projects attempting to assist both pre-service and experienced teachers to teach 'reflectively'.

Critical reflective teaching involves conscious recall and examination of a past experience as a basis for evaluation and decision-making and as a source for planning and action. The critical reflection process starts with the lesson itself or any other teaching activities. After the lesson or teaching activities is the analytical evaluation---the process of critical reflection. Osterman & Kottkamp (2004,p.26) claim that 'the process develops in an experiential learning cycle where a problematic experience is crucial to other ranked stages in the cycle---problem identification, observation and analysis, abstract re-conceptualization and active experimentation'. Pollard (2005) holds a similar perspective by illustrating that the reflective process is manifested in a cyclical manner, which Pollard illustrates this way:

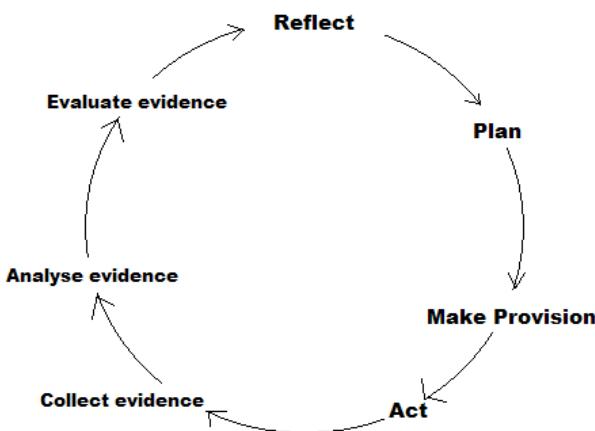


Figure 1: The Process of Reflective Teaching (Pollard, 2005,p.17)

This reflective process and action are closely related to teacher motivation, teacher competency, professional attitude, referring to Dewey's analogy, 'the teacher as a lover'. This seemingly weird idea can be interpreted in the context of 'a lover of learning, knowledge, any subject area, interacting with learners, imparting knowledge and stimulating intellectual curiosity, among others'(Simpson, et al, 2005,p.29). Cohn and Kottkamp (1993, p.228) interpret it from an alternative context by analyzing teachers' perception of good teaching and learning. Teachers are supposed to understand learners' reality, to feel what the student feels, and to act in the students' interest. These issues certainly help to establish the complexities involved in the reflective teaching process.

It is obvious that there are many conceptions about reflective teaching and its related practices. Besides, both the researchers and the practitioners agree that the purpose for the idea of continuous and repeated action lies in improving professional practice and engaging the students in meaningful and productive activities. But all teacher actions should be based on qualified teacher education and training principles, which include knowledge of the theoretical structure that frames instructional activities. Reflective teaching is no exception.

B. Cognition and Meta-cognition

Cognition refers to "the act or process of knowing in the broadest sense; specifically, an intellectual process by which knowledge is gained from perception or ideas"(Webster's Ninth New Collegiate Dictionary 1999). As a teaching method cognitive apprenticeship mainly focuses on dealing with tough problems in the process of teaching. The Collins-Brown model of cognitive apprenticeship contains several instructional principles, listed below: (Wilson & Cole, 2000, p.47-64)

1. *Content*: Teach tacit, heuristic knowledge as well as textbook knowledge.
2. *Situated learning*: Teach knowledge and skills in contexts that reflect the way the knowledge will be useful in real life.
3. *Modeling and explaining*: Show how a process unfolds and tell reasons why it happens that way.
4. *Coaching and feedback*: Teachers should facilitate the students completing their tasks by providing instructions and helps when necessary.
5. *Scaffolding and fading*: Support learners by performing parts of the task they cannot perform.
6. *Articulation and reflection*: Have students think about and give reasons for their actions, thus making their tacit knowledge more explicit.
7. *Exploration*: Encourage students to try out different strategies and observe their effects.
8. *Sequence*: Proceed in an order from simple to complex, with increasing diversity. Increasing diversity means you explore the full domain of interest.

Meta-cognition is "thinking about thinking", knowing "what we know" and "what we do not know". Basic meta-cognitive strategies are self-appraisal and self-management of cognition. Self-appraisal refers to people's personal reflections about their cognitive ability and emotional states concerning their knowledge states, abilities, motivation and characteristics. Self-management is mental processes that help to mastermind aspects of problem solving.

C. Constructivism Theory

In education, the heart of constructivism is critical thinking. It is well established among researchers and theorists that critical thinking is a purposeful mental activity that employs problem-solving skills at all levels in the cognitive domain. This acknowledgement uncovers the importance of employing a constructivist approach in reflective teaching and learning activities.

Different from a particular pedagogy, constructivism is a theory describing how learning happens, regardless of whatever the learners are using their experiences to do. It suggests that learners construct knowledge out of their experiences and it is often associated with pedagogic approaches that promote active learning, or learning by doing.

Vygotsky (1978) pays attention to social constructivism and regards it as the essential part in cognitive development. Saunders (1992) explains that "Constructivism can be defined as that philosophical position which holds that any so-called reality is, in the most immediate and concrete sense, the mental construction of those who believe they have discovered and investigated it." Steffe (1990) explains, "Constructivists view learning as the adaptations children make in their functioning schemes to neutralize perturbations that arise through interactions with our world." Wheatley (1991) suggests two principles of learning through the constructivist theory.

D. Humanism Theory

To be reflective is to be human. Thinking about oneself, other people and things happening in the world is a natural human reaction. It is universally acknowledged that an active, experiencing person is at the core of every human action. And reflection and self-reflection are an inevitable part of human activities, including the teaching and learning activities. Though important, it tends to be neglected by teachers to find a systematic formal approach to reflective practices in the classroom.

Humanistic teaching method is suitable for the quality-based teaching in China, but it remains a problem about what and how the teachers should do accordingly. According to Gage and Berliner (1991), some basic principles of the humanistic approach are used to develop the objectives:

1. Students will learn best what they want and need to know.
2. Self-evaluation is the only meaningful evaluation of a student's work with its emphasis on internal development and self-discipline.
3. Feelings are as important as facts. Educators are making significant contributions to our knowledge from the perspective of humanism.
4. Students learn best in a non-threatening environment.

IV. PREVIOUS RESEARCH OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING IN CHINA

Since "reflective teaching" was introduced to China in the 1990s, a series of theoretical and practical research have been made on reflective teaching. While compared with the studies aboard, we still have a lot more to work on, especially on the relationship between teacher's professional development and reflective teaching. What's more, studies on reflective teaching in secondary school English classrooms in China emerged only in recent years.

Among the several kinds of monographs, only a few are written by Chinese people while most of them are translated versions. There is only one famous book on reflective teaching, which is written by Professor Xiong Chuanwu(1999) from East China Normal University. He defines reflective teaching as teachers continuously inquiring and solving the problems generated from inner self, teaching goals and teaching methods by means of action research, and by combining 'learning how to teach' with 'learning how to learn'. So teachers can make full play of the role of teaching practical rationality and finally become more experienced. Another book is *reflective teaching* edited by Jin(2006) , which includes a large number of cases analyses to put forward concrete implementation strategy and teaching practice of reflective teaching in accordance with the teaching practice in elementary education.

Wei (2005) takes teaching blog as subject, analyzing teachers' reflection state and their problems in order to promote teachers' reflective ability. Statistics show that most of teachers' reflection stays in the technical level and few on the teaching concepts and scientific research. His research also shows that problems of relatively abstract teaching concepts are more suitable for collective reflection. What Wei's study implies is that teachers can achieve a better understanding of teaching concepts through reflective teaching instead of through simple training or teacher education.

Currently in China, there are about 60 theses by graduate students concerning reflective teaching and nearly 600 published articles on reflective teaching, most of which are written by the researchers and teachers from the developed areas in China. Rare research about reflective teaching can be found in China's western region. This phenomenon reflects the imbalance of different regions in accepting or applying this teaching concept. What's more, people mainly study the mode of reflective teaching and basic theories instead of how to reflect by teachers themselves.

V. ASPECTS OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING

In the previous sections, the researcher has reviewed what reflective teaching is and why reflective teaching is worth doing literally. With its aim to bridge the gap between theory and practice, reflective teaching facilitates teachers to become teacher researchers to explore and solve the teaching problems by themselves. In this section, the researcher will focus on the aspects of reflective teaching and present suggestions for college English teachers to follow in their daily teaching practice.

A. Reflection of Teachers' Beliefs

Teachers' beliefs can be thought of as a belief substructure that interrelates with all other beliefs; they have a filtering effect on everything that teachers think about, say, and do in classrooms.

The characteristics of teachers' beliefs are inextricably complex, grounded in emotional laden episodic memories from prior experiences, relatively stable and resistant to change, yet instrumental in shaping how teachers interpret what goes on in their classrooms and how they will respond to that. Teachers' beliefs have a powerful impact on the nature of a teachers' reasoning since the ways in which teachers come to conceptualize themselves as teachers and develop explanations for their own classroom practices tend to be filtered through their beliefs.

EFL teachers should reflect on the following aspects before setting out to teach:

1. Beliefs about English: English represents different things to different people.

In the case of English, there are significant differences between different individuals. Therefore it is helpful for us to check the following beliefs that teachers think about English. Teachers should consider the following questions:

Why do you think English is an important language?

What do you think are the most difficult aspects of learning English are (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation)?

What attitudes do you think your learners associate with English?

2. Beliefs about learning: teachers' beliefs about learning are based on their training and their teaching experience, especially their informal language learning experiences. Informal language learning experiences in which the language functions as a means of meaningful communication in real social situations can leave powerful imprints on teachers. Teachers should consider the following questions:

How do you define learning?

What are the best ways to learn a language?

What kind of learning styles and strategies do you encourage in learners?

What roles are students expected to take in your classroom?

3. Beliefs about teaching: It is inevitable for the teachers to bring their personal beliefs and ideas to teaching in order to achieve effective teaching. Teachers should reflect on the following questions:

How do you see your role in the classroom? How would this be apparent to a visitor?

What teaching methods do you try to implement in your classroom?

What is your approach to classroom management?

4. Beliefs about the program and the curriculum: Within a program or a school, teachers' views on such things as lesson planning, the use of objectives and assessment may lead to quite different classroom practices. Teachers should consider the following questions:

What do you think the role of textbook and teaching materials in a language program should be?

To what extent is your teaching based on your students' needs?

What changes would you like to see in your teaching?

5. Beliefs about language teaching as a profession: Professionalism is a recurring concern of language teachers and language teaching organizations (Pennington, 1991). The following questions further explore teachers' beliefs:

Do you regard English teaching as a profession?

What are the necessary changes in the language teaching profession?

What is the most rewarding aspect of teaching for you?

B. Reflection on Teachers' Decision Making

For many educationalists, decision making is viewed as an essential teaching competency. Shavelson (1973,p.143-145) observed:

Any teaching act is the result of a decision, either conscious or unconscious... what distinguishes the exceptional teacher is not the ability to ask, say, a higher-order question, but the ability to decide when to ask such a question.

Teachers' decision making has been thought of as a process in which teachers consider a range of alternative instructional options and then choose, interactively, those which seem most appropriate. Richard & Lockhart (1996) define three types of decisions: planning decisions, interactive decisions, and evaluative decisions.

1. Planning decisions: decisions made before a class.

Planning decisions are made after a process of reflection (Neely, 1986), during which the teacher has to consider questions such as:

Why should I teach this lesson?

What activities will be included in the lesson?

How will the lesson connect to what students already know?

How will I deal with different student ability levels in the class?

What role should I take on during the lesson?

2. Interactive decisions: classroom teaching is dynamic, unpredictable and full of changes. Thus teachers have to continuously make decisions to deal with the dynamics of the lesson. These kinds of decisions are called interactive decisions. Teachers should reflect on the following questions:

Do the students understand this? Are my instructions clear and understood?

Do I need to increase student involvement in this activity?

Should I try teaching this a different way?

How can I get the students' attention?

Am I teaching too much rather than letting the learners work it out for themselves?

3. Evaluative decisions: decisions made by a teacher after a lesson has been taught. They arise from asking the following questions:

- What were the main strengths and weaknesses of the lesson?
- Did the lesson arouse students' interest in the subject matter?
- Do I need to re-teach any part of the lesson?
- What would be a suitable follow-up to the lesson?
- Will I teach the material in the same way next time?

C. Reflection of Teachers' Role

Teachers' roles are determined by many factors such as their personalities, different schools they work in, and the different teaching methods they use as well as their particular culture backgrounds. It is these dimensions of teachers' roles that form the focus of reflective teaching.

1. Roles reflecting institutional factors; the different institutional administrative moulds different roles for teachers. In fact, teachers would like to take on more responsibilities, especially in the areas of needs identification, selecting and grading content, grouping learners, and course evaluation.

2. Roles reflecting teaching methods: different language teaching methods and approaches create specific roles for both teachers and learners. The teacher has two main roles: the first is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, among these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objective of the first role and arises from it. (Breen & Candlin, 1980, p.99)

3. Roles reflecting personalities: each teaching style is a unique one which teacher develops through their experience and adopt it in different ways according to the demands of specific situations.

4. Roles reflecting culture: The teaching profession is characterized by culture in which language represents the shaped perceptions, conceptions, and acceptable actions of its member. Thus, learning the language of practice is vital to learning to teach, since without knowledge of the language of practice, teachers cannot operate as full members of the culture of teaching.

D. Reflection of Interaction in the English Classroom

In language teaching, interaction is, in fact, the heart of communication; it is what communication is all about. In managing class interactions teachers need to guarantee that all students have equal opportunities to participate in. From this point of view, choosing an appropriate arrangement for specific learning activities becomes an important decision for EFL teachers. They should reflect on what ways should be used before interacting with the students in the class. The widely used arrangements are as follows:

1. Whole-class teaching: The teacher organizes the whole class with a learning task.
2. Individual work: each student in the class finishes some learning work by themselves without the help of teachers or other students.
3. Pair work: students work in pairs to complete a task.
4. Group work: students work in groups on learning tasks.

VI. CONCLUSION

As Xiong (1999) states as a process of teachers development in all-around, reflective teaching emphasizes the combination of 'learning how to teach' with 'learning how to learn'. Though compared with 'learning how to learn', 'learning how to teach', a relative new concept, has something in common with 'learning how to learn' in that 'learning how to teach' actually is a kind of learning itself, for it requires teachers to take teaching as a process of learning, in which they learn not only teaching skills but ethics and moral knowledge. Such repetition of process of learning and practice will lead to teacher development, enable them to become teacher-researcher and elevate teaching eventually. Providing teachers with a further in-service education, reflective teaching probabilizes teachers' sustainable development that presupposes sustainable development of school. Reflective teaching is not only beneficial to teachers' current but also their life-long learning, which is just the goal of our education.

Although we have achieved a lot through this reflective practice, we still need to pay attention to many points concerning the theoretical study and practice of reflective teaching based on the current educational situation in China. These points include: First, reflective teaching is not a simple denial of the traditional teaching. Second, reflective activities should be conducted in various ways without limit in time or place. Third, teachers' reflective activities are restricted by subjective experiences and external factors, making it natural for them to make mistakes. Finally, the processing of teachers' reflective activities needs better working atmosphere and policy support.

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The Effect of Cross-cultural Background Knowledge Instruction on Iranian EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension Ability

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Abstract—The present study investigated the effect of cross-cultural background knowledge on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability. To do this, sixty female EFL learners between 17 and 19 years of age were selected at a private language institute in Sabzevar based on their scores in language proficiency test and were randomly assigned to two groups of thirty. In order to determine homogeneity of students, a Nelson test was administered to the groups before any treatment. The teacher presented ten reading passages with the cultural content in both control and experimental groups. During the experiment, the teacher made her students familiar with target culture. On the other hand, the students in Control group did not enjoy any of the advantages of cultural warm-up activities which were designed to activate the cross-cultural background knowledge of students in Experimental group. At the end of this treatment, the two groups took a post-test to see whether the treatment had any influence on their reading comprehension ability. The post-test was piloted already. The results of the post-test showed that the groups performed differently on the post-test, which indicated that familiarity with specific culturally-oriented language reading text would improve Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability.

Index Terms—schema theory, culture, cross-cultural background knowledge, reading comprehension, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Culture as the shared schemas of behaviors, creates the lives of mankind in a society. Culture and language are from the beginning conjoined to each other and language is not an absolute factor. Language is used in contexts of communication; it is bound up with culture in complex and multiple ways. Here, an obvious point is that culture is a very basic origin in language learning process.

Richards and Reynadaya (2002), Carrell (1988), and Stoller (2001) claimed that there are two reasons for considering reading as the most important skill in language learning. "First, most foreign language students often have reading as one of their most important goals." "Second, different pedagogical processes served by written texts help reading to receive this special focus."

Among English skills, reading is not the process of passive detecting and reading literally any more. Even it is the process of active decoding and confirming and also it is interplay between readers and the reading contexts. Hence, the ability to read and understand various passages has been identified as necessity to English proficiency.

According to Chen (2008), a considerable percentage of English language learners receive low ratings and they mark below their native-speaking counterparts on standardized reading comprehension tests. Littlemore (2003) state that the way in which students are able to use clues in the theme to interpret the context is affected by their cultural background knowledge. Students are probably more attend to clues that adapt to their cultural expectations than the ones that do not. In addition, Ruthensley (2011) reminded us that cultural knowledge helps readers to reconstruct the text directing to more personally and culturally relevant prints. Having certain cultural context that is incorporated in the written language, the learners use information reserved in the memory not only to remember and think, but also to interpret and comprehend meaning.

The significance of cultural background knowledge in reading is essential to the schema theory. This theory deals with processing schemata by every reader. The schemata are cognitive constructs to organize the information in the long-term memory and these structures are sometimes culture-specific. Much understanding is provided by the readers' cultural background.

Bartlett (1932) stated that the role of background knowledge in language comprehension has been formalized as schema theory which has as one of its fundamental tenets. According to schema theory, a passage only provides directions for readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own, previously acquired

knowledge. This sort of knowledge is named the readers' background knowledge and the previously acquired knowledge structures are named schemata (as cited in Ghazanfari and Froughi, 2010).

Recent studies indicate that without enough background familiarity with L2 cultural knowledge, the readers can not realize the deep meaning of texts. There is, therefore, a requirement for research to investigate some invisible problems that prevent EFL students from learning to read in their second language.

This study examined the effect of cross-cultural background knowledge instruction on reading comprehension ability of low-intermediate native Persian-speaking English language learners.

Due to Nguyen (2011), there are two types of schemata: formal and context. Content schemata deal with general background knowledge related to the topic such as might be associated with the topic of an earthquake. Formal schemata deal with the rhetorical structure of language and a person's knowledge of the structure of a particular genre, such as news reports or journal articles. Carrell (1988) state that some vivid reading problems may be matters of insufficient background knowledge.

One of the most important findings of schema theoretic studies, exclusively in L2 reading, is the significant role of cultural background knowledge or cultural schemata plays in reading. With regard to the importance of cultural prior knowledge in comprehending the texts in this study, the problem is if Iranian EFL learners' cultural background knowledge affects on their reading comprehension performance.

According to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) Values Orientation Theory, all human societies have to answer a limited number of universal problems, that the value-based solutions are limited in number and universally known, but that different cultures have different distinctions among them. They proposed that the solution for the common problems preferred by a specified society reflects that society's values.

Reading as the level of conceiving of a text needs cultural background specific to the sort of texts for students to realize. The understanding of English texts depends on the access of cultural schema on that specific content of the text. Comprehension will fail, if the passages are not familiar to the students.

With respect to the findings, the cultural background of the reader will modify the type of information recalled. Hudson (2007) believed that through the process of interplaying with a text, the reader's mind searched folders that include some corresponding data with the intent and help to make comprehension. Schema theory demonstrates the process by which readers incorporate their own background knowledge with the data in a passage to find out that passage.

Recent studies, as well as teachers' experiences, have shown that NNS students in colleges and universities do not always follow the norms of politeness and appropriateness commonly accepted in their L2 communities despite having lived in those countries for several years. Similarly, in the academic studies, L2 learners may experience difficulties because they do not always understand what is expected of them and do not have access to the necessary socio cultural concepts that are ubiquitously manifested in the academy (Celce-Murica, 2001, p.445).

It is believed that because EFL/ESL textbooks represent a limited and controlled range of ideas, vocabulary items, and culturally-dependent concepts in Iran, they may not be the best means of explaining how the second culture affects language use. However, even within the limited thematic and lexical scope of textbook readings, learners may encounter comprehension difficulties that have to do with culture, since cultural inferences often need to be made to understand text.

The previous studies indicated the passive influences of background knowledge and the approaches for foreign language comprehension. Readers require comprehending what the text wants to say. They need to discover the context and make the unclear connections to make sense of the passage (Chen, 2008).

There is a need for study on the impacts of cultural and linguistic differences in basic science on the reading comprehension of adolescent L2 learners because of the late growth in the population of EFL students in the low-intermediate grades. This study is incorporated in the survey on language issues and culture. It can also profit EFL teachers and can be relevant to language policy makers to clarify the relationship between culture and language and to focus on schema theory. Rajabi (2009) believed that EFL learners should apply comprehension styles to reconstruct the writer's message.

According to Celce-Murica (2001), culture teaching in L2 reading goes far beyond instruction in vocabulary, idioms, and collocations, all of which are essential for understanding the meaning of the text. Context- and culture-specific connotations and implications of word and phrase meanings also need to be addressed. More urgently, however, socio cultural meanings and values greatly affects a learner's ability to comprehend text and the context in which it is employed. In authentic texts, such as those excerpted from advance print media (i.e. news, magazines and literature), culture-specific references, allusions, metaphors, and symbolism play a prominent role. Most importantly, however, the teaching of culture and its impact on text comprehension needs to be addressed at all levels of proficiency in order to build learners' awareness of cultural implications and references, without which few texts can be understood (pp.452-453).

Research Question

Based on the objectives of this study, the following research question was formulated:

- What is the effect of cross-cultural background knowledge instruction on EFL learners' reading comprehension ability?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Reading is one of the most necessary skills for daily life. People usually read because they want to obtain information about a specific subject. From a technical point of view, reading comprehension is a dynamic mental activity in which the reader interacts with the passage to extract meaning. Contrary to earlier beliefs that reading is a passive skill, it is now considered a process in which the reader picks out available information and cross-cultural familiarity only enough to understand the meaning of the text. In a text, words are combined in such a way that their relative position and patterns contribute to their collective meaning (Farhady, 2005).

There are two main outlooks about reading. The first assumes that meaning exists in the text itself and it is the text-based factors that determine meaning; for the second view, meaning is the product of the readers interacting with the text and it is inside-the-head factors that determine meaning (Ghazanfari and Foroughi, 2010).

Considering information processing system, there is contrast between ways in which humans analyze and process language as a part of comprehension and learning. In top-down processing, the system makes use of higher level, non sensory information to predict or to interpret lower level information that is present in data. In the other way, bottom-up processing; the system makes use of the information present in the input to achieve higher level meaning.

Decoding model deals with holding the utterance in short-term memory, analyzing the utterance in to segments to identify phrases and other linguistic units and the underlying prepositions (Richards and Schmidt, 2002).

Anderson (1984) made a comparison between the two basic approaches to comprehension. Skills model states that reading is made of separate skills and has a hierarchical skills sequence. In this model, applying reading skills leads to meaning and reading is considered as a passive and precise process.

On the other hand, psycholinguistic model considers reading as an integrated process that has no one sequence of skills. Reading is meaning centered and an alternative language process and also an active process (as cited in Chastain, 2002).

Regarding reading strategies, the readers scan the text when they want to locate the specific piece of information without understanding the rest of the text. While through skimming, the readers read rapidly to get the main idea or ideas from a text.

Tierney and Pearson (1985) had some recommendations to teach reading. EFL teachers should be sure about students' prior knowledge of a topic or text genre before reading and encourage reading, provide their students to evaluate their own idea, help students to use reading strategies, help them to develop story maps (flow chart of key events or time line) before reading stories, encourage students to regard why and when the author is writing and develop a small discussion to accomplish the goals of reading. Krashen and Terrell (1983) focused on the reading strategies of read for meaning, not looking up every word, predicting meaning and using context (as cited in Chastain, 2002).

Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined "culture" as follows:

The set of practices, codes and values that mark a particular nation or group: the sum of a nation or group's most highly thought of works of literature, art, music, etc. A difference is sometimes made between "High" culture of literature and the arts, and small "c" culture of attitudes, values, beliefs, and everyday lifestyles. Culture and Language combine to form what is sometimes called "Discourses", i.e. ways of talking, thinking, and behaving that reflect one's social identity. The cultural dimension of language learning is an important dimension of historical, political, and artistic) regarded as necessary for informed participation in a nation or culture. Cultural literacy may or may not be something possessed by a person who is bilingual (pp.137-138).

According to Hill (2002), cross-cultural psychology has two large aims: to understand the differences between people who come from different cultural backgrounds and to understand the similarities between all the people. Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's Values Orientation Theory suggests that all human societies must answer a restricted number of universal problems, that the value-based resolves are limited in number and universally known, but that various cultures have various distinctions among them. Mentioned questions include humans' relations with nature, time and each other, as well as basic human motives and the nature of human nature.

According to Xiaoqin (2005), Schemata are significant construction in both social and cognitive psychology. The effects of schemata on memory, perception, consideration and interpretation are well documented. The schema theory designed by Bartlett stresses the significance of schema and background knowledge for text comprehension. In other words, schema theory states the role of background knowledge in language comprehension and illustrates how readers recapture or construct meaning from their own past experience pre-existing knowledge. Schemata state that knowledge stored in our mind is well-organized rather than randomly organized. They form independently by the contents each schema possesses. On the other hand they are related by nodes, which empower them to communicate when essential. Mostly all cognitive descriptions of schema stem from Bartlett as an active organization of past responses of past experiences, which must always be supposed to be function in any well-adapted organic reaction.

With respect to this theory, readers use a process of semantic construction to create meaning from a written passage, which itself has no meaning (Chastain, 2002).

Geert Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions describes the impact of a society's culture on the values of its members, and how the values relate to behavior, using a mixture derived from factor analysis. The theory has been comprehensively used in several fields as a paradigm for research, particularly in international management, cross-cultural psychology and cross-cultural relationship. Hofstede developed his primary model as a result of exploiting

factor analysis to examine the results of a world-wide survey of employee values by IBM in the 1960s and 1970s. The notion was one of the first that could be quantified, and could be used to clarify observed differences between cultures. The original theory proposed four dimensions along which cultural values could be analyzed: individualism, collectivism; uncertainty avoidance, power distance (strength of social hierarchy) and masculinity-femininity (task orientation versus person-orientation) (Hofstede, 2013).

Nishida (1999) stated that the need of familiar knowledge people use when they enter a familiar situation in their own culture. He defined cultural schemas in social interactions as cognitive structures containing knowledge for face to face relationships in one's cultural environment. As cited in most resources, schemas are knowledge of past experiences which is organized in to relevant knowledge classes and used as guidance in familiar situations. Cultural schema theory explains that interacting with members of the same culture in specified situations many times or taking about some of information with them makes cultural schemas that are stored in the brain. With this occurrence, communication becomes much easier.

All people have to apply "global village" to describe the actual world. Because of frequent cross-cultural interaction, the world has become tinier and tinier. Hence, it seems that we live in the same village. However, it does not presently mean that differences of cross-culture become tinier and tinier. Likewise, it may be that there is a growth in misunderstanding and communicative barriers because of constant cross-cultural communication, as a foreign language student, we should not only acquire the knowledge of language, but also try our best to encounter the cultural and social aspects of English countries and learn the background of literature, geography, history, ceremonies and local condition. We should use every means to empower our field of thought. Just in this manner, we can get better finding out the differences between English culture and another one so as to efface the comprehension barriers of cross-culture communication and ameliorate our overall capabilities in English reading (Lin, 2013, p.8).

Tavakoli, Shirinbakhsh and Rezazadeh (2013) clarified the effect of cultural familiarity, that of nativization on deduction and literal understanding in reading comprehension. Additionally, the study considered the general attitude of Persian EFL students toward the nature of nativization in short stories. Generally, there is a punctual relationship between reading comprehension and nativization at both the literal levels and inference. Moreover, participants did not support nativization of culturally bound words in English short stories and the subjects stated their positive attitude toward studying the original English stories. Hosseini Asl and Kouhi (2013) surveyed the effect of awareness raising activities on the reading comprehension of culturally-bound materials. The results of the post-tests of two groups indicated that awareness raising activities facilitate reading comprehension of culturally-bound materials. In fact, the experimental group achieved considerable success in reading comprehension than control group.

Hill and Liu (2012) investigated the interaction impact of background knowledge and language proficiency on TOEFL iBT reading texts. No evidence of interaction between proficiency and background level was observed for the bundle-level analysis. As a whole, the TOEFL iBT reading texts were neither advantageous nor disadvantageous to those who had physical science backgrounds or were familiar with a determined culture, and this holds for both the higher and lower proficiency groups. This finding adds proof in support of the validity of the TOEFL iBT, in that the scores on theses texts containing cultural information and subject content were not biased against any knowledge group. The results provide record that it is possible for the TOEFL iBT to create reading texts that are contextualized in cultural material and subject but at the same time free from bias at the text level.

Their findings in the study also advanced our understanding of the impact of background knowledge in reading comprehension.

Nguen (2012) exploited a quantitative method to explore the dynamic effects of schemata (background knowledge) and time constraint on the reading comprehension of Vietnamese ESL students. As explained by him, background knowledge is a significant factor in reading comprehension which had been found to play controversial roles.

According to Bilgileri (2012), cultural nativization of the content and factors relevant to background knowledge in the nativized passage had a facilitative impact on comprehension of the short texts and on inferring the meaning of the unknown vocabulary by the learners. Those learners who received the nativized version of the passage got higher scores both in vocabulary tests and reading comprehension compared to the learners who received the authenticated version of the text.

The central theme of another study by Gurkan (2012) was as the same as the others. In comparison, it also discovered if activities can make up for the lack of learners' related cultural schema. It has been shown that culturally bound background knowledge of the students plays a role in their comprehension of the passage. If a number of textual and contextual hints with which display cultural familiarity are provided, Turkish EFL students with a probably advanced degree of L2 proficiency can draw deeper and richer inferences from a short narration from the foreign language culture. Besides, the learners who read the original narration without or with reading activities marked lower than their peers who read the nativized issue did not have to deal with unfamiliar names and culturally distant contextual indexes, resulting in worse comprehension gains. (Gurkan, 2012, pp.33-34).

Dehghan and Sadighi (2011) investigated the effect of cultural background or cultural schema on the performance of Iranian EFL students on local (bottom-up) and global (top-down) processes. The findings showed that Iranian students in their study performed significantly better on local items compared with global items both for unfamiliar texts. It was also observed that their overall performance was mostly influenced by text familiarity. Their higher scores on local

items can be explained by the fact that these items are totally easier to process due to the linguistic context available. In contrast, the difficulty of the global items can be explained because our EFL learners need extra linguistic knowledge to process such items. Also, this difference could be attributed to the teaching situation in which language teachers do not teach students how to read at all and learners are not familiar with higher-level, global processes being important in reading comprehension.

The study done by Rudemsley (2011) showed us that the cultural background of ESL student has an effect on comprehension of English texts. The findings had also illustrated that students who belonged to a various cultural environment exploited the written texts differently because the cultural quantity was not from their own background. It was also explained that pupils who did not possess the relevant schemata found it difficult to realize English written passages. It shows that cultural background facilitates comprehension of texts. It was mentioned that the schema theory that the unfamiliar theme of a text, weather cultural or topic-related, has an impact on reading comprehension. Students who use English as a L2 are more probably to have low reading comprehension capability owing to lack of background knowledge that may be necessary for certain passages (Rudemsley, 2011, p.63).

Ryan (2010) analyzed culturally bound background knowledge that both Japanese and Americans may use when they interact in a government or business context. Based on his findings, our culture-specific schemata are largely unrealized and often factious in cross-cultural contexts. Those in arranged international context will acquire to become more aware of the expectations they bring to the international workplace. Moreover, cultural schemata cause differences in reception and in turn, commentary of fundamental concepts that both Japanese and Americans on the surface seem to be in agreement on. The implications of these sorts of tacit misunderstandings could lead to larger, open disagreements and mutual distrust negatively affecting future interactions. In the past, cognitive experts have mainly used schema theory as a medium to survey reading and literacy studies.

In 2010, Pollap also illustrated that there is a positive relationship between English language students' knowledge of American culture and their level of English language proficiency. It could be stated that general culture knowledge should be complemented to the English language curriculum to help students with language learning. His study confirmed the similarity of general knowledge of the target culture in regard to EFL learning outcomes. American cultural knowledge forestalls the English proficiency of English language students. Cultural awareness affects L2 teaching since culture is a comprehensive composite with a large implication, and each element in it may be exhibited in vocabularies. Learning words while attending to culture is crucial and vital. Hence, an understanding of the cultural background of vocabularies helps students clarify the differences of usage and meaning of word in the target language. Having a detailed understanding of word helps students' reading, speaking, listening and writing skills development because selection of suitable vocabulary is essential for accurate interpretation. It is easier for language students to realize a conversation related to cultural conditions with which they are familiar. Additionally, language students may understand not only literal meanings but also deeper meanings eradicated in the speaker's culture. It is manifest that due to the higher ratio of native speakers of English, participants in the northeast had greater chance to absorb American culture while interplaying with American professors, friends, and American colleagues than subjects in the central area, so learners in the northeastern area gained a higher mark on American culture test than learners in the central area.

Ghazanfari and Foroughi (2010) investigated the effect of schema activation by exploring the effectiveness of two kinds of pre-reading strategies (schema theory-based pre-reading activities and text-based ones) on reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL readers. The results illustrated that EFL learners who were instructed to apply pre-reading strategies outscored the learners who were taught without using certain pre-reading strategies. Also, the group who had applied a schema theory-based pre-reading strategy outscored the group who having applied a text-based pre-reading strategy.

Sharafi and Barati (2010) explored the effect of schemata activated by culturally familiar texts on test takers' performance on cloze tests. It also investigates whether there is any difference in the performance of males and females on culturally familiar cloze tests. While the results demonstrated that males and females did not perform significantly different on culturally familiar cloze tests, it was found that the performance of the participants on culturally familiar cloze tests was significantly better than their performance on culturally neutral cloze tests. The study, therefore, suggested that culturally familiar texts may help test takers show their true comprehension ability and in turn perform better on cloze tests.

According to Shaghayemi & Heisey (2009), Iranians have more positive cross-cultural schemata of Americans than Americans do of Iranians in both range and degree.

Erten and Razi (2009) confirmed what has been widely acknowledged as the positive impact cultural familiarity and background knowledge on reading comprehension.

Chen (2008) also found that comprehension consists of interplay between reader-based and text-based information. It means that reading is interplay between a text and a reader. Reading is a two-way communication between the information printed and readers' minds. Through reading, the reader relates the new data to his/her background knowledge. He argued that fluent readers apply the smallest quantity of text information essential relating to his/her existing conceptual and linguistic schemata to understand a text. In short, reading is constructing and the comprehension of meaning. Readers construct meaning by interplaying with the passage, on the basis of their background knowledge about the world. There is a distinction between comprehension questions and reading questions.

Some students may not have a reading problem, but he/she has a comprehension problem which prevents his/her from success in reading. To become a nice reader, since it is not only the words of which one has to conceive the meaning. She also showed that a reader can guess accurately what the words mean in a special context simply because he/she knows what is being talked about. Students learn words faster in a familiar as compared to an unfamiliar context. Accordingly, without relevant precedent knowledge, students cannot guess unknown words correctly and readers use multiple knowledge sources in word recognition. One needs a treasure of relevant knowledge that is wider than the words of a text. Without wide knowledge, learners' reading comprehension will travail and their scores on reading comprehension texts will not improve. Through the past few decades, there was an increase in providing direct instruction strategies to help learners to consciously use the styles in various contexts. However, none of those ways attempt to build up students' knowledge.

Chen (2008) investigated the impacts of background knowledge and previewing texts on the reading comprehension of native Mandarin-speaking English language learners (ELLs). He applied previewing activities to provide the subjects with relevant background knowledge to help them figure out the texts. With respect to her findings, the previews and culturally familiar texts facilitate the process of ELL students' reading comprehension.

Chang (2007) surveyed the issue of cross-cultural background knowledge instruction and its influences on the reading comprehension. His study had shown a considerable relationship between EFL reading comprehension and background knowledge. Background knowledge was exactly beneficial in relating the contextual meanings to EFL readers' comprehension. With respect to the small sample, additional studies with larger sample should be steered in the future. Due to the strengths of employing readers' background knowledge, several manners could be used to reading courses in EFL language contexts. With culturally relevant information, EFL learners' familiar previous experiences should be valuable to their reading comprehension.

Alptekin's (2006) findings demonstrated that the nativization of a short narration from L2 culture simplifies L2 students' inferential comprehension significantly and does not affect their literal understanding. The results reminded us that L1 inference skills are employed more constantly and efficiently in the L2 passage content and previous knowledge are homological. He believed that there should be the replication with participants who are less exposed to L2 and its culture. Because in his investigation the subjects were advanced EFL learners with a TOEFL score of 565 and also some of them had graduated from English-medium high schools in Turkey where they had been familiarized to a deal with the cultures of English conversing nations.

In 2004, Pulido did a research to investigate the influence of cultural familiarity and L2 text sight vocabulary on L2 tacit vocabulary gain during reading. Students at the high-intermediate level of proficiency illustrated greater word gain scores after reading about scenarios with which they were familiar, due to prior background knowledge and experience. It means after reading the culturally familiar versions of the stories learners showed better recall for having seen the target nonsense vocabularies than after reading culturally unfamiliar versions of the scenarios. This result provides additional support for schema-theoretic and knowledge-based views of recall and acquisition (Pulido, 2004, p.36).

Fuhong (2004) recommended us that schema theory has positively affected the teaching reading. Additionally pre reading activities-building up absent schemata and activating resident schemata- can ameliorate ESL/EFL reading comprehension in many situations. EFL teachers should take the time to verify the usefulness of the activities they use and attend to possible schema-interference or non-activation. Consistent adjustment is needed in accordance with the learners' language proficiency.

In 2002, a survey conducted among 400 Chinese middle-school students and tertiary EFL majors gave a justly clear picture of their perceptions of prior conceptual, linguistic and socio cultural knowledge in terms of respective contributions to reading comprehension. The information indicated two different tendencies for the two participating groups of subjects. The middle-school learners tended to give the top ranking to the choices concerning either the reader's linguistic knowledge or the linguistic characteristics of the passage; the tertiary EFL majors, however, were probably to give the top priority to the options that concern either the reader's prior conceptual and socio cultural knowledge or the socio cultural background and conceptual knowledge presumed by the passage (Lin, 2002).

According to his findings, in summary, the study indicated that middle-school students perceive the reader's previous linguistic knowledge as the most important element for EFL reading comprehension, while tertiary EFL majors consider the reader's previous socio cultural knowledge as the most important. The survey also showed that, as readers' previous linguistic knowledge increases, they tend to link less importance to it, especially the knowledge of formal structures and syntax. At the same time, conceptual and socio cultural knowledge assumes greater importance. The perceived significance of previous linguistic knowledge seems to start diminishing around the end of secondary education when the learners have acquired a vocabulary of 3000 words and the fundamental syntax and formal structures of English. The final replacement of linguistic knowledge by socio cultural knowledge as the top element affecting reading comprehension seems to take place about one year after onset tertiary EFL education. This may well be considered as an allusion of the EFL threshold level for EFL students in China.

Finally, the conclusions inferred from the study seem to provide additional assistance to the L2 Linguistic Threshold Hypothesis: that L2 reading comprehension is both a matter of reading and a matter of language. With onset L2 readers, reading comprehension is more an emphasis of language than an issue of reading. The findings of the study also cast sidelight on the matter of the relations between the knowledge of first language and second language. It looks that the

exemplar in L2 reading comprehension education is not if L2 language instructors should tap into L2 learners' L1 reading capability and L1-related knowledge, but how to tap into it to preserve a maximization of the positive L1 transfer (Lin, 2002, p.187).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The study had two separate groups of participants: 1) twenty pilot study's participants by whom the researcher could check the problematic parts of the post-test and 2) real study's participants.

This research was conducted at a private institute of Sabzevar. The participants of this research were female low-intermediate students and they are currently pre-university students studying English in this private institute. The participants of this study were sixty students. They were female students between 17 and 19 years of age. To account for group homogeneity, a Nelson proficiency test (Fowler and Coe, 1976) was administered to about 130 students from three different majors of math, science and literature, and 60 students that had the same level of proficiency were chosen, and the rest of them were discarded. The selected students were then randomly divided into two groups of 30 (experimental group and control group).

B. Instruments

1. Language Proficiency Test

In order to insure the homogeneity of the control and experimental group in terms of English language test, a Nelson test (Fowler and Coe, 1976) was administered to these groups. It consisted of three parts, cloze test, structure test and vocabulary. All parts were in the form of multiple choice questions. There were 50 items and the item allotted was 45 minutes.

2. A reading comprehension test (post-test)

The researcher constructed a reading comprehension test as the main post-test. Regarding participants' interest, the researcher prepared five short stories for low-intermediate level. The content of stories was exactly based on the cultural contents in ten passages. Each text was followed by six multiple choice questions. As a whole, the test included 30 questions and cultural contents regarded for this study. This test was piloted in Sabzevar Marefat Institute.

According Eghtesadi (2005), the level of difficulty of a text should be appropriate for the readers. Different ways determine suitable reading texts. The core of these formulas is the belief that the more polysyllabic words in a sentence, the more difficult it is and the less sentence in a paragraph, the more difficult the paragraph will be. One of these formulas is The Gunning Fog Index (Robert Gunning, 1952). The researcher calculated the readability of each text (short story) prepared for post-test. Regarding the results, the texts had indexes below 12 which were suitable for low-intermediate level in this study.

C. Procedure

1. Pilot Study

For post-test, the researcher made a reading comprehension test with the cultural contents including in those ten reading passages and with 30 multiple choice questions. The items of the post-test were piloted with 20 students who have similar educational backgrounds with the real participants in the study.

The study revealed that each item performed satisfactorily, suggesting that the post-test had high Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = .869$ and $p < .01$), which was considered to be consistent enough to go on conducting the post-test to the real sample. To validate the test, five TEFL professors reviewed the test and solved the problems.

2. Main Study

The purpose of this research was to investigate the effect of cross-cultural background knowledge instruction on Reading Comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. The researcher administered the process of the whole study by herself.

Data were collected during the second semester of the academic year. The researcher submitted a completed research request application and a detailed proposal package to the private institute's Department of Research, Planning. The research committee under the direction of the department of research and planning has specific guidelines set to standardize research activities effectively without the district, in order to protect individual right of participants in the system and to avoid all interference with the laws. In this study the researcher applied Treatment Lessons by herself.

The researcher administered a sample of Nelson Proficiency Test to select homogeneous groups. Respectively, she chose the persons scored with the range of one standard deviation above and below the mean as the main participants of the study. With respect to homogeneity, 60 students out of 130 were chosen for the main study.

This experiment was conducted over a two-month period. All the tests and treatment sessions were conducted during Low-intermediate course for three hours per week. Planning for the study was as follows:

Week 0: Administering Proficiency Test/ Week 1: Treatment Lesson (Lesson Plan for Treatment Sessions 1 /Week 2: Treatment Lesson (Lesson Plan for Treatment Sessions 2 & 3) /Week 3: Treatment Lesson (Lesson Plan for Treatment Sessions 4 & 5) /Week 4: Treatment Lesson (Lesson Plan for Treatment Sessions 6 & 7)/ Week 5: Treatment Lesson (Lesson Plan for Treatment Sessions 8 & 9)/ Week 6: (Lesson Plan for Treatment Session 10)/ Week 7: Post-test.

Homogeneous students were randomly put in two groups (Experimental group and Control group). Each group contained 30 low-intermediate students. The real treatment was applied from the beginning of the first week (week1) only in Experimental group. The participants cooperated in Treatment Class for two days per week. Ten lesson plans were conducted for 10 sessions.

The researcher, who applied the treatment by herself, presented selected reading passages with pre-reading knowledge cultural warm-up activities and some later culture-bound questions in experimental group. For example: If the cultural content of a reading passage was Christmas, she provides her students with background knowledge of Christmad customs and western beliefs in this regard.

There were 30 low-intermediate students in the Control group. The students in Control group did not enjoy any of the advantages of cultural warm-up activities which were designed to activate the cross-cultural background knowledge instruction of students in Experimental group. The students in Control group were provided with no pre-reading activities and the teacher (the researcher) was supposed to answer the students' important questions.

Prior to the main post-test, a pilot study was conducted using twenty low-intermediate EFL learners from Sabzevar Marefat Institute. The students involved in the pilot study did not participate in the main study and they are characteristically similar to the main participants. The pilot test was deemed important for identifying any problems and omissions as well as checking time spent in responding. Following the analysis of the pilot study data, ambiguous or unclear items were either rephrased or removed.

In the last week, and after ten Treatment Sessions, the post-test was administered in the last week. Both groups had the post-test at the same time. One Reading Comprehension Test with the content of previous cultural knowledge was used for the post-test and the students had to answer 40 multiple questions.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A one-way ANOVA was applied to show whether there was a significant difference between these three groups. In other words, obtained scores were then submitted to a one-way ANOVA to determine whether the mean differences were statistically significant (Table 4.1).

TABLE 4.1
TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES

Nelson			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.786	2	127	.458

As the table shows, the Sig value is 0.458 and greater than 0.05. Hence, the results show that these three groups were homogenous as far as language proficiency in concerned.

The means for each class are given in Table 4.2. In this Descriptive Statistics table, the mean for the math students is 18.3. The mean for the science students is 19.4 and the mean for literature students is 18.8. The standard deviation math students is 9 (when rounded), the standard deviation for science students is 7.3 and the standard deviation for literature students is 7.8. The number of participants in each group (N) is 20. The means for each group are given in Table 4.3. As outlined in the table, there is a significance difference in reading scores for control group ($M=12.9$, $SD=6.7$) and experimental group ($M=24.7$, $SD=3.4$).

TABLE 4.2
DESCRIPTIVE FINDINGS FOR THREE CLASSES

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Class 1	20	18.3500	8.97526	2.00693	14.1494	22.5506	5.00	30.00
Class 2	20	19.4000	7.38704	1.65179	15.9428	22.8572	6.00	30.00
Class 3	20	18.8500	7.88920	1.76408	15.1577	22.5423	8.00	30.00
Total	60	18.8667	7.98402	1.03073	16.8042	20.9292	5.00	30.00

TABLE 4.3
DESCRIPTIVE FINDINGS FOR EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Reading	control	30	12.9667	6.77970	1.23780
	experimental	30	24.7667	3.42086	.62456

Prior to the main post-test, a pilot study was conducted using twenty low-intermediate EFL learners from Sabzevar Marefat Institute. With respect to Table 4.4, the alpha coefficient for the thirty items is .828, suggesting that the items have relatively high internal consistency.

TABLE 4.4
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.828	.869	30

- What is the effect of cross-cultural background knowledge instruction on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension ability?

As Table 4.5 shows the Sig value for Levene's Test is 0.015 and greater than 0.05, hence we should read from the top row. The Sig. (2-Tailed) value in the first row is 0.00. This value is less than 0.05. Because of this, we can conclude that there is a statistically significant difference between the reading score in control and experimental groups. Since our Group Statistics box revealed that the Mean for experimental group is greater than the Mean for control group, we can conclude that participants in experimental group are got greater reading scores than participants in control group.

TABLE 4.5
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL 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
Reading	Equal variances assumes	6.245	.015	-8.511	58	.000	-11.80000	1.38644	-14.57527	-9.02473
	Equal variances not assumes			-8.511	42.868	.000	-11.80000	1.38644	-14.59628	-9.00372

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

According to the results of this study, cross-cultural background knowledge instruction has a significant effect on reading ability of Iranian EFL learners. Cross-cultural background knowledge instruction about western holidays, wedding customs, ways of life and relationships would help readers more and more to realize the main ideas of English passages on these contents.

However, the principal limitations of this study are a small sample and female participants. Therefore, additional studies with a larger sample should be conducted in the future. Also, it will be needed a study on male EFL learners.

To conclude, cross-cultural background knowledge instruction has an important effect on reading ability among female EFL students in Iran. In another word, having a strong cross-cultural knowledge would improve reading comprehension ability. The results of the study are helpful in highlighting the fact that the nature of cross-cultural background knowledge instruction can have divergent effects and promote reading comprehension. For instance, cultural pre-reading activities have a facilitative role in giving the relevant background knowledge about the text if a mismatch occurs between readers' schemata and the writer's, they also attempt to activate readers' schemata if they share similar background knowledge with the writer. Chastain (1988) states that pre-reading activities also motivate readers to read the text. While-reading activities permit readers to get the writer's message through a number of activities such as; skimming and specific information about the text through scanning (Brown 2001).thus they are thought to contribute to comprehension. Finally, with the use of post-reading activities readers clarify if any unclear interpretations occur while reading as a last step.

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A Study on the Painful Transition of Adolescent in J. D. Salinger's Writing

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Abstract—Jerome David Salinger served as a spokesman for the alienated American adolescent, in The Catcher in the Rye, Holden represented the adolescent who experienced a painful transition from childhood into adulthood. After experiencing the fall of idealism and a series of symbolic death, he finally found his place in the adult world. Holden represents a lasting symbol of restless American youth.

Index Terms—transition, adolescent, Salinger

The adolescence means to grow up into maturity. Adolescence is a transitional period from childhood into adulthood that includes "...an ending and a beginning, a departure and arrival, a death and rebirth, a meeting of past and future." (Rogers, 1985, p.7) Usually this special period tends to cause kind of "identity crisis". An adolescence psychologist ever notes, "Not until adolescence does the individual develop the prerequisites in physiological growth, mental maturation and social responsibility to experience and pass through the crisis of identity." (Erikson, 1968, p.91)

Jerome David Salinger is one of the most influential writers In American literature. He represents as a spokesman for the alienated American youth. The Catcher in the Rye inevitably stands out as the first and only novel of Salinger. The whole novel shows Holden's transition from childhood into adulthood, a process of painful. After experiencing the fall of idealism and a series of symbolic death, he finally found his place in the adult world.

I. THE FAIL OF IDEALISM

This novel is about the two-and-a-half-day adventure of a dropout Holden, which vividly reflects a lonely alienated and bitter sense of the young Americans in the post-war period. As an adolescent, he experiences the painful transition from childhood to adulthood, which is a special and critical phrase in a person's life. Holden belongs to neither of child and adult worlds. In the end his choice is to be neither immature nor the evil of adulthood. He is put in a dilemma. As an adolescent, Holden actually searches for idealism, sincerity, and decency. However, his actions and thoughts meet with naked rejection by many who would cry with one voice, "Holden, why don't you just grow up?" In fact, Holden represents the uniqueness in man in a world which has lost its spirit for the idealism.

In the novel Holden is usually against both the materialism and ugliness of our society or against the realities of the adult world. Holden's only real friend, his sister Phoebe, complains that Holden doesn't like anything that's happening. But actually he does not take a very satisfactory action because he lacks any real positive program for eradicating the evils he finds all around him. But he is like a searcher for idealism—a striving to find the good and the perfection in man.

No doubt it would not be different to understand the phonies, the bores, and the deceivers whom Holden so dislikes. They actually "constitute a fair average" of what the culture affords. They are part of the truth which Holden doesn't see, is never able to see, or in fact refuse to see. The phonies, the bores, and the deceivers are one part of humanity. It is the reality that everyone must accept. And perhaps this is the main reason that Holden's search for idealism is finally broken.

Many adults feel that adolescent should "grow up", accept the world for what it is, and live in it. In essence, throw off any ideas of ever reaching for or becoming a part of an ideal world. At first notice, this is a sound but conservative recommendation. However, taken seriously and logically, the advice would put an end to any search for idealism, sincerity, and decency. There are some adolescents who are simply not like the majority, who cannot accept the human condition for what it is, who cannot resign themselves to the existence of injustice, ugliness, and pain. This refusal to accept the status quo in the world marks not only the adolescents—it also marks many adults who may be seen as an adolescent who has refused to "grow up", who is unable or unwilling to cover his inner life with the calluses necessary for the ordinary life. These individuals wage war with the-way-things-are. They are martyrs in the eternal search for idealism.

It is important to protect and cherish the uniqueness of the adolescent who, rightly or wrongly, refuses to accept completely the existing reality of the adult world. Holden, like most adolescents, is on the way to search for his true self and his place in the world. But the adolescent's disillusionment and sense of failure would arrive when he fails in his search for an ideal and decent world for his ideal and decent self.

A great part of the adolescent's idealism probably stems from his resistance to growing up. Still, it is rather difficult to criticize this resistance to entering a world lacking in the ideals found within the spirit of the young adolescent.

Holden's distaste for his findings, in his collision with the outside world, seems to be warranted. If this be true, one should recognize the adolescent's need for viewing and experiencing himself from the inside—exploring his inner life where idealism is free to live and flourish. As reality closes in on the adolescent, he fights all the harder to escape it and preserve his self-made paradise.

Adolescent idealism is found in Holden's quest for sincerity, for honesty between people. His repeated insistence, "I mean it, I really do," gives credence to this search. And when Holden does experience decency, as he does with his sister Phoebe, he reacts decently to it. Holden, as many adolescents, is extremely sensitive to the good and evil in society. He may often be criticized for being too sensitive about the realities of society to live in it. Perhaps the adolescents is too sensitive to ignore it, to look the other way, to withdraw, as the so-called well-adjusted and busy adults withdraw into their protective shells when they face with society's terrors and ugliness. Holden simply cannot accept the injustices and ugliness that surround him. But he can meet them head-on. It is to the adolescent's great credit that, in spite of numerous disillusionments, he believes that there must be sincerity somewhere among the world. As long as the adolescent can hold on to the conviction that there are external counterparts to his ideal self, he can keep going. When this vision of his self-made society is finally broken in his encounter with the world of reality, the adolescent must compromise or painfully withdraw from the world of reality.

The idealistic rebellion of adolescent is a good thing when it is harnessed to idealistic even though unworkable in the hard world of reality. There must be some virtue in rebellion against a false, lying, and deceitful society. Most adolescents eventually come to terms with things as they are. They give up their idealistic ideas of working any radical changes in the social structure or in the culture's value system. They try at least, painful as it may be to find their own "realistic" place in society. Holden was unable to do this very thing. So he is both intensely praised and violently condemned.

II. THE SYMBOLIC DEATH IN THE PROCESS OF MATURING

Anthropologists believe that the acquisition of knowledge occurs in the compulsory social rite, but through the acquirer himself and once he gets knowledge he must convert it into action. Adolescence is a major period to gain knowledge. Therefore, adolescents must leave their familiar community and experience many things by themselves. In this process symbolic death plays an important role in adolescents' maturing. In the novel Holden decides to leave Pencey Prep School on Wednesday suddenly. In fact, this is the beginning of his maturing journey, but his sudden decision to leave school is just caused by a specific incident which driving him almost crazy.

The specific incident is that he finds Stradlater is dating Jane. What horrifies him mostly is the discovery that Stradlater even doesn't know her name. This is the classic symbol of the loss of identity. For Stradlater, Jane is not a live human being, but a lifeless object to satisfy his personal desires.

But at that time Holden can't protect Jane, even himself being knocked out with blood. In the process of maturing, blood can be regarded as a symbol of growth. This is the first time for Holden to experience symbolic death. He is pushed out of the paradise of childhood heavily and enters the world of adult unwillingly. At that moment, the strong desire pushes him to leave school immediately. Holden wants to search for another holy world without Stradlater and his fellow Penceyans.

An important stage of the maturing is to search for a holy place, where adolescent can get the essential knowledge of adult. Holden's final destination is New York City where various phony people are gathered. For Holden New York is familiar but also strange. It is familiar because his family is there. He knows it very well and he is sure not to be lost there. But at the same time, it is strange for him too, because Holden only know the external appearance of the city well, but not the internal complicated society. Thus it is doomed that in Holden's adventure he must go through a series of severe tests.

A heroine needed to mention here is Jane Gallagher, the girl Stradlater is dating with. She is the only person Holden ever showed Allie's baseball glove. So Holden would rather Allie be more pure and close with him when he is depressed deeply and near to his own death. After he departs the wicker bar, he thinks, "I might have died of pneumonia, I began to imagine the millions bastard come to my funeral." (Salinger, 1951, p.154)

In the growth stage adolescent must confront the threat of death. As the representative of adolescents, Holden, seriously influenced by his younger brother Allie's death, can never get away from the thoughts of death. Allie's memory is persevered forever in death.

Holden experienced his second symbolic death when he leaves for New York at midnight. Holden quarrels with Maurice, a pimp, for additional five dollars. To Holden, the argument is not only concerned on money but his principle. He can't stand for cheat and falsehood. However, Holden seemed so weak when he confronts the adult world which is full of deceives and violence. When he is at school, fighting with Stradlater, he thinks at least he can deal with him. But this time, he faces a sophisticated guy in the aggressive and dirty society. Holden can only cry helplessly under the attack of such a powerful opponent. At the end, Maurice takes five dollars from Holden's wallet and goes away. "I stayed on the floor a fairly long time... I thought I was dying. I really did. I thought I was drowning or something. The trouble was, I could hardly breathe." (Salinger, 1951, p.103)

This is the second time Holden experiences the symbolic death, and he thinks about it solemnly. Even after a bath he still can't calm down. Pure water couldn't clean away his sadness and depression. The incident even drives Holden to

be crazy. "What I really felt like, though, was committing suicide. I felt like jumping out the window." (Salinger, 1951, p.104)

The third time Holden is haunted by symbolic death when he wanders in the museum to kill time before he meets Phoebe. The quite mummy rooms of the museum makes Holden feel restful and comfortable. Holden really enjoys this rare peacefulness and harmony. He thinks: "I am sort of liked it, in a way. It was so nice and peaceful." (Salinger, 1951, p.204)

But this peaceful scene is disturbed suddenly by an obscene graffiti. Holden feels disappointed thoroughly. Even the museum, the last harmonious place, can't avoid the invasion of the messy and dirty outside world. "That's the whole trouble. You can't ever find a place that's nice and perfect, because there isn't any." (Salinger, 1951, p.204) So this temporary children's paradise collapses suddenly. Even though Holden loves niceness and purity, he can't break away from the evil and ugliness of the society. He has no other choice but to enter adulthood. In this sense he really needs a symbolic death as a child and a rebirth as an adult.

At this time Holden experiences his third symbolic death. He falls to the floor of the toilet as he feels sick. It is the fall that symbolizes Holden's transition from childhood into adulthood. Holden mentions. "I was lucky, though. I mean I could've killed myself when I hit the floor, but all I did was sort of land on my side. It was a funny thing. I felt better after I passed out." (Salinger, 1951, p.204)

After that experience Holden met his sister Phoebe. When Holden saw Phoebe riding the horse in the carrousel, he suddenly realizes his duty is to protect his sister. He knows although they play very well, the carrousel will stop; Phoebe will have to return to the real world. Although there is not a paradise of childhood in this world, these few minutes are happy time to them. As Holden watches his sister on the carousel in the rain, he achieves a state of ecstasy and enlightenment. He can only say: "It was just that she looked so dame nice, the way she kept going around and around in her blue coat and all. God, I wish you could've been there." (Salinger, 1951, p.213) Donald Barr defines such moments in Salinger's novel as "mystical glimpsing of God behind the identifier of the world." (Barr, 1962, p. 175) Holden has ended his search for identity and his efforts to affect the world by his own actions.

When Holden is watching Phoebe riding the carrousel, he utters: "God, I wish you could've been there." This is the first for him to admit the existence of God. Without the acknowledgement his transformation from childhood to adult would not be possible. Up to now, Holden completes his maturing process.

III. THE CATCHER IN THE RYE

Throughout the novel Holden even can't find a suitable place to stay. On his way to Old Spencer', he feels that he might disappear after going cross the street. Holden's strange thought reveals that he is actually afraid of advance, because he is not sure what is waiting for him ahead. He is afraid that he may be disappearing, or fall into misery. In fact, What Holden says and does here reflect the state he is in: he has nowhere to go; he cannot see where he is going in life; he will wander around aimlessly later in New York City, which is foreshadowed here. It implies a critical period in his life, which means the inevitable transition from adolescence to adulthood. The adult world is so repulsive, obscene and phony that he fears to enter into it. However, he cannot resist the process of growing up. Thus, he needs the proper guidance that will teach him how he will grow up and in what direction he should move. This is the difficulty Holden faces. There is nothing wrong with growing up according to Salinger. There is something wrong with growing phony.

However, Holden faces this difficulty with courage. In the middle of the book, his sister Phoebe asks him what would make him happy. He responds that he's picturing thousands of little children playing some game, but nobody's around. Holden himself is standing on the edge of the crazy cliff. What he has to do is to catch and protect every kid if they start to go over the cliff. He'd just like a catcher in the rye. That's the only thing he'd really like to be. "I thought it was if a body catches a body, I said, Anyway, I keep picturing all these little kids playing some game in this big field of rye and all. Thousands of little kids and nobody's around...except me. And I'm standing on the edge of some crazy cliff. What I have to do, I have to catch everybody if they start to go over the cliff---I mean if they're running and they don't look where they're going I have to come out from somewhere and catch them. That's all I'd do all day. I'd just be catcher in the rye and al. I know it's crazy, but that's the only thing I'd really like to be. I know it's crazy." (Salinger, 1951, p.224-225)

Actually it is a symbol that Holden wants to keep children from getting into trouble that comes with when they grow. But by the end of the book Holden finds that he cannot be the catcher because there must be many difficulties while one grows up. When critics consider the character of Holden Caulfield, many points to the novel's climatic scene: when Holden watches Phoebe ride the carousel in the rain his fantasy to protect the innocence of children is symbolically shattered.

Holden notices that there are only about five or six kids on the ride, and the song the carousel plays jazzily and funnily. All the kids keep trying to get for the gold ring, Holden is sort of afraid Phoebe might fall from the goddam horse, but he didn't say anything or do anything. He realizes that if the children want to grab for the gold ring, they should do it. It is not good to say any words to them. So, Phoebe gets on the carrousel, and Holden just watches her! When Phoebe invites him to join her in the riding, he says he will "just watch" (Salinger, 1951, p.218). In fact, he emphasizes this three times in their dialogue. He does feel afraid that she might fall off when grabbing for the gold ring. Holden eventually gives up his desire to be the catcher in the rye, for he realizes by this point that is "bad" to keep a

child in childhood. As he learned from watching Phoebe's anger wane with the passing of time and events Phoebe must be allowed to experience her world if her one-sided nature is to develop beyond its present state. It is "bad" to interrupt her movement forward, even though it will result in the eventual fall of her inexperienced, innocent spirit, for the only alternative to this process would be to keep her in the same state, unmoving, undeveloped. Thus, symbolically Holden has realized that his dream is unrealistic: he cannot keep kids from growing up and getting their own experiences. After all, falling off a horse is certainly less dangerous than falling off a cliff.

Therefore, Holden becomes capable of accepting the necessity for movement within a child's existence. This change within Holden's outlook is stunning illustrated at the end of the novel by the movements of Phoebe on the carousel. As Phoebe rides upon the horse, her actions illustrate every one of these symbolic movements: she goes forward, a suggestion of her nature changing, but in a circular motion, which keeps her essentially in the same place; and, at the same time, the horse she sits on continues moving her up and down. As a result, all of these characteristic motions, with all of their opposite qualities, are harmoniously blended within the immediate moment for Holden's perception as he watches Phoebe on the carousel riding her horse "around and around"

The carousel serves as a symbol composed of a complexity of opposite qualities and tenuous ambiguities. As a result, the dilemma which Holden has faced is resolved , when he sits in the rain, he can accept the world as it is. Furthermore, as is revealed by his concluding response to Phoebe on the carousel, the divisive aspects of his nature, his emotions and his intellect, are finally integrated. At the end of the novel Holden feels happy all of the sudden just like his sister Phoebe, His happiness has no clear reason, and the only source might be Phoebe's happiness.

By means of these seemingly simple statements, Holden reveals that his response at this moment is an aesthetic one: he "felt so damn happy" because "she looked so damn nice." An aesthetic response is, by nature, a blending of sense perception, emotion, and intellect. It is not dependent upon one's being conscious of a reason for responding so---as Holden says, "I don't know why." It is elicited only when one perceives something which gives pleasure to every aspect of his nature at the same moment---a pleasure manifested in this case when Holden, by simply watching Phoebe on the carousel, feel "so damn happy" (Salinger, 1951, p.218).

Critics have noticed that at the end of the novel Holden begins to stand in the mental institution. On the final page, Holden says that he might tell them what he has done after he backs home, and how he gets sick and all. After he found a solution to his dilemma, Holden is now attempting to recover. One might conclude by stressing that Holden is talking, not to an analyst, but to "you", the reader. Holden's reason for doing so was established earlier by Mr. Antolini, when he describes for Holden "the kind of information that will be very, very dear to your heart" (Salinger, 1951, p.214). Mr. Antolini mentions that many men have been just as trouble morally and spiritual as Holden is just now. Holden can learn from them--- to face them happily

Holden entire novel showed the transition to adulthood from childhood, a painful process, even though the future is uncertain, he broke off the relationship with the deceased in the past that he accepted mature. Holden in his most triumphant moment has ended his story, beyond the world of the plight and disillusionments

The whole novel shows a painful transition of Holden from childhood into adulthood. Even though the future is uncertain, Holden bravely breaks off his severed ties with the dead past in order to accept maturity. At his most triumphant moment, Holden has ended his story beyond the world's woes and disillusionments. Therefore, he says, "nobody could do anything phony when they visited me. If anybody tried to do anything phony, they couldn't stay." (Salinger, 1951, p.205)

From the world of Holden Caulfield, we may get a touch of the social and cultural codes in American society at that time and become more aware of adolescent crisis even existing today. The Catcher in the Rye is commonly considered as an antisocial "Declaration of American Youth", in which the dissatisfaction with postwar American society of the lost adolescent is reflected, their loss and unease felt for the adult world is described, and their spiritual bewilderment is revealed.

Holden has become a lasting symbol of restless American youth. Today, Holden's nervous breakdown at the end of the novel seems absolutely contemporary in a society whose youth are as troubled, and yet as defiantly hopeful, as they have ever been before. Consequently, it would be hard to overestimate the importance of the contribution Salinger made to American culture when he decided to write a novel about this "crazy" neurotic boy who flunks out of the prep school, set out on a short but strange odyssey to avoid backing home to face his parents, and, as he does, learns basic experiences about life, loss, and self.

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Sociocultural Theory and Listening Comprehension: Does the Scaffolding of EFL Learners Improve Their Listening Comprehension?

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Abstract—According to many researches, Vygotsky's concept of "scaffolding" (1978), which is defined by him as helping the learners to process the information, has significantly contributed to improvement of the three language skills of speaking, writing, and reading comprehension and particularly the two latter ones (writing and reading) among the EFL learners. It is while the effect of scaffolding on listening comprehension skill has been studied by very few studies. This study aims to investigate the possible effects of giving the related background such as telling the stories and experiences similar to the ones included in the listening materials on the listening comprehension skill among 60 intermediate level students through an experimental method in an English language institute in Kerman. The participants were chosen through matched cases method and 30 members were assigned to each of the control group and experimental group. The instruments used in this study were two listening comprehension tests. One of these tests was used before the investigation to recognize the listening level of each student. The other test which was different from the first one in content was given to both groups after the treatment to see if this treatment has any impact on the facilitating the participants' processing of listening materials. The results of the t-test for independent samples showed the experimental group who was provided with the related questions, experiences, stories and discussion before listening to the test materials got higher test scores than the control group that wasn't provided with any background.

Index Terms—scaffolding, listening comprehension, background, improvement

I. INTRODUCTION

According to sociocultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978), the information processing could be facilitated by helping the learners in this process. The results of many researches have revealed that this phenomenon which is called scaffolding by Vygotsky has significantly contributed to improvement of the three language skills of speaking, writing, and reading comprehension and particularly the two latter ones (writing and reading) among the EFL learners. However, the effect of scaffolding on listening comprehension skill has been studied by very few studies.

For EFL students, listening comprehension is often a so difficult and challenging skill to learn (Huang, 2005, as cited in Qiu, 2012). The new content and the unfamiliar/lack of background can be one of the causes of these difficulties. The other reason could be the lack of appropriate and effective learning strategies or skills. Therefore, seeking the ways which could help EFL students improve their listening comprehension proficiency, is of high importance in this field and could have valuable educational implications.

The assumption of giving related background and information to the learners to help them increase the comprehension of texts or listening materials is also in accordance with what Ausubel (1968) proposed as theory of meaningful learning. According to this theory, if the new information is not related or familiar to the already existing cognitive concepts or proposition in the knowledge structure of the learner, meaningful learning would not happen. Also, among the two conditions that this theory considers as necessary for learning situation to be meaningful is that the learning task must be relatable to the learners' structure of knowledge.

The role of teachers and peers as facilitators and/or mediators in learning all language components and skills is also emphasized in the concept of Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which is at the heart of the concept of scaffolding (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Giving background to the students and reminding them of the strategies which may help them in a task or activity in the class could be one of the tools that teachers may utilize to help them do the information processing required for a skill.

In regard of the obscurity of the effects of scaffolding for listening comprehension skill, the present study aims to investigate the possible effects on this skill among the intermediate level students in an English language institute in Kerman.

A. Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)

Vygotsky (1978) defined the zone of proximal development as “the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers”. According to Puntambekar & Hubscher (2005), the ZPD represents the amount of learning possible by a student given the proper instructional conditions. In the ZPD, a teacher and learner (adult/child, tutor/tuttee, model/observer, master/apprentice, expert/novice) work together on a task that the learner could not perform independently because of the difficulty level (Schunk, 2012).

Schunk (2012) refers to a profound and remarkable view of cultural development in Vygotsky’s ZPD. He stated that the culturally mediated interaction and participating in the cultural world transforms mental functioning rather than simply accelerate processes that would have developed anyway. That is, the influence of the cultural-historical setting is seen clearly in Vygotsky’s belief that schooling was important not because it was where children were scaffolded but, rather because it allowed them to develop greater awareness of themselves, their language, and their role in the world order.

B. Theory of Meaningful Learning

Ausubel (1968) contended that learning in the human beings happen through a meaningful process of relating new events or items to already existing cognitive concepts or propositions. Meaning is a “clearly articulated and precisely differentiated conscious experience that emerges when potentially meaningful signs, symbols, concepts, or propositions are related to and incorporated within a given individual’s cognitive structure on a non-arbitrary and substantive basis” (Anderson & Ausubel, 1965, p. 8).

It is better understood by contrasting rote learning and meaningful learning. Rote learning as described by Ausubel is the process of acquiring material as “discrete and relatively isolated entities that are relatable to cognitive structure only in an arbitrary and verbatim fashion, not permitting the establishment of [meaningful] relationships” (1968, p. 108).

Meaningful learning or subsumption, on the other hand, as proposed by Brown (2007) may be “a process of relating and anchoring new material to relevant established entities in cognitive structure”. He describes, the new material entered the cognitive field, interacts with, and is appropriately subsumed under, a more inclusive conceptual system. What accounts for the meaningfulness of the material is that it is subsumable or in other words relatable to stable elements in cognitive structure.

There are two necessary conditions for a learning situation to be meaningful. The first condition is that the learners have a disposition to relate the new learning task to what they already know, and the second condition is that the learning task is relatable to the learners’ structure of knowledge.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As mentioned earlier, the effect of sociocultural teaching techniques on the skills of writing and reading comprehension has been clarified by some studies which will be briefly reviewed here.

Ghafar Samar and Dehqan (2013) investigated the possible effects of sociocultural-based teaching techniques on reading comprehension among Iranian EFL university learners. The basic purpose of their study was “to clarify how learners reading comprehension and strategy use could be affected by the types of teaching techniques and how high and low proficiency learners profited from the intervention”. They used intact groups, actual university classes, which then formed two groups of participants, control and experimental. The researchers of this study became sure about the existence of no difference in the level of proficiency of the two groups by conducting an independent sample t-test.

The results of their study indicated that the sociocultural teaching techniques influences positively on reading comprehension and reading strategy use for EFL learners. That is, this study shows a significant statistical difference in reading comprehension of the learners which means that the sociocultural teaching techniques (teacher and peer scaffolding) results in better reading comprehension for EFL learners and leads to higher strategic reading comprehension development in an EFL context.

In a study by Attarzadeh (2011) the effects of scaffolding language on learning reading comprehension of various text modes on Iranian EFL learners with different levels of language proficiency was examined through a quantitative experimental design. In this research, 180 EFL learners were randomly selected and divided into three groups of low, mid and high proficiency through the TOEFL language proficiency test. They were taught different text types such as narrations, argumentations, descriptions and explanations. The scaffolded groups were exposed to a constructivist-interactive model of learning while the non scaffolded groups were subjected to the traditional individual reading. The findings of his study revealed that the scaffolding reading comprehension of various text modes, levels of learners and interaction of them were highly significant. The scaffolded narrative text type with the strongest mean was superior to all other text types and mid-level of learners also had the strongest mean in comparison with the other levels. Significant interaction effects on any of the dependent variables were found.

Baleghizadeh, Timcheh Memar A., and Timcheh Memar H (2011) carried out a research to compare different types of scaffolding and help, i.e., high-structured scaffolding, low-structured scaffolding, and non-structured help on the writing ability of EFL learners. The participants of their study were 114 elementary Iranian EFL learners. Forty-four students in three classes served as the control group, and they were provided with non-structured help including exercises in True

To Life (their course book) plus some free paragraph writing. Thirty-eight students in three classes served as the high-structured group, and they were given high-structured templates providing the whole frame of the writing task intended to help the students complete the task by just filling in words of their choice. Finally, thirty-two students in two classes served as the low-structured group, and they were provided with low-structured templates with at least one complete example of a similar writing task and some key words for writing the task without a definite frame. The participants of the three groups on the pre-test were homogeneous. The conductors of this study found that low-structured scaffolding templates, unlike the high-structured scaffolding templates and the non-structured help, were remarkably effective for the improvement of the students' writing.

As Baleghizadeh, Timcheh Memar A., and Timcheh Memar H (2011) point out, "the outperformance of low-structured scaffolding provides support for the notion of minimum level of guidance in graduated intervention, i.e., one of the three mechanisms of effective help in the ZPD". They mentioned what Van Lier (1988) believed as the reason for this finding of their study: "too much guidance may hinder or slow down the development of self-repair, which he viewed as an important learning activity".

Riazi and Rezaii (2011) also conducted a study within the sociocultural framework. They wanted to find out whether teacher- or peer-scaffolding was more successful in helping students improve their English texts. The participants of this study were only 25 students that all were native speakers of Persian language in the 20-23 year age range studying at the Department of Computer and Industrial Engineering of a northern university in Iran. The students were attending a required general English course and were registered in two groups; the first group included 15 students and the second group included 10 students. English course had been provided with teacher- and peer-scaffolding in the process of revising their writings. Pre- and post-writing tasks had been collected from the students to check their writing improvement.

The results showed that students in teacher-scaffolding group performed better on their post writing test, that is, the students in the teacher-mediated class had benefited more than the students in the peer-mediated class in improving their writing. Also, the teacher's use of the overall components of the mediating behaviors had been higher than those of peers (2270 vs. 974) showing that the teacher had used more scaffolding behaviors than peers. The problem of peer scaffolding which Riazi and Rezaii (2011) also mentioned in their paper is that "for student peers the major issue was to sustain the interactions and solve the immediate problem of student writers rather than promoting their overall learning. That is why fewer attempts were made by peer-mediators to resort to strategies that could bring about significant changes in students' writings". So they suggest that "A pragmatic and certain approach toward peer-scaffolding would be to involve students in this potential learning experience while having the teacher monitor the process. Students can be grouped to help and interact with each other while finally the outcome of the groups will be presented to the whole class for the teacher feedback and comments".

Rahimi and Tahmasebi (2010) put the idea of mediation of Sociocultural Theory (SCT) in a task-based method to examine the contribution of scaffolding and private speech in improving EFL learners' reading skills.

As the researchers reported, this investigation was conducted in the following way: First, in both classes, introductory questions and preliminary discussions were completed. Then, the teacher or VCD read out the text once or twice. After reading the text, in the experimental group, the teacher asked the students to do different tasks such as paraphrasing, summarizing, and discussing the ideas presented in each paragraph. The teacher suggested that students collaboratively and through private speech – for every other paragraph - carry out the suggested tasks. For example, if the students were asked to collaboratively paraphrase the first paragraph, they were asked to paraphrase the second one to themselves, i.e. practice private speech. On the other hand, for the control group, the teacher paraphrased, summarized and discussed the ideas in each paragraph in the whole lesson. Students asked their questions if they had any.

The participants of the two groups called by the teacher or voluntarily, read some of the paragraphs, summarized them or talked about them. During the class hours, students' performances were videotaped to be used for discourse analysis and checking the measures of fluency, accuracy and complexity (Iwashita, Elder, and McNamara (2001)). This method continued for nine ninety-minute sessions. At the end of the course, the pretest was repeated. Moreover, students were asked to orally present some passages, and their performance was videotaped to be scored based on the idea units presented. The selected texts, unseen by the students, had readability below or close to that of the text in the textbook – ranging from 10 to 11. The students' performance on the oral presentation task was counted as twenty percent of their final scores.

The results of the independent samples t-test revealed that the two groups did not perform significantly differently in the final exam. However, in terms of oral paraphrases, they differed significantly. The experimental group outperformed the control group. Although the performances of the two groups were very close in some aspects, e.g., complexity, they diverged in accuracy and fluency. Also, the findings of their study, both qualitative and quantitative analyses, more or less skewed toward the positive impacts of integrating SCT components in language classes.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The current study seeks to see if giving the related background such as telling the stories and experiences similar to the ones included in the materials the intermediate EFL learners are supposed to listen in the classroom could improve their comprehension of these materials. As such, the following null hypothesis is investigated in this study:

1. The use of related background by the teacher before the listening comprehension activity or task doesn't have any impact on the EFL intermediate students' processing the information in the listening activity.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Design of the Study

This study, through an experimental method, tries to compare the results obtained after asking the learners listen to comprehension materials of the tape recorders with and without giving the related background in two intermediate EFL learners groups.

B. Participants

To test the research hypothesis, 60 intermediate EFL learners in Kish language institute of Kerman participated in the study. They were chosen through matched cases method and 30 members were assigned to each of the control group and experimental group.

C. Instrumentation

Before the investigation, a listening comprehension test which included a story and a conversation between two people and the multiple choice questions followed it was utilized to recognize the listening level of each student.

To see if the research treatment has any impact on the improvement of participants' processing of listening materials, another test of listening (including a story and a conversation between two people and the multiple choice questions followed it) which was different from the first one in content was given to both groups.

D. Data Collection Procedure

To do this research, first, the researchers took a multiple choice test of listening comprehension from three intermediate classes of one English institute in Kerman. Then, they tried to match each student's grade with another one's equal grade. Some grades didn't have the exact matches but the researchers tried to match the grades in each pair in a way that the differences between them not to be more than .25 and for some few grades .50. The owner of one grade in each pair was assigned to the control group and the other one to the experimental group.

The researchers chose a listening comprehension test which was different from the first test in content but it also like the first test didn't have the technical topics and words. The procedures of administering the test to the control group and experimental group were different. In the experimental group, the teacher first asked the participants some questions related to the topics of the story and the conversation of the included in the listening material. Then she shared a related experience to the students and encouraged them to give their opinions about what she told them and have a discussion on this topic. Finally she asked the students listen to the test material and answer the 35 multiple choice questions in the test paper within 20 minutes. However, the participants in control group were given the listening comprehension test providing them with any background information. The grades of each participant of the control and experimental group in the multiple choice test were counted to be used as their listening comprehension level in this test.

E. Analysis Procedure

The obtained data were put in to the statistical software SPSS to examine the research hypothesis posed earlier.

First, a number of Descriptive Statistics were run on the data. Then, the t-test for independent samples was used to see if the two groups performed significantly different after the treatment.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Descriptive Statistics

TABLE 1

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Listening	60	8.25	19.50	13.7500	2.77473
ID	60	1.00	2.00	1.5000	.50422
Valid N (listwise)	60				

By virtue of the above table the minimum, the maximum, the mean, and the standard deviation for the study variables are revealed clearly.

B. Listening Comprehension Performance in Two Groups

To compare the reading comprehension scores of learners in control and experimental groups, an independent sample t-test was run. As table 2 shows, there was a significant difference in scores for the control group ($M = 12.55$, $SD = 2.31$), and the experimental group ($M = 14.33$, $SD = 3.59$). This discrepancy is significantly large because as it has been shown in the Table 3, the signification rate (Sig. (2-tailed)) is .026. In other words, the discrepancy level between the mean scores of these two groups is high and the direction of this discrepancy is such that the experimental group who was provided with the related questions, experiences and discussion before listening to the test materials got higher test

scores than the control group that wasn't provided with any background or experiences. Thus, it could be inferred that the treatment (scaffolding the intermediate EFL learners through providing them with some related background) before the listening comprehension activity or test could help them process the information much more easily and so give correct answers to the questions following the listening materials. Another important advantage of scaffolding for students to learn much more easily and effectively is that the interaction between them and their teacher/ and peers make the learning process interesting and motivating; and thus, remove students' stress and anxiety. So, the debilitating anxiety which is a barrier against learning is decreased. This will also promote their learning. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected by the findings of the investigation.

As such, the results of the data analysis shows that the scaffolding the EFL learners is an effective strategy to improve not only the skills of writing and reading but also the listening comprehension skill little by little.

TABLE 2
GROUP STATISTICS

ID	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Listening no background	30	12.5500	2.31692	.42301
background	30	14.3333	3.59438	.65624

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLE T-TEST OF THE TWO GROUPS IN TEST OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Listening	Levene's Test for Equality of Means								
	t-test for Equality of Means		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference								
Equal variances assumed	1.796	.185	-2.284	58	.026	-1.78333	.78076	-3.34620	-.22047
Equal variances not assumed			-2.284	49.551	.027	-1.78333	.78076	-3.35189	-.21478

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Although the listening tasks and activities are often worked on with no or little help or assistance of the teacher or peer, the result of this study proved that the EFL learners' listening comprehension could be remarkably improved by the teacher-scaffolding and peer-scaffolding. As such, one of the reasons why the Iranian EFL students' listening skill doesn't improve with an acceptable rate might be the lack of social, cooperative and collaborative techniques of teaching and learning. However, since listening comprehension is the most basic skill for language learning, should be paid much more attention to be learned in the class. The finding of the present study recommends the use of more social and cooperative techniques in the EFL listening activities and tasks. And among many different techniques, asking students the related questions, telling them the related experiences or stories, and letting them have some discussion to their peers and/or also to their teacher are effective scaffolding ones which their interactive characteristics cause the learners to reduce their stress and also become independent students. These scaffolding activities can help the teachers act within the learners' zone of proximal development and provide the learners with comprehensible input. The learning strategies the students get familiar to as they are doing these activities are the best ladders that make the learning process much more facilitated and easier particularly if they are introduced, explained and emphasized by the teacher. As such, these mentioned factors could be other important causes of higher information processing in the EFL listening tasks.

In this study, the researchers didn't separate the teacher-scaffolding and peer-scaffolding to identify and compare the effect of each of them on the EFL learners' listening comprehension. However, the effectiveness of one of them might be more than the other. Riazi and Rezaie (2011) found in their study that the students could benefit from the teacher-scaffolding more than the peer-scaffolding in reading comprehension activities. However, this comparison has been done by no studies on listening comprehension activities. Therefore, if it will be conducted by some researches, the results could have other important implications for the EFL classes.

APPENDIX

The Frequency Table for Participants' Listening Comprehension Performance
Listening

Valid	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
8.25	1	1.6	1.7	1.7
8.5	1	1.6	1.7	3.3
9	1	1.6	1.7	5.0
9.5	1	1.6	1.7	6.7
10	3	4.9	5	11.7
10.25	1	1.6	1.7	13.3
10.75	2	3.3	3.3	16.7
11	2	3.3	3.3	20.0
11.25	1	1.6	1.7	21.7
11.5	2	3.3	3.3	25.0
12	2	3.3	3.3	28.3
12.25	2	3.3	3.3	31.7
12.5	3	4.9	5.0	36.7
13	4	6.6	6.7	43.3
13.25	2	3.3	3.3	46.7
13.5	1	1.6	1.7	48.3
13.75	2	3.3	3.3	51.7
14	2	3.3	3.3	55.0
14.25	3	4.9	5.0	60
14.5	1	1.6	1.7	61.7
14.75	2	3.3	3.3	65
15	3	4.9	5.0	70
15.25	1	1.6	1.7	71.7
15.75	3	4.9	5.0	76.7
16	3	4.9	5.0	81.7
16.25	1	1.6	1.7	83.3
16.75	2	3.3	3.3	86.7
17	2	3.3	3.3	90
17.5	1	1.6	1.7	91.7
18	1	1.6	1.7	93.3
18.75	1	1.6	1.7	95
19	1	1.6	1.7	96.7
19.5	2	3.3	3.3	100
Total	60	98.4	100	
Missing System	1	1.6		
Total	61	100		

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Enhancing Teachers' Professional Development through Reflective Teaching

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Abstract—Teachers are one of the crucial factors for educational development and reform effect. Reflective teaching plays a significant role in foreign language teachers' professional development. This paper firstly reviews the domestic and foreign researches on reflective teaching and teachers' professional development, then practically explores the contents, process and specific operational methods of reflective teaching, and finally illustrates the effect and significance of reflective teaching with a case study.

Index Terms—reflective teaching, professional development, foreign language teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

China owns the world's largest number of foreign language learners, and its foreign language teaching reform has always been a hot issue of educational reform, the effect of which also becomes a significant and heart-tugging focus. Nevertheless, for a long time, the academic research in foreign language education has mainly been focusing on the theories and techniques of foreign language teaching, such as teaching approaches, learning strategies, textbook compilation and curriculum revision, etc. Researchers are keen to study teaching contents (what to teach), teaching methods (how to teach), but few consider the teaching subject (who teaches). With the focus of foreign language teaching transformed from language to pedagogy, some important factors in foreign language teaching, such as foreign language teaching education and teachers' professional development, have drawn unprecedented attention, the research of which has been gradually deepened—from the construction of foreign language teaching theory and the training of teaching skills to the study of teachers' prior knowledge structure, thinking pattern and their acquisition of teaching capability, namely, the research on teaching thinking (Gan, 2000). As a way of “learning to teach”, reflective thinking supplies a flow of fresh water for the professional development of foreign language teachers. This paper firstly review the domestic and foreign researches on reflective teaching and teachers' professional development, then practically explores the contents, process and specific operational methods of reflective teaching, and finally illustrates the effect and significance of reflective teaching with a case study.

II. REVIEW OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING AND TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Cruickshank and Applegate (Kathleen M. Bailey, Andy Curtis & David Nunan, 2004) defined reflective teaching as “the teacher's thinking about what happens in classroom lessons and thinking about alternative means of achieving goals or aims”. It is a means for teachers to think, analyze and objectively judge their classroom action. Based on their teaching experience, teachers find problems in real practice, then seek strategies and solutions to solve the problems through thoroughgoing consideration and observation, in order to improve their teaching.

Barlett (1995) listed eight principles in his Teacher Development Through Reflective Teaching to provide guidance for teachers' reflective teaching. The principles are as follows. 1) Problems being reflected must be closely associated with social environment. 2) The teacher must be interested in the problems to be solved. 3) Problems must be raised by the teacher himself, that is, they come from teacher's own teaching practice. 4) Reflection on the problems should encompass the teacher's solution in his own environment. 5) The ownership of setting the problems and solving them goes to the teacher. 6) The information of the problems should come from the teacher's teaching experience. 7) The teacher's view point should be tested in teaching practice. 8) Once the teacher's view proves to have stood the test of practice, it must be put into effect. Bartlett's view emphasizes the importance of action in reflection.

Wallace (1991) uses a 'reflective model' to demonstrate teachers' development of professional competence:

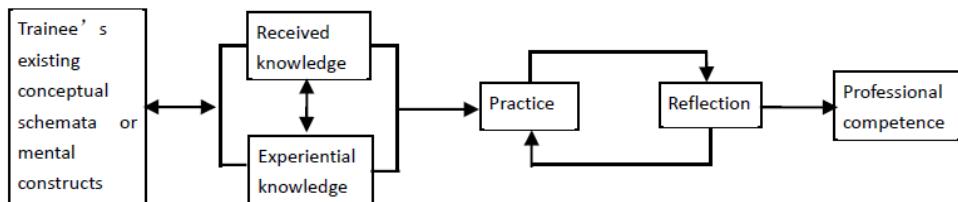


Figure 1. Reflective model of professional development (Wallace, 1991)

According to this model, received knowledge and experiential knowledge are two premises of reflection, which must be applied to teachers' teaching practice. Teachers benefit from practice if they keep on reflecting on what they have been doing. Reflective teaching is an ever-developing process full of a great amount of systematic observation, arduous exploration and rational selection, in which the teachers are both professionals and researchers. With teaching and research advancing side by side, teachers' teaching competence will be improved and their professional development can be attained.

Influenced by the development of foreign language education abroad, Chinese scholars and researchers began to pay close attention to professional development of foreign language teachers. From April 2001, School of Educational Science of Capital Normal University used international theories and experience in teacher education for reference, set up a series of teacher developing schools in Beijing. One of its purposes is to establish a new developing pattern which is full of teachers' initiative, and which integrates teaching, research and learning. The Research Centre of Courses and Foreign Language Teachers' Development of Zhe Jiang Normal University dedicates itself to the exploration of language teachers' development mechanism and social textual environment. The Centre's main research fields include the relationship between courses and teachers, teachers' professional self-identity, reflective teaching, exploratory teaching, action research, and so on.

Reflective teaching and teachers' professional development have become the focus of foreign language research. Foreign language teachers collect specific contents in their teaching and classroom activity, analyze and think about them so that they can check up on their teaching attitude, beliefs, judgment and teaching practice, and finally reflect rationally on their teaching activity, adjust their beliefs and revise their teaching methods. Teachers benefit from this process in that they develop their competence by taking efforts, making themselves live up to the hopes of society and successfully deal with the challenges from test institution, course setting and teaching methods.

III. THE PRACTICAL IMPLEMENTATION OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING

A. Objects of Reflection

Foreign language teachers have a wide range of objects to reflect on, which are interrelated and can be simply classified into teachers' beliefs and teachers' practice. To be specific, teachers can carry out reflection in the following four aspects.

1) The students: As foreign language learners, students' cognition and acquisition of second language deserve teachers' reflection and study. Teachers should find out students' interest, need, cognition, learning strategies, etc, reflect on them based on their teaching practice.

2) Teaching beliefs: Different teachers hold different teaching beliefs due to their various learning experience and teaching experience. Reflection on teaching beliefs doesn't mean to change their prior teaching beliefs, but to reflect from both subjective and objective perspectives in order to make clear the positive and negative factors in their beliefs. They can try to ponder over their teaching beliefs by asking the following questions: *What are the sources of my teaching belief? What do I believe about teaching? How does my belief influence my teaching?*

3) Teaching practice: Teachers are not only knowledge transmitters but also analyzers of students' needs, researchers of learning activities, guides for students, classroom managers, organizers and participants. All these roles provide rich contents for teachers' reflection. For instance, in classroom teaching, as managers and participants of class, teachers should reflect on teacher-students interaction, students-students interaction, teaching procedures, teaching methods, variety of activities, classroom environment/atmosphere, etc. They should reflect on whether these elements have achieved the expected effect, if there are discrepancies, what are the causes, how to improve that situation.

4) Methods and process of making decisions: Making decision is the prelude of teaching practice. According to Charles (2006), the process of making decision consists of three stages, namely, planning decision, interactive decision, evaluation decision, which correspond with the three stages of teaching—preparation, implementation and summary. In the preparation stage, teachers have their own understanding of instructional goals, descriptions of course and language contents, learning materials. They make their own decision when setting teaching objectives. However, all these objectives may not be completely achieved and the activities designed may not be carried out as expected, so teachers should evaluate after class which activities are effective, which need improvement. They can ponder on questions like *Was this lesson successful? Why or why not? What were the strengths and weakness? Were all the students involved in this lesson? Did it meet the students' needs? Should I change my teaching methods?etc.* That is the evaluation stage.

B. Process of Reflective Teaching

Experts have different ideas on the general process of reflective teaching. Eby (Xiong, 1999) believes that reflective teaching consists of eight phases, namely, observing the class, raising questions, collecting data, analyzing data, making judgments, considering alternative strategies, and implementing plans. Pollard (2006) believes that reflective teaching contains seven phases, which are reflection, planning, preparation, action, data collection, data analysis and evaluation. The author of this paper divides the process of reflective teaching into the following four phases.

1) Identification of a problem: Teachers should raise their awareness of finding out problems in their practice, which is the starting point of reflective teaching. They should take a questioning and ‘problematising’ stance (Burns, 2011) towards their teaching, review and question their teaching routine, their assumptions about their teaching approaches, their learners, their teaching contexts, or the philosophies or values that motivate what they do in the classroom (Burns, 2011), in order to identify problematic situations or issues worthy of investigation.

2) Observation and analysis: Once the problem is identified, we come into the phase of observation and analysis. Firstly, teachers should collect data, especially those concerning their own teaching practice, through consulting literature, observing class, discussing, interview, questionnaire, video recording, and so on. Then they should reflect on themselves critically, including their philosophy, practice, beliefs, values, attitude and affection. Finally, they should analyze the causes of the problem and learn from others experience.

3) Re-generalization: After analyzing causes of the problem, teachers should review their teaching activities, paying attention to two aspects: teaching activity itself and students. Teachers must re-examine their philosophy on which their teaching activities are based, look for new ideas and strategies to solve the problem, on the basis of which formulate new assumption and new plan for action, thereby improving their teaching practice, forming new educational philosophies and solving problems. In addition, teaching practice is established on the close concern about and research into students. In other words, teachers should observe students’ behavior and develop teaching programs and classroom environment consistent with students’ developmental pattern. Therefore, as the manifestation of teaching effect, students’ performance and learning outcome can serve as the basis for teachers’ reflection and their later teaching.

4) Actual verification: In this phase, teachers put the assumption and plan worked out in the previous phase into teaching practice and verify their reasonableness according to the teaching effect. New problems may occur in this process and they can be the content of a new cycle of reflective teaching. The cycles might continue till the problem is solved to the teacher’s satisfaction. In this process, teaching practice can be improved and teachers can attain their self-development.

In short, in the process of reflective teaching, teachers should construct initiatively based on their prior knowledge and teaching experience, take in new skills, techniques and theories. While reflecting on their own teaching behaviors comprehensively, teachers will gain experience from the teaching subject, teaching objectives and teaching aids, as well as from the pre-teaching, while-teaching, and post-teaching sectors to mature themselves. In the process of transforming teaching thoughts and values into teaching behaviors, teachers experience cyclic reflection to become conscious and effective reflectors, thereby promoting their professional growth.

C. Strategies of Reflective Teaching

1) Teaching journal: Teaching experience is the main content of the journal. Richards. J and Lockhart, C. (1996) suggest that teachers record their feelings about what happened in class, describe things that are significant to teaching, take down the problems worth investigation and the solutions in the teaching journal. For instance, while the teacher is reviewing classroom teaching, he/she can reflect on the following questions: Did the use of second language take up the whole class? Is it beneficial to the students? In which case should I correct students’ mistakes? etc. Jarvis (1992) pointed out that inferior journals are those which simply list what happened in class and those which generally summarize the whole teaching process. Those which are favorable for solving problems, seeing new teaching ideas and legitimizing own practice are regarded as remarkable journals. Writing journals can stir teachers’ insight into teaching and expose the problems in teaching, providing favorable preparations for making plan of improvement. However, teachers differ in their ability of reflection, so it is very necessary to offer training to develop their reflective ability. For example, teachers can be asked to analyze several different teaching journals and find out the reflective sentences in them, or they may be assigned reflective tasks, so that they can make sense of how to write teaching journal.

2) Observation: Teachers can observe each other’s class and mutually analyze their teaching practice. To be specific, they can learn how their colleagues arrange their teaching procedures, how they manage their class, how they teach students, how they tackle sudden matters to ensure that the class can continue smoothly, how the students react to the teacher, how is the relation between teacher and students. They may also pay attention to the frequencies of the teacher’s and students’ classroom behaviors: students’ frequency of using mother tongue, the teacher’s frequency of using target language, students’ frequency of answering teacher’s questions voluntarily, boys’ and girls’ respective frequency of participating in group discussion, teacher’s frequency of asking general questions and special questions, etc. Such an observation is different from traditional ones, in that the latter’s only purpose is to check on the quality of teaching, it is merely a form of teacher assessment. While the former is a means of collecting information or data—while observing class, the teacher take down the problems they find out, discuss them with their colleagues after class, propose measures for improvement and eventually get self-development. Teachers can learn a series of teaching methods and approaches through observation, and apply what they learned into their teaching practice. Therefore, learning teaching approaches is the main purpose of observation, and ‘how to teach’ is its focus. Nevertheless, some

problems cannot be observed directly through observation, so it's necessary to go through the surface and carry out deep exploration as to 'why' the teacher did so.

3) Teacher assessment: Teacher assessment is similar to observation. It does not focus on the 'right' or 'wrong' in the teaching, but it requires the observer to pay attention to the teacher's teaching throughout the class, helping the teacher to improve his/her teaching through a cycle of observing, analyzing, evaluating, improving and practicing. Fantini (Xue, 2010) put forward six items for teacher assessment, namely, interpersonal relation; cultural and intercultural knowledge, language and linguistic knowledge, language acquisition and learning, language teaching, professionalism. By assessing teachers in terms of these six qualities and proposing improving measures, teachers can better develop their teaching skills and their professional competence can be enhanced. Another form of teacher assessment is collecting students' feedback to teachers teaching. Internet teaching assessment is a very convenient form, which provides significant information for teachers to reflect on their teaching

4) Questionnaire: Foreign language teachers can design questionnaires in a planned way and with particular purposes. The contents can be concerned with teachers (such as teaching approaches), or students' attitudes, affections, learning strategies and linguistic knowledge. The subjects can be some students, or a whole class of students, the whole grade or even the teacher's colleagues. The interval between questionnaires is decided by the teaching progress. Through effective questionnaires, teachers can keep abreast of students' development and revise teaching plans and rate of progress accordingly, reflect on their teaching practice in order to carry out further research and improve their teaching strategies.

5) Micro-teaching: Teachers can record a certain process or aspect of teaching chosen by themselves as the object of reflection and then observe and analyze the recording as an observer so as to work out countermeasures to the problems. Such a vivid material can provide a detailed feedback of the whole classroom teaching, stimulate teachers' reflective thinking, encourage them to sum up the success and failure in their teaching. With such a detailed and vivid material, teachers can turn to others for analysis and explanation. In addition, teachers can record slices of others teaching relative to their reflection, observe and analyze carefully, find inspirations in them, based on which they can further their reflection.

6) Action research: Action research is related to the ideas of 'reflective practice' and 'the teacher as researcher'. It involves taking a self-reflective, critical and systematic approach to exploring teacher's own teaching contexts and intervening in a deliberate way in the problematic situation in order to bring about changes and, even better, improvements in practice (Burns, 2011). It typically involves four broad phases in a cycle of research, namely, planning, action, observation and reflection (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988). The first cycle may become a continuing, or interactive, spiral of cycles which recur until the action researcher has achieved a satisfactory outcome and feels it is time to stop. Action research is an effective approach to teachers' professional development, since compared with traditional teaching practice, it conforms more to research norms, it attaches more importance to the value of theories in research, and it puts more emphasis on collaboration.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF REFLECTIVE TEACHING

As a teacher of English culture, the author of this paper carried out a case study on a colleague's English culture class. We want to find out some problems in our teaching in order to promote the development of our teaching and research.

1) Background: Traditional English culture class is full of teacher's explanation and students' reading, without adequate opportunities for students to communicate in target language. There is no real communication in such a kind of class. If students have more opportunities and time for communication in target language, their comprehensive ability to use the language can be improved. However, what are the features of discourse in college English culture class? How about the teacher's and students' respective percentage of speaking? How do teacher and students repeat their utterance? How does the teacher ask questions? The researcher carried out an empirical study on the above questions from the perspective of classroom discourse analysis.

2) Subjects: The subjects of this research are 43 grade three English majors, among whom there are 5 boys and 38 girls, with their ages ranging from 20 to 23.

3) Research method: Questionnaire and case study are the frequently used methods in classroom teaching research. In order to get a thorough and authentic reflect on the discourses in English culture class, we used case study as our method and the teacher's and students' talk in real class was recorded with a tape recorder. All the tapes were transcribed and analyzed immediately after the class.

4) Data collection and analysis: The process of recording lasted 50 minutes and therefore we got a class discourse record of 50 minutes. As the objective of this research is to describe the communication process in English culture class, only the quantity and percentage of the variables were analyzed, which manifested the situation of classroom discourse communication.

5) Result and discussion: Multimedia is used in English culture class. The teaching objectives of that class is for students to understand American values and beliefs in success, get to know Bill Gates' family background and spirit, to be able to comment on Bill Gates' characters. Students' reading skills, listening skills, speaking skills and imagination were expected to be improved. Analysis was carried out in three perspectives: a. The teacher's and students' respective time duration of discourse: The teacher's discourse occupied 35 minutes, while the students' discourse only took up

approximately 15 minutes. b. The quantity of words in teacher's and students' discourses: the quantity of words in teacher's discourse took up 69.6% of all the words, the students' took up 30.4%. c. Teacher's use of two kinds of questions (display questions and referential questions) is analyzed in detail. Display questions are those that the answers are already known to the teacher and they are used for checking if students know the answer, too (Wang, 2000), for example, *What contributions has Bill Gates made to the personal computer industry?*. Genuine questions are questions which are used to find out new information and since they often reflect real contexts, they are therefore more communicative (Ur, 1996), for example, *From both Henry Ford and Bill Gates, can we find some common traits that contribute to the formation of giants in industry?* The purpose of asking display questions is to practice language, making the students grasp the language knowledge to be learned, most of which are declarative knowledge. While the purpose of raising genuine questions is to seek different information, which require that students express in their own language, transforming declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge (Anderson, 1987).

Display questions		Genuine questions		Total	
n	%	n	%	n	%
16	69.6%	7	30.4%	23	100%

Figure 2. The proportion of display questions and genuine questions in teacher's discourse.

The data in figure 1 indicate that the teacher raised much more display questions than genuine questions. Through an interview with the teacher and the students we find: there is insufficient opportunity for students to use language creatively, and students are "not very interested" in answering display questions. They considered display questions "very easy", while genuine questions "challenging", and "favorable for cultivating creative thinking", and "they can reflect individuality and meet the individual's need for communication". Some students even hope that the teacher can design some activities such as debate, simulation and improvisation to raise their interest.

Reflection comes naturally based on the above result and analysis: teaching should be guided by constructivism. Inspiration, exploration, collaboration, share and discussion should be used more than inculcation when teaching new knowledge, so that students can be involved in the process of knowledge construction, instead of being offered conclusion by the teacher.

The above case study suggests that teachers can improve their teaching practice and achieve better teaching effect via observation of teaching process. At the same time, their understanding of foreign language teaching can be deepened.

Reflection is a significant basis for teachers' professional development. For foreign language teachers, reflective teaching is not only the basis for them to make teaching plans and decisions for action, but also beneficial for them to strengthen their exploration ability, to raise their ability of supervising teaching, to improve their awareness of self-reflection and to construct new teaching beliefs and concepts.

1) Reflective teaching makes teachers re-identify their roles. With the constant development of society and education, teachers' roles are taking on a tendency of transforming from knowledge transmitters to teachers with multi-roles. Foreign language teachers should play nine different roles according to different teaching situations: controller, assessor, organizer, prompter, participant, resource-provider, facilitator, guide and researcher (Wang, 2000).

2) Reflective teaching helps teacher achieves the transformation of teaching beliefs. Teaching beliefs are influenced by one's learning experience, knowledge structure, teaching context and teaching experience, and they in turn influence teacher's judgment on a certain problem, and further influence his/her decision in classroom teaching, teaching procedures, teaching behavior, assessment, error correction, and almost all the aspects concerning language teaching. Actually, only by internalizing those scientific theories and accurate beliefs extracted from practice, can teachers teaching skills and reflective ability gradually get improved. Hence teachers can make clear what beliefs are favorable for language teaching, what are unfavorable, so that we will adhere to those which conform to learning laws.

3) Reflective teaching promotes the combination of theory and practice. By reflecting on not only their teaching beliefs, interest, motivation and morale, but also their teaching methods, materials and media, teachers either query or evaluate their teaching effect, and then correct the inappropriate teaching action according to the result of reflection. In reflection, teachers study the teaching objects, grasp students' individual difference, and properly apply the result of reflection to their teaching, so that they can carry out classroom teaching with better teaching practice, students' creative thinking can be inspired, and the expected teaching effect can be achieved. Through this process, teaching based on experience is changed into reflective teaching.

4) Reflective teaching improves teaching and research skills. Teaching is a complicated process, in which teachers apprehend teaching context and reflect on their own cognitive process. They analyze and evaluate their teaching plans, teaching behavior and their influence on students. They explore and ponder over the teaching phenomena which seem ordinary to others. They reflect on and judge their teaching practice, take efforts to exploit resources, learn from others' strong points to offset their weaknesses. They integrate the merits of different methodologies and develop their own teaching methods based on the context where they teach. Therefore, their teaching skills can get constant improvement. In addition, reflective teachers always pay close attention to the academic development, collect feedback information, reflect on, query and deeply analyze and evaluate teaching practice, constantly thinking about teaching strategy at a higher and more macro level, pursuing the rationality of teaching process.

V. CONCLUSION

Efficient foreign language teaching is both a science and a professional pursuit. To achieve self-development and improve professional competence, foreign language teachers must have diversified and open thought, correct and innovative educational beliefs, critical spirit, perseverance and strong affection for students.

As the main researchers and practitioners, foreign language teachers should base their research on classroom teaching, reflect on their teaching beliefs, making cognition scientific, teaching process communicative and teaching methods dynamic, and promoting their constant professional development via recording lessons, publication reading, teacher mediation questionnaire, case study, diary writing, teaching assessment, in-service training programs, conferences, seminars and short courses.

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Textbook Evaluation: A Reflection on Total English (Intermediate)

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Abstract—Textbook evaluation plays a very important role in any language teaching or learning program. The present study set out to evaluate "Total English" for intermediate level students based on a checklist adopted from Litz (2005). The researchers weighed the textbook against thirty-five criterial features in the checklist. Furthermore, for the purpose of data triangulation, a five-point-Likert-scale questionnaire including thirty five items was administered to 20 Iranian male and female EFL teachers of varying teaching experiences and university degrees. The checklist included items for external, as well as internal evaluation, then; descriptive statistics was used to interpret the data. The results of the researchers' scrutiny, as well as the descriptive statistics of the questionnaire, indicated that the textbook enjoys good advantages such as a reasonable price, clear layout and effective organization. The results of the study are discussed in details.

Index Terms—materials evaluation, evaluation criteria, Total English (Intermediate)

I. INTRODUCTION

Tomlinson (2011) defines materials as anything which is used by the teachers or learners to help facilitate the learning of a language whereas materials development refers to anything that is done by writers, teachers and learners to provide sources of language input and exploit those sources in ways that maximize the likelihood of intake. Materials can include "textbooks, cassettes, videos, CD-Rom, dictionaries, grammar books, readers, workbooks, or photocopied exercises"(Tomlinson, 2011, p.2). The term 'textbook' is defined by Merriam Webster (2003) as "a book used in the study of a subject as one containing a presentation of the principles of a subject or as a literary work relevant to the study of a subject." This term, also called text, which is the most prevalent term to refer to a book exploited in teaching-learning situation.

English language teaching has many important components, but the essential constituent to many EFL classrooms and programs is the textbook. Hutchinson and Torres (1994, p. 315) maintain "no teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook." Sheldon (1988, p.237) claims that textbooks "represent the visible heart of any ELT program." The view held by the scholars in the field stresses the importance of judicious selection and evaluation of textbooks. Sheldon (1988, cited in Jahangard, 2008) discusses several reasons for material's evaluation. She holds that the selection of an ELT textbook often signals an important administrative and educational decision in which there is considerable professional, financial or even political investment. Williams (1983) maintains, "Any textbook should be used judiciously, since it cannot cater equally to the requirements of every classroom setting" (p. 251). Cunningsworth (1995) discusses the reasons for materials evaluation as follows:

Reasons for material evaluation activities are many and varied. The intention to adopt new course books is a major and frequent reason for evaluation. Another reason is to identify particular strengths and weaknesses in course books already in use, so that optimum use can be made of their strong points, whilst their weaker areas can be strengthened through adaptation or by substituting material from other books (p. 14).

As Total English is one of the most widely used ELT textbooks in Iran context, the present study aimed at evaluating the textbook to shed more light on its adequacy for ELT programs for Iranian, language teachers, and students.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

"The wealth of published materials for English language teaching (ELT) available on the market makes selecting the right coursebook a challenging task" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p.1). This statement from Cunningsworth clearly demonstrates the status and significance of the coursebook evaluation in any ELT program. Tomlinson (2003, p.15) defines coursebook evaluation as " a procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials."

Regarding different forms of materials evaluation, Ellis (1998. et al) distinguishes between macro-evaluation from micro-evaluation: Macro-evaluation can be defined as evaluation that seeks to answer one or both of the following questions:

1. To what extent was the program/project effective and efficient in meeting its goals?
2. In what way can the program/project be improved?

From another perspective, McGrath (2002) argues for a cyclical approach to material's evaluation that encompasses three stages: pre-use, in-use, and post-use evaluation.

Furthermore, material's evaluation has got different methods (impressionistic and checklist). The impressionistic method is used to obtain a subjective evaluation of the textbook. Cunningsworth (1995) points out that the impressionistic evaluation includes looking at the blurb, table of content, layout, physical format and audio-visuals. This evaluation seems to be inadequate if it is administered solely.

In the checklist method, the researcher weighs the materials against items of the checklist. The most prevalently used checklists are Tucker (1975); Cunningsworth (1984); Breen and Candlin (1987); Sheldon (1988); Hutchins (1987); McDonough and Shaw (1993); Littlejohn (1998) and Tomlinson (1998).

McGrath (2002, p.27) elaborates on the advantages of checklist method compared to other methods as following:

The present study made an attempt to evaluate Total English using both impressionistic and checklist methods. The results are also triangulated with a teachers' questionnaire responding on the items drawn from the evaluation checklist.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

1. It is *systematic*, ensuring that all elements that are deemed to be important are considered.
2. It is *cost effective*, permitting a good deal of information to be recorded in a relatively short space of time.
3. The information is recorded in a *convenient* format, allowing for easy comparison between competing sets of material.
4. It is *explicit*, and, provided the categories are well understood by all involved in the evaluation, offers a common framework for decision-making.

Based on the convenience sampling method, 20 EFL teachers teaching Total English Series were chosen by the researchers. The participants were both male and female teachers holding different university degrees, with different teaching experiences.

B. Materials

Total English (Clare and Wilson, 2006) Published by Longman publication was taken to serve as the corpus of the present study. The textbook has been designed for young adults and adults and is based on Common European Framework (CEF). It also includes a DVD of audio files and a film bank that can be used to incorporate an authentic film-based lesson into each unit. It was then scrutinized against thirty-five criterial features, the results of which are dealt with in the results section. The seventy-five criterial features are summarized in appendix A.

C. Data Collection Instrumentation

In order to evaluate the textbook the researchers scrutinized the textbook based on a checklist adopted from Litz (2005). The evaluation checklist has some criteria pertaining to the physical, organizational, logistical as well as methodological characteristics. Furthermore, some items have been dedicated to the skills and components of the language and topics. Cultural and gender components have also been considered. Finally, some items evaluate the correspondence of the textbook to students' needs and interests.

The following criteria were used to evaluate the textbook:

Furthermore, for the purpose of data triangulation, a five –point structured questionnaire with thirty five items on Likert scale was administered to 10 EFL teachers. To ensure the validity of the researchers' evaluation, a questionnaire was also adopted from Litz (2005).

IV. PROCEDURES

First, the researchers attempted to choose a systematic and comprehensive evaluation checklist (Litz, 2005). Next, the researchers scrutinized the textbook against criterial features of the evaluation checklist and reported their subjective opinions. Furthermore, to maximize the validity of the researchers' subjective evaluation, a thirty five item questionnaire on Likert scale was administered to 10 EFL teachers teaching the textbook. Descriptive statistics was used to analyze the items of the questionnaire. Finally, the results of the researchers' subjective evaluation as well as those obtained from the questionnaire were compared and contrasted with each other.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, the researchers' scrutiny of the Total English Intermediate is presented in details.

1. Is the price of the textbook reasonable?

While some believe that the cost is not an important factor in the selection of a textbook, the researchers believe that in countries with less than desirable economic conditions this factor must be an important one to be taken into consideration. Total English Intermediate students is one of the most affordable ELT textbooks compared with other

current ELT textbooks available on the market. The textbook package including students' edition, workbook and audio CD costs almost 60,000 Rials (about \$20).

2. The textbook is easily accessible?

The textbook is widely published by Logman publication for several times in great circulation, in all over the world. It is still in print and locally well-distributed in Iran.

3. Is the textbook a recent publication?

As far as the textbook was published in 2006 by Longman publication, it seems not to be a recent publication. However, the teachers' idea regarding this item is in contrast with the researchers' subjective evaluation.

4. Is the textbook accompanied by a teacher's guide, workbook, and audio-tapes or CDs?

Rudby (2005) asserts that materials today mostly offer packages for both learners and teachers including workbooks, teachers' guides, audio and video aids and even CALL programs. This is the case for Total English Intermediate which is supported with audio cassettes/ CDs, workbook, teacher's book, photocopiable activities, DVD worksheet activities, Tests, DVD/Video and companion website.

5. Are the author's views on language and methodology comparable to those held by the evaluators?

On the blurb, the writers of the textbook claim that the textbook is flexible, clearly structured and is accordance with "Can do" objectives. The textbook is correlated to Common European Framework (CEF) which was developed by the Council of Europe to internationally standardize learning, teaching and assessment of all European languages. The common European Framework (CEF) "provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc" (CEF, 2001, p.1).

This framework deems a global scale on what the learner can do at six levels from A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, to C2. "Can do" statements for Total English Intermediate include the statements ranging from B1 to B2 which are as follows:

1. Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc.
2. Can deal with most situations likely to arise while traveling in an area where the language is spoken.
3. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest.
4. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
5. Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization.
6. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party.
7. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

6. Does the textbook include a detailed overview of the functions, structures and vocabulary that will be taught in each unit?

As mentioned in the previous item, the textbook is based on "Can do" objectives of the Common European framework. This book covers a wide range of functions and topics which are originally based on "can do" objectives. However, regarding the grammatical structures and vocabulary items, the textbook does not provide an overview of what is going to be presented.

7. Are the layout and design appropriate and clear?

As claimed in the blurb, the book has flexible, clearly structured units that make the tough task of teaching and learning easier. The overall design of the books seems to be clear. The textbook includes a user friendly table of contents, 10 units with different sections, grammar reference for each unit, review and practice section at the end of each unit, communication activities at the end of the book, film bank, writing bank, irregular verbs table, pronunciation bank and transcripts.

8. Is the textbook organized effectively?

Total English is rather a new textbook in ELT available on the market, the organization of which is relatively clear, logical and coherent. The organization follows a multi-syllabus approach including varied topics, situations, functions, and structures, the goal of which is facilitating communicative competence and enabling students to reach the aforementioned objectives of CEF (can do objectives).

9. Is an adequate vocabulary list or glossary included?

Gu (2003) stresses the use of vocabulary lists as one of the most effective strategies in vocabulary instruction. Contrary to this fact, the textbook lacks any vocabulary list or indices throughout or even at the end.

10. Are adequate review sections and exercises included?

Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed, meaning that instructions should be recycled. Total English Intermediate includes 10 units. Each unit in turn is comprised of different sections. However, at the end of each unit a single page is dedicated to "Review and practices." This section includes review exercises dealing with the grammar points and vocabulary items of the unit. The exercises are usually of the fill-in-the-blank type.

11. Is an adequate set of evaluation quizzes or testing suggestions included?

Brown (2004) categorizes tests under the term assessment which in turn is a component of teaching. This idea emphasizes the role of quizzes and test in language teaching. In addition, textbooks are great participants in language teaching and learning. Thus, the incorporation of varied tests and quizzes facilitates the learners' long path in learning a second or foreign language. By including review section at the end of each unit, Total English Intermediate has given due attention to this importance.

12. Does the teacher's book contain guidance about how the textbook can be used to the utmost advantage?

McDonough and Shaw (1993) argue that while some teacher's books give general hints to the teachers, they should also provide non-native teachers with sufficient and clear prescriptions on how to use and teach the textbook. Total English package is supplemented with an edition for teachers which is also published by Pearson Longman in great circulation that is easily accessible on the market. However, the teacher's edition is not that much prescriptive regarding the methodology and only gives general instructions on how to use the textbook.

13. Are the material's objectives apparent to both the teacher and student?

As mentioned earlier, Total English Intermediate is designed based on the standards devised by Common European Framework for teaching European languages. CEF has stated these objectives as "can do" statements that seem to be the functions of language that students should master through reading the textbook.

14. Does the textbook provide a balance of activities (Ex. There is an even distribution of free vs. controlled exercises and tasks that focus on both fluent and accurate production)?

In language teaching, it is important to move from controlled to free practice. Furthermore, both fluency and accuracy should be taken into consideration. Total English Intermediate tries to strike a balance between different types of activities including free and controlled activities, fluency and accuracy activities, and focus on form and focus on forms activities.

15. Do the activities encourage sufficient communicative and meaningful practice?

Brown (2007) believes that meaningful learning will result in better long-term retention. Total English by an integration of all the four language skills as well as inclusion of both control and free practice, has provided students with meaningful practice.

16. Do the activities incorporate individual, pair and group work?

In one hand, Brown (2007) referred to pair and group work as the most appropriate techniques to be implemented in language's courses. On the other hand, it should be born in mind that some learners prefer individual work. Therefore, the activities should include individual, pair and group work in the textbook. Total English has used different techniques to integrate the four language skills. However, most of the group and pair work activities are used to engage the learners to discuss the topics with each other. Individual work has received the greatest prominence. The first activities in each section (grammar, listening, reading, writing, etc.) are mostly of individual type, and they appear to be for warm up purposes.

17. Are the grammar points and vocabulary items introduced in motivating and realistic contexts?

The grammatical structures are presented within inductive approaches. According to research studies in SLA, children benefit more than adults from the inductive approach. However, structures are not presented in a vacuum and are relevant to the "can do" functions and also themes of the unit. The textbook also presents the vocabulary items using different vocabulary learning strategies and activities. Vocabulary presentation is usually integrated with speaking activities.

18. Do the activities promote creative, original and independent responses?

Problem solving activities are at the heart of any ELT textbook which leads in the development of critical thinking in learners' minds. The researchers' general belief is that Total English intermediate uses the elements of the problem solving activities including defining the problem, gathering information, studying and analyzing the collected information, suggesting solutions, evaluating the suggested solutions, solving the problem throughout the activities.

19. Can the textbook's activities be modified or supplemented easily?

McDonough and Shaw (1993) argues that materials modification include adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying and reordering. Total English Intermediate activities are designed in such a way that can be easily modified. All grammar exercises can be added, deleted or even re-ordered.

20. Do the materials provide an appropriate balance of the four language skills?

There seems to be well balanced of incorporation of the four language skills. However, reading skill seems to receive more attention in Total English intermediate. Reading passages are reinforced and recycled throughout the coursebook.

21. Does the textbook highlight and practice natural pronunciation (i.e. stress and intonation)?

Empirical research and pronunciation materials' writers point out the importance of teaching supra-segmental (stress and intonation) before segmental to intermediate and advanced non-native students (NNSs) (Bott, 2005 cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2012). More importantly, Krashen (1985) emphasizes the natural acquisition of pronunciation. Total English Intermediate through authentic listening and proper exercises enables students to implicitly acquire pronunciation points as natural as possible.

22. Is the practice of individual skills integrated into the practice of other skills?

Brown (2007, p.233) maintains that the integration of the four language skills "gives students greater motivation that coverts to better retention of the principle of effective speaking, listening, reading and writing." The book has paid sufficient attention to the integration of the four language skills specially speaking skill through its content.

23. Does the textbook pay attention to sub skills (i.e. listening for gist, note taking, skimming for information, etc.)?

A great amount literature can be found dealing with making learners conscious of the learning strategies (grammar, vocabulary and reading strategies) through the textbooks (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). Listening for gist, note taking and other listening strategies are rather well incorporated into the textbook. Listening activities mainly include fill-in-the-blank, matching, true-false and comprehension activities. Regarding reading comprehension, Tomlinson (2003) argues that there are four main approaches dealing with teaching L2 reading including reading comprehension based, language based, skill/strategy based approach and the schema based approach. Considering Total English Intermediate the researchers observed that the main approach presented in the textbook seems to be the comprehension approach. Thus, the other approaches, specifically skills/ strategy based approach toward reading are seemingly neglected.

24. Is the language used at the right level for the students' current English ability?

Krashen (1981) argue that comprehensible input is the crucial and necessary ingredient for second-language acquisition. Thus, it is essential to provide the student/learner with comprehensible input [i +1] which is slightly more advanced than their current level. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, and after a detailed investigation of the book, Total English intermediate seems to be at the right level for the students' current level.

25. Is the progression of grammar points and vocabulary items appropriate?

In this textbook, grammar points and vocabulary items (Specially vocabulary items) are vastly emphasized. Vocabulary items are incorporated into the four language skills. Review section after each unit seems quite helpful to foster the internalization of grammar points and vocabulary items.

26. Are the grammar points presented with brief and easy examples and explanations?

Although implicit grammar teaching holds a great value in second and foreign language learning, and instruction, explicit grammar teaching should not be missed out specifically teaching adult learner (see Brown, 2007). However, Total English intermediate lacks explicit grammar teaching and only emphasizes implicit grammar teaching.

27. Does the language represent a diverse range of registers and accents?

James (2010 cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani, 2012) maintains that one does not have to try to make his students sound like the Queen of England or the President of the United States. That is, in teaching a foreign language the learners' accents should be close to the standard variety. By the same token, textbook should familiarize students with a diverse range of registers and accents that will in turn allow the student to efficiently understand these varieties. Total English Intermediate seems to have paid enough attention to this fact.

28. Is the subject and content of the textbook relevant to the students' needs as an English language learner(s)?

Using universal themes (friends, media, wealth, etc.) the book has tried to choose the most common elements relevant to the students' needs.

29. Is the subject and content of the textbook realistic and authentic?

With the advent of Communicative Language Teaching in 1970s and 1980s, there has been a great concern for the textbook material to be authentic and realistic. The incorporation of authentic listening, speaking, reading and writing enables the students not only to use the language genuinely in real-life situation, but it also enhances the students' motivation (Cathcart, 1989, Lee, 1995). With respect to this issue, materials in the Total English are not manipulated and simplified for the learners. Listening and reading materials are adopted from authentically from different sources. Furthermore, the textbook is accompanied by a DVD providing the learners with authentic material from movies and TV.

30. Is the subject and content of the textbook interesting, challenging and motivating?

The researchers think that the activities contained in Total English Intermediate are both motivating and interesting, and that they generally provide the students with meaningful communication in realistic contexts.

31. Is there sufficient variety in the subject and content of the textbook?

Drawing upon the well-known expression "Variety is the spice of life" one can understand the importance of variety of topics and situations to keep the students motivated and interested. In this respect, Total English Intermediate covers a wide range of topics to keep its content interesting.

32. Are the materials culturally biased and portray any negative stereotypes?

Brown (2007) emphasizes cross-cultural understanding as an important facet of learning a language. He goes on that whenever you teach a language you also teach complex system of cultural systems. Cummingsworth (1984, p.61) holds "A limitation of the culture-specific coursebook is that it will be only of the relevance to students who understand the cultural background in which it is set". Hence, it should be born in mind that no culture is better than other, meaning that cross-cultural differences should be brought into the light, and no single culture or minor group should be singled out. However, Total English Intermediate seems to only stress the American and western cultures. Illustrations throughout the textbook are related to western cultures. Eastern specifically Islamic culture is not well portrayed.

33. Is the textbook appropriate for the language-learning aims of my institution?

"Communicative language teaching sets as its goal the teaching of communicative competence" (Richards, 2005, p.2). Total English Intermediate which is founded on the base of Common European Framework sees Communicative Language Teaching as its main approach to language teaching. This objective is achieved through using different tasks and activities. The aim of private sectors in Iran is also to improve students' communicative competence and the ability to communicate in real-life situations. Thus, the objectives of the textbook and those of the institution well mesh with each other.

34. Does the textbook raises students' interest in further English language study?

Total English Enjoys a variety of activities, topics and functions which make it interesting to the students. Further, by a selection of varied and lively activities, it encourages the students to further their studies beyond the classroom.

35. Would the evaluators choose to teach this textbook again?

Based on the evidences provided above, the textbook appears to possess most of the essential criteria which an ELT textbook must contain. The students' needs are likely to be met by this textbook and real-life, authentic language is practiced through the textbook. Thus, the researchers recommend the textbook to be used in the future ELT courses.

In the next section, the teachers' answers to the items of the questionnaire are tabulated. Using descriptive statistics the data obtained from the questionnaire was analyzed. As table 1 indicates, the results approve the researchers' subjective evaluation.

TABLE1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE TEACHERS' ANSWERS TO THE ITEMS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Number of the Question	Item	Frequency	Number of Patricians
1	The price of the textbook is reasonable.	28 %strongly agree	20
2	The textbook is easily accessible	57%strongly agree	20
3	The textbook is a recent publication.	71 %strongly agree	20
4	A teacher's guide, workbook, and audio-tapes accompany the textbook.	57% agree	20
5	The author's views on language and methodology are comparable to mine (Note: Refer to the 'blurb' on the back of the textbook).	42% neither agree nor disagree 14% strongly agree	20
6	The textbook includes a detailed overview of the functions, structures and vocabulary that will be taught in each unit.	85% agree	20
7	The layout and design are appropriate and clear.	57% agree	20
8	The textbook is organized effectively.	57% strongly agree	20
9	An adequate vocabulary list or glossary is included.	42% agree	20
10	Adequate review sections and exercises are included.	57% agree	20
11	An adequate set of evaluation quizzes or testing suggestions is included	42% neither agree nor disagree, 28% agree	20
12	The teacher's book contains guidance about how the textbook can be used to the utmost advantage.	57% neither agree, nor disagree, 28% agree	20
13	The materials objectives are apparent to both the teacher and student.	71% agree	20
14	The textbook provides a balance of activities (Ex. There is an even distribution of free vs. controlled exercises and tasks that focus on both fluent and accurate production).	42% agree	20
15	The activities encourage sufficient communicative and meaningful practice.	28% strongly agree	20
16	The activities incorporate individual, pair and group work.	57% agree	20
17	The grammar points and vocabulary items are introduced in motivating and realistic contexts.	42% agree	20
18	The activities promote creative, original and independent responses.	28% strongly agree	20
19	The textbook's activities can be modified or supplemented easily.	42% agree	20
20	The materials provide an appropriate balance of the four language skills.	42% agree	20
21	The textbook highlights and practices natural pronunciation (i.e. stress and intonation)	42% agree	20
22	The practice of individual skills is integrated into the practice of other skills.	85% agree	20
23	Does the textbook pay attention to sub skills (i.e. listening for gist, note taking, skimming for information, etc)?		20
24	The language used is at the right level for my (students') current English ability.	57% agree	20
25	The progression of grammar points and vocabulary items is appropriate.	42% agree	20
26	The grammar points are presented with brief and easy examples and explanations.	57% agree	20
27	The language represents a diverse range of registers and accents.	42% agree	20
28	The subject and content of the textbook is relevant to my (students') needs as an English language learner(s).	85% agree	20
29	The subject and content of the textbook is generally realistic and authentic.	71% agree	20
30	The subject and content of the textbook is interesting, challenging and motivating.	42%neither agree nor disagree, 28% agree	20
31	There is sufficient variety in the subject and content of the textbook.	71%agree	20
32	The materials are not culturally biased and they do not portray any negative stereotypes.	42% agree	20
33	The textbook is appropriate for the language-learning aims of my institution.	57% agree	20
34	The textbook raises my (students') interest in further English language study.	42% agree	20
35	I would choose to study/teach this textbook again	42% agree	20

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study set out to evaluate English language textbook "total English" for intermediate level students. Total English for Intermediate level by Clare and Wilson (2006) (Longman publication), is a course for young adults and adults which is based on Common European Framework (CEF). It was then scrutinized against forty criterial features based on recent and validated checklist adopted from Litz (2005). The findings of the study indicate that overall, the textbook has met its goals.

APPENDIX A

1. Is the price of the textbook reasonable?
2. The textbook is easily accessible
3. Is the textbook a recent publication?
4. Is the textbook accompanied by a teacher's guide, workbook, and audio-tapes or CDs?
5. Are the author's views on language and methodology comparable to those held by the evaluators?
6. Does the textbook include a detailed overview of the functions, structures and vocabulary that will be taught in each unit?
7. Is the layout and design appropriate and clear?
8. Is the textbook organized effectively?
9. Is an adequate vocabulary list or glossary included?
10. Are adequate review sections and exercises included?
11. Is an adequate set of evaluation quizzes or testing suggestions included?
12. Does the teacher's book contain guidance about how the textbook can be used to the utmost advantage?
13. Are the materials objectives apparent to both the teacher and student?
14. Does the textbook provide a balance of activities (Ex. There is an even distribution of free vs. controlled exercises and tasks that focus on both fluent and accurate production)?
15. Do the activities encourage sufficient communicative and meaningful practice?
16. Do the activities incorporate individual, pair and group work?
17. Are the grammar points and vocabulary items introduced in motivating and realistic contexts?
18. Do the activities promote creative, original and independent responses?
19. Can the textbook's activities be modified or supplemented easily?
20. Do the materials provide an appropriate balance of the four language skills?
21. Does the textbook highlight and practice natural pronunciation (i.e. stress and intonation)?
22. Is the practice of individual skills integrated into the practice of other skills?
23. Does the textbook pay attention to sub skills (i.e. listening for gist, note taking, skimming for information, etc)?
24. Is the language used at the right level for the students' current English ability?
25. Is the progression of grammar points and vocabulary items appropriate?
26. Are the grammar points presented with brief and easy examples and explanations?
27. Does the language represent a diverse range of registers and accents?
28. Is the subject and content of the textbook relevant to the students' needs as an English language learner(s)?
29. Is the subject and content of the textbook generally realistic and authentic?
30. Is the subject and content of the textbook interesting, challenging and motivating?
31. Is there sufficient variety in the subject and content of the textbook?
32. Are the materials culturally biased and portray any negative stereotypes?
33. Is the textbook appropriate for the language-learning aims of my institution?
34. Does the textbook raise students' interest in further English language study?
35. Would the evaluators choose to teach this textbook again?

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A Historical Study of the Influences of European Immigration on the Formation of American English

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Abstract—The paper studies the formation of American English under the influence of European immigration from a historical perspective. A literature review is presented first with many important early researches on American English, the history of American English, and American immigration. Then a general survey of American English is put forward, including how American English is defined, what the typical features are, how American English is formed and developed. The focus of the paper is the influences of European immigration on the formation of American English, in which the influences of Spanish, French, Dutch and German immigration are illustrated respectively.

Index Terms—American English, European immigration, historical perspective

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is an important carrier of a country's national culture and is also inevitably affected by the culture. With the development of the world, the global pattern changes quickly and American culture is affecting the world in various forms. It gains great academic and practical significance to study the formation and development of American English under the influence of American immigration culture, which helps understand the history of American English, American culture and American values.

Although the researches on American English are quite rich, they are very limited on the issue of the influence of European immigration on American English. This paper studies the formation of American English under the influences of European immigration culture to better reveal that history, culture and language are intercommunicating all the time, and that people may better know the history and development of American English and deepen their understanding of American culture and American values.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

To get a general idea of the previous research of American English, the authors refer to China National Knowledge Infrastructure which is the biggest online platform for academic articles in China. Key words "American English", "British English" and "American immigration culture" had been retrieved in the database. It can be seen that the study of American English from the perspective of linguistics and literature has been paid more attention but few articles have been published concerning the study of American English from the perspective of history and culture. In this sense, the formation and development of American English under the influence of American immigration culture is a subject requiring more research efforts.

A. Previous Research in China

The first true masterpiece of American immigration history in China undoubtedly belongs to Deng Shusheng' with his *America and Immigration—History, Present and the Future*. Afterwards Huang Zhaoqun's *Diverse American Society: American Nation and Its National Culture* (1994) explores the history and culture of various ethnic groups in the United States in detail and reviews the evolution of American society from cultural perspective. Scholar Lai Anfang (2004) elaborately introduces the politics, economy, culture and history in *An Outline Introduction to Britain and America*, which is very helpful for the study of the impact of immigration culture on American English. In *The History of English*, Li Funing (1991) divides the historical process stages of American English in his own way and discusses the impact of the American immigration culture on American English from a historical perspective. However, in this regard, Li does not deepen the study on American English from the immigration culture perspective.

In *American English and American Culture*, Wang Zongyan, Zheng Lixin and Gu Jiazu (1993) combine history, culture and language study together, exploring the formation and development of American English, introducing various regional variants of American English in detail and putting language study onto the stage of intercultural communication.

It is in very vivid language with great academic and practical significance. *English and the World* by Niu Daosheng (2008) published by Social Sciences Press in China in 2008 explores the development of English around the whole world and describes the distribution of English, and focuses on the development of British English and American English.

Related academic articles are also seen in journals, such as Liu Songxin's "On American Early Immigration Culture" published in *the Economist* in 2010. In "The Differences on Vocabulary Between American English and British English" published in *Crazy English* in 2011, Cai Xiaohui and Min Zuchuan describe many differences between American English and British English. The differences on vocabulary mainly lie in nouns, verbs and so on. A large number of research papers also emerge, such as Li Yanwei's "The Formation of American English and American History" published in *Journal of Tianjin University* (Social Sciences Edition) in 2001, Dai Weiping and Gao Weigui's "American English and American Culture" published in *Sichuan International Studies University* in 2001 and Shan Wenbo's "The Origin and Developing Trend of American English" published in *Adult Education College of Hubei University* in 2005. These papers explore American English and American immigration culture from either linguistic or cultural perspective, but they are not deep enough. To sum up, although the researches on American English and American immigration culture are very rich, the study on the formation and development of American English under the influence of American immigration culture is still rare.

B. Previous Research Outside of China

The study on American English has received a lot of concern in recent years. There is much work investigating it from different angles. It is well known that the research on English is undertaken by professionals in English linguistics and literature. As one variant of English, the research on American English naturally follows two pathways—linguistics and literature. Scholars of American literature tend to study American English through the style and skills of using language while linguistics experts analyze American English from linguistic point of view, i.e., pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar. H. L. Mencken (1977) contributes a masterpiece in linguistics—*American Language* which was published by Alfred A. Knopf, Inc. in 1977. It explains the origin of American slang, geographical names and the impact of foreign language on American English. Robert Burchfield (1992), the writer of *The English Language*, gives a brief survey of the development of English and describes the various changes of the language through the 18th century, right up to the enormous changes in the English language that have taken place in the 20th century and the changes over the years into its modern form.

Since the 20th century, Garland, Cannon and R. W. Burchfield find another way to study American English—to trace the history of American English from the perspective of human civilization and define the development process of American English in historical method. (Li, 2001) J. L. Dillard's (1992) *A History of American English* published in 1992 provides for the first time a description of the development of American English from a historical perspective. Dillard tracks the development of American English from its earliest origins to the present day and analyzes a variety of forms of American English, such as "standard", Black and pidgin. It writes about the influences of maritime contacts, the Negro, Dutch, Hawaiian, Spanish, French, Italian and German on the development of American English.

One of the best works of foreign academic study on American immigration history is *The Uprooted* written by American historian Oscar Handlin (1951) in the 20th century. This book specifically and vividly tells about the suffering time of 18th century European immigrants who came to America across the oceans to achieve their American dream. The first sentence of the book—"When I wanted to write a book about the history of American immigration, I found that the history of American immigration is the history of America", makes a judgment of the relationship between American history and American immigration, and reveals the influence of American immigration culture on American English. Maldwyn Allen Jones (1992) analyzes the forces and adjustments of the uprooted emigrants in different parts of the world who made it to America to achieve their American dreams in *American Immigration* which was published by University of Chicago Press in 1992. He describes the role which they play in industrialization, the westward movement, labor organization, the growth of American nationalism, and the practice of democracy.

III. GENERAL SURVEY OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

A. The Definition of American English

American English is a form of English used in the United States. It is the major language used in the United States. According to the 1990 census, 97% of U.S. residents use English well or very well and only 0.8% of people do not speak English. By 2005, more than two thirds of native speakers of English speak American English. American English standardizes the first-generation English (British English), becoming the second-generation English in history of modern English. American English and British English form the foundation of the third-generation English (World English). (Mingyuzhixing, 2014)

The proposal of "American English" was not very easy. In the early colonial period, English used in the United States was called "North American English" (English in North America) or "colonial English". The second period was around 1920s, Columbia University professor George P. Krapp advocated that the national language should be collectively referred to as "The English Language in America". In the third period, William Craigie and James R. Hulber used the name "American English" for the first time in their dictionary *Dictionary of American English* (1938—1944), but the final formation of "American English" was finished by Noah Webster. Thus, "American English" is not a separate

language; it's a variant of British English.

From 1607, the British in the American colonies established the first colony in Virginia. Jamestown is established and the British colonists brought Shakespeare and Milton English to America, known as English in North America or Colonial English. So American English is a regional English variant in the process of British rule in North America. American English is the national language of the United States which is improved and standardized with America's independence and territorial expansion. With the rising international status of the United States as a superpower, American English becomes more and more dominant in the development of English around the whole world.

American English is not an independent language. It is a regional language variant of British English, which originates from British English in the 17-18 century and stands on its own today in this particular geographical environment—North America.

B. The Typical Features of American English

American English is a regional language variant of British English, which originated in the 17-18 century British English. It is formed in this particular geographical environment—North America, by the impact of social and cultural diversity and innovation. Some characteristics in American English make it different from British English which are listed.

(1) Inclusiveness

America is a nation of immigration and the language of America has improved into contemporary American English with the absorption of the essence of other nations, such as French, Dutch, Spanish and German. For example, *prairie* from French; *canyon* from Spanish; *hamburger* from German.

(2) Flexibility

American English is very flexible. It often takes new forms or contents to meet the needs in reality. For example, some words are changed into different forms with different meanings such as *brunch*, *black sheep*, *white collar*.

(3) Conservatism

Some American words still keep the traditional using of early English while modern British English has dropped away such as *fall* in American English and it shares the same meaning with *autumn*. Some old words are still in use in American English while in British English they have been out of usage, such as *cordwood*.

In pronunciation, contemporary American English still keeps several features of Elizabethan English, and these features have ceased to exist in contemporary British English, such as [æ] pronounced in the word *last* in Elizabethan English. It still exists in American English.

(4) Innovation

As is well known American people are full of creativity and courage. With the social development a lot of new words and new forms spring up in American English such as *test-tube baby* in medicine and *soup opera* in media. And some other words are created in American English such as *black hole*, *smog*.

C. The Formation and Development of American English

American English is a regional variant of British English, which originated in the 17-18 century British English. Its history is closely related with the history of British English. The first Indo-inhabitant of the British Isles was the Celts. In the fifth century, the Angles and Saxon occupied England and Celts retreated to the Wales, Ireland and Scottish Highlands. The word “English” came from “Angles”, meaning “corner”. “Angle” in Old English was written as “Engle” and the language was called “Englisc”. The “sc” in Old English was read as the pronunciation of “sh”. That is where the pronunciation of the word “English” came from.

After Columbus discovered the New World—America, Spain, France, Netherlands, Britain and other powers went to America. Britain ultimately became the Queen of the Seas with its powerful military force. In 1607, a group of British sent by the British London Company landed on the mouth of James River, and established Jamestown. Later, the British established the first colony in North America—Virginia colony, which marked the British settlement in North America for the first time and the British language and culture began to spread in the North America. In 1620, another group of British took the ship of “Mayflower” to immigrate to North America. Because of the storm, they landed on the Plymouth and settled down. They brought the Elizabethan English to North America, which became the origin of American English. From 1607 when the first colony established by Britain in North America to 1733, the British established a total of 13 colonies along the Atlantic coast of North America and English became the universal language in British colonies. These British immigrants belonged to middle and lower class. The language they used was the origin of American English.

Since then, in the United Kingdom and North America, the Elizabethan English began to develop in two different ways. With the different socio-cultural and geographical environment, gradually the differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar and even spelling came up between the British English and American English. In a certain sense, it is North America's diverse immigration culture that created the American English.

In the early British colonial period, these immigrants kept close contact with their home town and their language shared the same changes with British English. As time went by, in North America, a new kind of English came up different from British English. And the American Independence War was a historical turning point indicating the emergence of American English. Benjamin Franklin published an article, in which he tried to change spelling of words, such as *honor* to replace *honour*. His theory had a huge impact on the vocabulary scientist and lexicographer Noah Webster. He wrote

American Dictionary of English Language in 1828. He systematically and comprehensively fixed down the meaning and form of American English, laying a solid foundation for the future development of American English. American English ever since has a dictionary of its own. It marks the formation of American English as an independent language.

IV. THE INFLUENCES OF EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION ON AMERICAN ENGLISH

In terms of immigrants to the United States, the melting pot process has been the process of Americanization, that is, cultural assimilation and acculturation. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, European immigration to the United States became increasingly diverse and increased substantially in number. In the early 1890s, large numbers of Southern and Eastern European immigrant groups such as the Italians, Jews, and Poles arrived. Many returned to Europe but those who remained merged into the cultural melting pot, adopting American lifestyles.

In the early 20th century, the meaning of the recently popularized concept of the melting pot was subject to a debate which centered on how immigration impacted American society and on how immigrants should be treated. However, race melting enriches the nation's culture. Different races with different cultures come to this country continually, in this new nation. All these different elements interact with each other, and form the unique American culture. It also explains why there are so many loan words in American English. American English like the nation itself is diverse, and absorbs many language elements from different languages. The following is about the influences on American English from the perspectives of Spanish, French, Dutch, and German immigration.

A. The Influence of Spanish on American English

It is over 200 years for Spanish colonial rule in North America, especially in the southwest of North America. After America was independent from the Britain, gradually it occupied this region in the process of territorial expansion and Westward Movement. Since then, American English and Spanish keep interacting with each other in this region. According to historical records, before going to North America, the British already shared culture and business with other European languages, which of course included Spanish borrowing. After British immigration came to North America, these borrowed words were still in use in the North American colonies, which had great impact on American English. Especially after the Mexican War and the California Gold Rush, Spanish penetrated into almost every areas of social life in the United States.

Historically, since the 1820s, large numbers of immigrants of the United States came to Texas region which was the territory of Mexico at the time, and later these U.S. immigrants planned insurgency in the region, declaring the independence of Texas from Mexico. In 1846, Mexican-American War broke out and Mexico was forced to cede large areas of territory to the United States.

As the carrier of national culture, American English and Spanish share some similarities with each other. Because of its own characteristics— strong local characteristics, rich language content and a sense of humor, a large number of Spanish words were introduced into American English. For example, food, *mescal, tortilla*; clothes, *poncho, sombrero*; and others like *mosquito, cafeteria, canyon, cinch*. These borrowed words from Spanish are closely related to the social life in that period.

B. The Influence of French on American English

As we all know, from a historical point of view, French has a significant impact on English. First of all, French and English belong to the Indo-European language family. In 1526, the first group of French settlers came to North America, which marked the beginning of French immigration history to North America. In fact, since the Norman Conquest, a large number of French words were introduced into English, becoming a part of English etymology. In 1731, New Orleans and Louisiana region became French colonies. In the 17th century, a large number of French immigrated to this area, and French culture had a great effect on this region. These people brought the French diet, art and culture to the North American continent and French vocabulary began to have an impact on American English. In 1803, Napoleon came to power and launched wars everywhere, which made the shortage of funds. The United States only spent \$15 million for the purchase of large tracts of land of the Mississippi River region from France including Louisiana. Since then, American English and French influenced each other increasingly.

During the colonial period, American English mainly directly borrowed French vocabulary. At the early time, France occupied many colonies in North America and many daily necessities were named in French. After these colonies were occupied by the United States, some French words were borrowed directly and absorbed into American English. In the early American English, the words borrowed from French were *taxis, pumpkin, portage*. After the War of Independence, because of great assistance to the United States, the French-American relations became harmonious and a lot of vocabulary about French cooking, art, music, literature, fashion and other aspects were introduced into American English such as *cafe latte, dinner, pork* and *banquette*. Also French slang was introduced into American English such as *chisel*.

C. The Influence of Dutch on American English

Dutch influence on American English is huge. Historically, the Dutch colonists gained great power in North America, and later many Dutch settled down in North America. In the 17th century, the Dutch maritime industry was very developed and played an important role in international trade. Inevitably many Dutch words came into American

English. In 1609, Dutch explorer Henry Hudson came to North America. In 1621, with a value of \$ 24 commodities the Netherlands purchased the ownership of the island of Manhattan from the Indians, where it established the first colony named New Amsterdam, and later established the colony of New Netherland. Today, New York's *Broadway* is from the Dutch name *Bredweg*. There are many words in American English which are borrowed from Dutch such as *luck*, *cookie*, *dollar*, *boss* and *go Dutch*. And the expression in American English "How come?" is also from the Dutch "hoekom".

D. The Influence of German on American English

In 1683, thirteen families established the first permanent settlement in Pennsylvania, which marked the beginning of German immigration to North America. Germany's traditional culture kept constant contact with American English culture and had profound impact on American English. From the beginning of the 18th century, German was the largest number of foreign immigrants in the United States. German immigrants in the United States promoted a variety of activities, such as *picnics*, *music*, etc., and brought German beer and sausage production to the United States. Germany's culture brought by the immigrants penetrated into American culture and the world—famous Germany hamburger, alcoholic beverages and sausage became a part of American life.

In American English, the borrowed words from German are mainly related with food and drinking such as *hamburger*, *noodle* and *beer soup*. And other words and expressions from German are also in large number like *semester*, *seminar*, and *kindergarten*.

V. CONCLUSION

America is a nation of immigrants and immigration culture has had a profound impact on the development of American English. The English is the major wave of immigration in colonial period, followed by the Irish, German, and later a large number of black Africans who were traded to North America as slaves. After the Civil War, a number of immigrants from other European countries came to North America.

Language is an important carrier of a country's national culture and also inevitably affected by the culture. In a certain sense, it is North America's diverse immigration culture that created the American English. It is very necessary to study the influence of American immigration culture on American English. Among these immigration culture, European immigration played the biggest role.

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The Impact of Teacher's Self-disclosure on Students' Attitude towards Language Learning in a Foreign Language Context

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Abstract—This study, conducted in two quantitative and qualitative phases, was designed to investigate the possible impact of teacher's self-disclosure on students' attitude towards English language learning. The participants were 48 female EFL learners of intermediate level who were randomly assigned to experimental (23) and control (25) groups. In the quantitative phase, to check the effect of teacher's self-disclosure on students' attitude, the questionnaire of Attitudes towards English Language was administered in both groups as a pre-test at the beginning and a post-test at the end of the term. During the term, the experimental group received teacher's self-disclosure as treatment. The data were analyzed by means of Independent sample-t-test and matched pair t-test. The results showed significant differences between groups. For the qualitative phase, the experimental group received the questionnaire of the Approval of teacher's self-disclosure. Subjects' responses to the questionnaire and the analysis of teacher's observations confirmed the results of the first phase.

Index Terms—attitude, self-disclosure, foreign language context

I. INTRODUCTION

Investigations into the factors affecting second language learning are not without any problems. However, research into this area has made an important contribution to the field of English language teaching (ELT) by highlighting those factors that might improve or hinder the process of learning a second or a foreign language. Some of those factors are affective factors that deal with language learners' feelings and emotions. Despite the traditional neglect, these factors have become even more important with the advent of humanistic approaches in SLA. As Williams and Burden said, "Humanistic approaches emphasize the importance of the inner world of the learner and place the individual's thoughts, feelings and emotions at the forefront of all human development" (1997, p. 30).

According to Jourard and Jaffee (1970), self-disclosure is, "the act of revealing personal information to others" (cited in Gilbert, 1976). It is an important element that according to Gilbert (1976) has received considerable attention in the past decade. Self-disclosure can be studied in different areas such as psychology and teaching more specifically in SLA.

One more factor is attitude or the way we look at a thing which in turn affects the way we choose to deal with that thing. Attitude is considered as a very important affective factor in language learning. There are many studies concerning attitude in learning a second or foreign language. To define attitude, Gardner (1985) said, "Attitude has cognitive, affective and conative components (i.e., it involves beliefs, emotional reactions, and behavioral tendencies related to the object of attitude) and consists, in broad terms, of an underlying psychological predisposition to act or evaluate behavior in a certain way" (cited in McGroarty, 1996, p. 5). What the importance of attitude in language learning is and whether it affects language learning are some of the questions that are raised when we think of attitude towards language learning. This study is going to investigate the effects of teacher's self-disclosure of his/her language learning experiences on students' attitude towards language learning.

According to Feuerstein's mediation theory, a child's learning right from birth is shaped by the intervention of significant adults. He called these important factors as, "mediators" or "mediating adults" and their experiences as "mediated learning experiences" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 67). He believed that children's cognitive development will be affected by these mediators (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 67). Along with Feuerstein's idea of "mediation" there is Vygotsky's idea of "zone of proximal development", which also deals with the idea of "mediation" in the process of learning. As Williams and Burden asserted, "the secret of effective learning lies in the nature of social interaction between two or more people with different levels of skill and knowledge. The role of the one with most knowledge, usually a partner or teacher, but often a peer, is to find ways of helping the other to learn" (1997, p. 40). In the case of this study "mediated learning experience" is teacher's self-disclosure that may help students to get familiar with some of the possible challenges in the process of language learning; the teacher has a great role in presenting these experiences (mediators) in a proper way to be effective and successful in making positive attitudes towards learning a foreign

language in the mind of learners.

There are different methods such as NLP, emotional intelligence and self-disclosure that seem effective on affective factors related to learning a foreign language. The present study will investigate the effect of teacher's self-disclosure on students' attitude toward language learning. If proved to be true, this construct (self-disclosure) will have great implications for language teachers and learners in the process of learning. Moreover, it can be introduced in training courses as a helpful tool to make an intimate relationship between teachers and students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Humanism

Humanism emphasizes the development of the whole person rather than focusing solely upon the development and employment of cognitive skills (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 30). One of the key figures of humanistic psychology is Carl Rogers whose works identify some key elements of humanistic approaches to education. For example he believed in "natural potential for learning" or the subject matter's "personal relevance to the learner" and "active participation by the learner, i.e. experiential learning" (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 35).

Gertrude Moskowitz (1978, p. 11) described the meaning of "humanistic" in language teaching and stated, "Humanistic education is related to a concern for personal development, self-acceptance, and acceptance by others, in other words, making students more human" (cited in Stevick, 1990, p. 24). Moskowitz has emphasized on two major points in relation to humanistic education as "feeling" and "self-actualizing" which is the fifth way of showing the human quality.

B. Self-disclosure

According to Vogel and Wester self-disclosure is "a process whereby a person verbally reveals private feelings, thoughts, beliefs, or attributes to another person" (2003, p. 351). Or as Jourard and Jaffee (1970) said, "self-disclosure can be described as act of revealing personal information to others" (cited in Gilbert, 1976, p. 221). Derlega, Metts, Petronio and Mergulis stated, "self-disclosure is loosely defined as what individuals verbally reveal about themselves to others (including thoughts, feeling, and experiences), plays a major role in close relationships" (1993, p. 1). Wei, Russell and Zakalik introduced self-disclosure as a way of making "comfort" and said that, "comfort with self-disclosure" is one of the indices of "social competence" (2005, p. 602).

The content of self-disclosure is not just decided by the discloser, but the context of relationship and the recipient influence what you disclose. Self-disclosure is not considered as an individual construct, in contrary, it is a mutual and reciprocal one. Jourard believed, "a person who discloses much to another may be expected to receive much disclosure from him; and a person who knows a great deal about another should be relatively well known by him" (1971a, p. 14). It is the case that when one person starts to disclose one's personal information or emotions, the other one does the same thing. It confirms the quality of reciprocity in self-disclosure. According to Jourard, "self-disclosure begets self-disclosure" (1971a, p. 17).

Self-disclosure is called to be one of the important tools that psychotherapists use to create a deep and successful psychotherapeutic relationship. So, if the foreign language classroom is going to be dealt with by a counselor-client (teacher-student) relationship, then, self-disclosure can be used by the teacher as a successful tool.

Moreover, by self-disclosure, the teacher can share his/her own experiences with students and they can benefit from those experiences; and they can know each other in a more effective way. Jourard believed, "I can experience your experience most directly if you disclose it to me" (1971a, p. 78). Because of the fact that self-disclosure is a reciprocal phenomenon, students will disclose their own experiences and problems, so the teacher can help them easier. In addition, by self-disclosure the teacher can know himself or herself better in relation to those students. In this way, he/she can find the best method of teaching which is compatible with him/her. Jourard believed, "when a person has been able to disclose himself utterly to another person, he learns how to increase his contact with his real self, and he may then be better able to direct his destiny on the basis of this knowledge" (1971b, p. 6)

Self-disclosure has been the theme of lots of studies in the field of English language learning, and different results have been found. For example, Pishghadam and Askarzadeh (2009) investigated the impacts of teacher's self-disclosure on students' speaking ability and anxiety. Self-disclosure proved to be of great importance in success in speaking ability and creating intimacy in language learning context.

Goldstein and Benassi (1994) studied the relation between self-disclosure and students' class participation. The results of this investigation indicated that the positive relation between teacher's self-disclosure and students' class participation was more the result of interpersonal atmosphere made by self-disclosure.

Furthermore, the use of teacher's self-disclosure proved effective on lowering language learners' foreign language classroom anxiety (Hosseini & Tabatabaei, 2010).

Serag (2011) investigated the role of self-disclosure in EFL writing by computers which showed that teachers can promote learning autonomy by including self-disclosure in the writing course.

C. Attitude

Attitude or the way that we look at anything, is very important for the way that we choose to deal with that thing. To

Gardner (1985), "Attitude has cognitive, affective and conative components (i.e., it involves beliefs, emotional reactions, and behavioral tendencies related to the object of attitude) and consists, in broad terms, of an underlying psychological predisposition to act or evaluate behavior in a certain way" (Cited in McGroarty, 1996, p. 5). Wenden (1998) has introduced attitude as "evaluations, valued beliefs, motivations, what is believed to be acceptable, and approaching or avoiding responses towards something" (Cited in Talebinezhad and Azizi, 2013). Attitude is one of the affective factors, and Brown (2001, p. 61) characterized it by a large proportion of emotional involvement such as feelings, self, relationship in a community of learners and emotional ties between language and culture.

Because of the psychological importance of the theme, attitude has been investigated as an interdisciplinary subject in the field of language learning and psychology. As an instance, Karahan (2007) examined the relationship between attitude towards English language and its use in Turkey. The results showed that positive language attitude helps them have positive orientation towards English language learning.

Krashen (1987) showed the relationship between attitude and language learning success by his Monitor Model, which is constituted in part by attitude, many times has the power to either permit or block language input from reaching the part of a learner's brain that acquires language.

Masgoret, Bernaus and Gardner (2001) declared that attitudes and motivation are "key factors that influence the rate and success of second language learning in the classroom" (Cited in Acheson, n. d., p. 38). Nevertheless, success in language learning can itself be a cause of having positive attitude towards learning a foreign language. Sometimes students gain success in language learning and then look at it positively. McGroarty believed, "positive attitudes about language and language learning may be as much the result of success as the cause" (1996, p. 4).

Because positive or negative attitudes are the result of interaction with others, the role of the teacher is very important in changing negative attitude or in maintaining positive attitude. The teacher should try to find the ways to help students to change their negative attitudes towards language learning and language class. Brown believed, "the negative attitude can be changed, often by exposure to reality" (2000, p. 181). On the other hand, according to Dornyei (1990), "in a context in which there is not much daily contact with native speakers of English, learners are not likely to have a clear affective reaction to the specific L2 language group" (Cited in Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu, 2004, p. 124). This study is going to find out whether teacher's self-disclosure can be a helpful way to direct students' attitudes to a positive point.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This study was conducted with 48 female learners whose age ranged from 14 to 25. They were all English language learners of intermediate level. They were able to understand and speak English fairly well. They were homogeneous in terms of English language proficiency. Intact group design was used based on their English learning level. Nevertheless, they were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups. There were 25 learners in the control and 23 learners in the experimental group who received teacher's self-disclosure. Both groups were taught by the same teacher (one of the researchers) to remove all of the possible effects of teacher's personality.

B. Instrumentation

Three instruments were used in this study:

a. 200C of Nelson English language test battery was utilized in this study to check students' homogeneity. It consists of 50 items in the form of multiple-choice questions. At each level, the passing score is intended to be 30 (60 %) (Fowler and Coe, 1976, p. 9).

b. Questionnaire of Attitudes towards English Language: The questionnaire of attitude used in this study was designed by Zainol Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi and Alzwari (2012). There were totally 45 items concerning language attitudes in terms of behavioral, cognitive and emotional aspects of attitude. It was designed in the form of a 5-point Likert scale ranging from Level 1: strongly disagree to Level 2: strongly agree. The reported value of reliability by Cronbach alpha was 0.878 which showed that the questionnaire was applicable.

The questionnaire was applied in this study as a pre-test at the beginning of the term to measure students' attitude toward English language learning before receiving teacher's self-disclosure and as a post-test at the end of the term after receiving teacher's self-disclosure to check any possible changes in students' attitude as the result of teacher's self-disclosure.

c. Questionnaire of Approval of Teacher's Self-disclosure: To check students' perception of teacher's self-disclosure and their feeling towards that, the researchers used the questionnaire that was designed by Goldstein and Benassi (1994). The original questionnaire contains 5 sections, and each component consists of 3 items. To reach the goals of this study just the first three sections of the questionnaire were used. The first section contains 3 items and deals with student perception of teacher's self-disclosure. The alpha reported equals 0.77 ($\alpha=.77$). The second section consists of 3 items and deals with student perception of class participation with reported alpha of 0.88 ($\alpha=0.88$). The last section has three items and measures student perception of freedom to participate in class. The alpha of this section is 0.92 ($\alpha=.92$). This questionnaire was used at the end of the term and after the two post-tests.

d. Teacher's Self-disclosure: The teacher self-disclosed her learning experiences and emotions of the period that she

was a language learner. Self-disclosure, as the independent variable, was used as treatment in the experimental group only.

e. Teacher's Classroom Observation: Teacher's direct observation of the students' feedback and feelings in the experimental group was one of the ways used in this research. These observations were used as data source to analyze the impacts of teacher's self-disclosure.

C. Design

The dependent variable in this study was students' attitude toward English language learning and the independent variable was teachers' self-disclosure about her own English language learning experiences and emotions. Age (ranged from 14-25), sex (all female), and level of language proficiency, as measured by Nelson English language test, were variables which were controlled in this study. Since participants were randomly assigned to the control and the experimental groups, the design of this study was quasi-experimental.

1. Quantitative Data Collection

Homogeneity of both groups was confirmed by Nelson English language test (test 200C).

Students' attitude was supposed to be checked at the beginning and at the end of the term. The term had 22 sessions, and data collection continued from April 2012 to June 2012. Hence, the questionnaire of attitude was given to the students of both groups on the fourth session as a pre-test. Students had 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire and the teacher provided required explanations.

From the fifth session on, in experimental group, the teacher started to self-disclose and share some of her experiences and emotions of the period that she herself was a language learner. The self-disclosures were presented for 15 times, each at one session. Some of the things that the teacher exactly stated were the problems and obstacles that she had faced while she was a language learner; the ways that she mastered each skill of English language; the kinds of practices that she followed; the long time that she spent on learning English; the kind of affective and emotional situations that she experienced whenever she had a problem in learning something, or she made a mistake in English classes and so on. Students were so eager to share their own experiences with the class and to find solutions for their problems in English language learning among teacher's self-disclosures.

Teacher's self-disclosures comprised of statements like "I thought that making mistakes in front of classmates was too annoying and something to be avoided, but after a while, I understood that it was a sign of learning and improving. So, I decided not to get embarrassed of my mistakes rather I tried to correct them"; "what do you do to be able to keep the learned words in your mind. Using the lightener box is the thing that I experienced and it really worked", "don't worry if it takes you a long time to learn some grammatical points, sometimes I had the same problem when I was a language learner. To overcome this problem I used to study some grammar books and do their exercises, and whenever I had a problem I asked my teacher; practice makes perfect".

Trying to avoid any effects on the results of the study, the teacher (one of the researchers) had the same emotional, behavioral, and methodological performance during the term in both control and experimental groups. Next, at the end of the term, the questionnaire of attitude was given to the students as the post-test. To check any significant difference between the mean scores at the beginning and at the end of the term, a matched-pair t-test was conducted between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of attitude in the experimental and control group.

2. Qualitative Data Collection

In the qualitative phase of data collection, the teacher took note of her own observations in the experimental group after each session. The teacher recorded the items that she self-disclosed for students and then the students' feedback and their self-disclosures.

For the next step of the qualitative phase of the study, on the twenty first session, the questionnaire of approval and perception of self-disclosure was given to the experimental group to see whether they felt the traces and impacts of teacher's self-disclosure in their class. In fact, the qualitative phase of this study was conducted in the experimental group, because the investigation and analysis of probable changes in the attitude of the participants in the experimental group was intended. The qualitative phase dealt with the process of the impacts of teacher's self-disclosure, but the quantitative phase dealt with the product of teacher's self-disclosure.

3. Data Analysis Procedure

This study was designed to find out whether teacher's self-disclosure have any influence on students' attitude to language learning. So, at first, students' homogeneity in terms of language proficiency was checked by a two-tailed independent samples t-test on their language proficiency test score.

Then, because the two control and experimental groups were independent, a two-tailed independent samples t-test was used as pre-test, and once again, after the treatments, as the post-test of attitude.

After the post-test of attitude in both groups, to check any significant difference between the mean scores at the beginning and at the end of the term, a matched t-test (repeated measure t-test) was conducted between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of attitude in the experimental group. A matched t-test was conducted between pre-test and post-test of attitude in the control group.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Homogeneity of Groups in Proficiency and Attitude

To examine the pre-existing differences between the students' proficiency level in the two groups, an independent samples t-test was performed. As table I shows, there is no significant difference between the means of control and experimental groups. It means that the students of control and experimental groups are homogenous on the part of their English language proficiency with confidence interval of the difference of 95%. This justifies the homogeneity of both groups.

TABLE I.
T-TEST FOR LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY LEVEL

		t-test for Equality of Means				
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Proficiency language score in pretest	Equal variances assumed	1.012	46	0.317	1.25	1.281
	Equal variances not assumed	1.089	40.89	0.28	1.29	1.190

For the next step, the students of control and experimental groups were tested for their attitude scores at the beginning of the term. Hence, they all answered the questionnaire; mean scores were calculated; and a two-tailed independent samples t-test was performed between them. Table II shows the details.

The comparison between the scores of attitude questionnaire in pretest for both control and experimental groups showed no significant difference between groups ($P=0.139 > \alpha=0.05$).

TABLE II.
T-TEST FOR PRE-TESTS OF ATTITUDE

		t-test for Equality of Means				
		t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Attitude score in pretest	Equal variances assumed	-1.51	46.000	0.139	-4.042	2.685
	Equal variances not assumed	-1.56	45.998	0.127	-4.042	2.599

B. Variability Due to Attitude

To see whether teacher's self-disclosure was effective on students' attitude to language learning, the attitude questionnaire was given to the students of both groups at the end of the term. The mean scores were calculated, and a two-tailed independent samples t-test was performed between the mean scores of post-tests of both groups, see Table III.

TABLE III.
PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE AND INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON THE ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EXP. /CON. GROUPS

		t-test for Equality of Means				
		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Attitude score in post test	Equal variances assumed	-4.018	46.000	0.000	-12.063	3.003
	Equal variances not assumed	-4.221	45.034	0.000	-12.063	2.858

The results showed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of two groups in post-test (P -value = $0.000 < \alpha = 0.05$).

To make sure that the increase of attitude scores in post-test of the experimental group was a significant one, a paired samples t-test was performed between the mean scores of attitude in pre-test and post-test for the experimental group only.

TABLE IV.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PRE-TEST & POST-TEST OF ATTITUDE IN THE EXP. GROUP

			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Attitude Score for Experimental Group in Pretest - Attitude Score for Experimental Group in Posttest		4.709	22	0.047

Table IV shows that there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test of attitude in the experimental group which justifies the positive impact of teacher's self-disclosure (P -value = $0.047 < \alpha = 0.05$).

The same statistical procedures were performed for the control group. Paired samples t-test was conducted between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of attitude in the control group.

TABLE V.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST ON THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST OF CON. GROUP PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE

	Paired Differences			t	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean				
Pair 1	Attitude Scores for Control Group in Pretest and Posttest	3.18	14.702	2.829	1.126	24	0.271

See table V. The results indicate that there was not a significant difference between the mean scores of the pre-test and post-test of attitude in the control group ($P\text{-value} = 0.271 > \alpha = 0.05$). Therefore, if we compare the performance of the two groups, we can say that teacher's self-disclosure had positive impact on improving students' attitude towards English language learning in the experimental group while the control group showed no significant difference concerning their attitudes.

C. Qualitative Analysis

In order to examine clearly and carefully the effect of teacher's self-disclosure on students' attitude, the researcher (the teacher herself) used the observation technique and recorded the reactions and feedbacks of the students in the experimental group to teacher's self-disclosure. As Mason (1996, p. 60) noted, observations are, "methods of generating data which involve the researcher immersing [him or herself] in a research setting, and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, events, and so on, within it" (Cited in Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 175). In the case of this study, the teacher self-disclosed her feelings and experiences, then, she observed students' feedbacks carefully, and after that, she took note of whatever they said as a reaction. When self-disclosures started, students just listened for the first and the second times. But after two or three sessions, they started to react. Actually, they responded to teacher's self-disclosure. The teacher self-disclosed some of the problems that she faced during her language learning and students shared their own.

For example, one session when the teacher wanted to teach vocabulary, she said, "When I was a language learner, I had problems memorizing new words". Then she continued that she used some vocabulary books and a lightener box to solve this problem and it was effective. In response to expressing this experience, most of the students answered that they had the same problem. For instance, one of them said, "memorizing new words is one of my problems. When I want to say something, I cannot remember the words so that I forget what I was going to say. If these vocabulary books or the lightener box help me, I can solve one of my biggest problems in language learning".

The teacher noticed that after each self-disclosure about something, students' behavior toward that point changed. For example, one session, the teacher said that making mistakes is one of the steps and a sign of language learning. She told when she was a language learner, she was so careful about making mistakes so that sometimes she preferred not to say anything in English in the classroom to protect her ego. In other words, because of the fear of making mistakes in front of the classmates, she avoided to speak in English. After this self-disclosure, students got surprised and one of them said, "I thought that making mistakes is an obstacle that I cannot overcome. I thought that language teachers have not had such kinds of problems and I will not be as proficient as you are. But now, I know that I can be as good as you in the future".

The teacher could see that whenever she self-disclosed one of her emotions during her language learning period, or explained some of her experiences, students did the same thing, they were more intimate than before, they could talk about their feelings about English language itself and also learning English, they talked about the way that they looked at English. After that, they got relaxed and they made sure that they could solve their problems. As an instance one of them said, "I did not like English language and I did not want to continue learning it, because I had a lot of problems in learning English. I had decided not to come to English class anymore. But after I understood that such feelings and problems are natural part of language learning and I should find the best ways to deal with them, I got encouraged to continue".

To make sure that teacher's self-disclosure was sufficient to be felt and understood by the experimental group, the teacher gave them the questionnaire of approval of teacher's self-disclosure at the end of the term. The teacher carefully examined students' answers to the questionnaire, which were in the form of self-report. The researcher compared the recorded class observations with the self-reports and concluded that qualitatively teacher's self-disclosure could be effective on improving students' attitude toward English language learning. Because they were more eager to communicate with their classmates and they were more interested to participate in class discussions. Besides, since they developed a positive attitude towards language learning, they were not so pessimistic about English language learning as before.

Since, the focus of the qualitative phase of this study was on the feedback of students of the experimental group to teacher's self-disclosure inside the classroom, the researcher did not do any statistical analysis on the questionnaire of approval of teacher's self-disclosure. It was just used to be compared with classroom observations and to make sure that

the teacher was successful in communicating her attitudes through self-disclosure.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of this study showed that teacher's self-disclosure can improve students' attitude towards English language learning. Nevertheless, these statistical findings were not the only points that were concluded out of this study. As the results of the qualitative phase of the study demonstrated, teacher's self-disclosure can create a relaxing climate in the classroom that in its turn can encourage students to exchange their experiences with their peer learners and their teacher.

When the students started to talk, teacher's self-disclosure led them into the process of consciousness raising so that the areas of weakness, and the points that required more practice, were revealed.

Learners' autonomy can be introduced as one important indirect conclusion of this study. In fact, the exchange of experiences between the teacher and the students helped the students to learn some of the strategies of learning different skills such as reading or listening. Therefore, the students could move toward autonomy little by little.

It was concluded from this study that teacher's self-disclosure can be a way to improve students' attitude towards language learning. Therefore, it is obvious that teachers can use it to change the negative ideas of cynical students who look at language learning as an obstacle that cannot be overcome. How the teacher self-discloses, can really affect students' way of looking at language learning or the ways they adopt to learn the foreign language hence giving them a new perspective.

Moreover, teacher's self-disclosure can be used by language teachers as a way of creating intimacy between the language teachers and learners in the classroom. It is very important to know the possible and appropriate ways of creating intimate relationships with students. Since "self-disclosure begets self-disclosure", it can encourage the students to talk about their own feelings toward language learning.

In addition, by self-disclosure, the teacher is in a better position to decide how to deal with students' problems. Actually, the teacher can adopt the best methods, techniques, or even classroom activities that are compatible with the students' weaknesses they have talked about in response to teacher's self-disclosure.

The language teachers should learn how to use self-disclosure in the classroom because of its great importance; moreover, it can be introduced in teacher training courses as one of the psycholinguistic elements that have great effects on language learners' affective condition.

Since self-disclosure is an item in the field of psychology that is related to language learning/teaching, it is better to be introduced in courses dealing with psycholinguistics and philosophy of education. Teacher's self-disclosure can be introduced in the books of second/foreign language teaching methods. So, the authorities in the field of materials development for second/ foreign language teaching should take this aspect into consideration.

It can also be useful to make both teachers and students aware of some psychological factors affecting language learning such as attitude. If the students use self-disclosure and talks about the negative outcomes of taking negative attitudes to language learning (or even lack of motivation which is related to attitude), the students will be more eager to overcome such kinds of problems.

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An Approach to Domestication and Foreignization from the Angle of Cultural Factors Translation

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Abstract—The essence of translation is transferring the information expressed by one language to another. It concerns not only the transfer between languages, but also between cultures. The truth that translation is also an intercultural activity can be further proved by the relationship between language and culture. In translation field, there has long been a hot debate over the proper translation strategies chosen for the transmission of cultural contents, and foreignization and domestication have been the focus of debate since their appearance. They can be viewed as the extension of the debate on “free translation” and “literal translation”. In this article, through analysis on the actual application of foreignization and domestication from the aspects of authors’ translative intentions, readers’ demands, cultural aura of concrete texts in novel translation, I arrived at the conclusion that the choosing of foreignization and domestication is not fixed, and the two methods should supplement and complement each other, and that in literature translation, translators should mainly adopt foreignization, and don’t hesitate to choose domestication when it is necessary.

Index Terms—foreignization, domestication, culture, literal translation, free translation, intercultural communication

I. INTRODUCTION

In the field of translation, there has long been a point at issue over the proper translation strategies chosen for the conveyance of cultural elements. The two major ones are foreignization and domestication, which have been the crux of contention since their emergence in translation studies (Hu, Cui'e, 2000).

The essence of translation is to transfer the information represented in one language into another one. However, literary translation is not only a kind of transfer of language symbols, but also a kind of communication between cultures (Zhang, Jin, 1987). Generally speaking, literature translation is to pass on the artistic mood of a literary work with another language so as to make the readers enlightened, moved, and make them get the same feelings of beauty as if he is reading the original work. Therefore, literature translation has the same significance as literature creation. It is not simply the change from one language into another, but also the introduction of one culture into another (Zhang, Baohong, 2001). Thus, it is a creative work.

During the last few years, scholars at home and abroad have conducted a series of researches on foreignization and domestication in literature translation from other certain aspects. My paper aims to explore these two strategies in literature translation mainly from the angle of cultural elements’ translation, analyze and summarize their application, mutual relationship and future development.

II. CULTURE, LANGUAGE AND TRANSLATION

A. Culture and Language

Narrowly speaking, culture refers to local or specific practice, beliefs or customs, which can be mostly tasted in folk culture, enterprise culture, or food culture etc.; while broadly speaking, culture means the total way of life of a people, including the patterns of belief, customs, objects, institutions, techniques, and language that are characteristic of the life of the human community (Hu, Wenzhong, 1994). In this article, culture refers to the body of customary beliefs, social forms and material traits constituting a distinct complex of tradition of a racial, religious, or social group (Merriam-Webster, 1967).

Having evolved together through the history, Language and culture are intrinsically dependent on each other. Proof on their mutual interdependence can be found in the origin of civilization, the development of writing and human communication. Much of the recent work has revealed that language is related to cognition, and cognition in turn is related to the cultural setting.

On the one hand, a language not only describes facts, ideas, or events which indicate similar world knowledge of its people, but also mirrors the people’s attitudes, beliefs, world outlooks etc. In a word, language represents cultural reality. On the other hand, as people’s language uses reflect the culture, to be more specific, their community culture is revealed by its social conventions, norms and social appropriateness, the culture both emancipates and constrains people

activities socially, historically and metaphorically.

E. A. Nida, a famed American translation theorist, recognized the major elements of culture as ecological culture, material culture, social culture, and linguistic culture. All these show that language is a part of culture. Being an essential component of culture and playing a very important role in culture, language is influenced and shaped by culture; language carries culture, mirrors culture, spreads culture and helps develop culture. It is only in language that culture can be well presented and handed down from generation to generation. It is appropriate to say that language is the transmitter for culture and culture is the fertile earth from which language forms and develops. To understand a language, one must know well about its culture and vice versa. So it is quite understandable to say that learning a language is, in a way, learning the culture and customs of the country where the language is prevalent.

B. The Importance of Culture in Translation

In recent years, the translation circle has been putting more and more emphasis on cultural factors in translation. Thus, translation is not only a process of cultural transplantation, but also an activity of intercultural communication. The illustration of the relation between culture and language places us in a better position to clarify the relationship between culture and translation. Translation process involves both the transfer of language and culture. To be more exact, culture exhibits the essential activity during the process of translation. That is to say, the essence of translation is a kind of cultural activity. On the one hand, translation is a kind of cross-cultural communication. Translation, from the perspective of communication theory, is a way of conveying messages and exchanging information. More exactly, it is an intercultural communication between the author and the translator, and between the translator and the readers of the target language. On the other hand, translation is a medium of cultural exchange. The purposes and characteristics of translation lie in cultural and ideological exchanges. It is the urge of people in different communities, nationalities, regions and countries to get to understand each other that makes translation a necessity. In the translation history, materials characteristic of human wisdom and human culture became the target of translation. Since knowledge of one country is expressed to another mainly in foreign language, translation is constantly an important means of acquiring and spreading knowledge. We may even assume that most cultural systems in the world cannot have developed so far without the aid of translation.

III. FOREIGNIZATION AND DOMESTICATION

A. Origin and Definitions

The notion of Foreignization and domestication in translation field was first put forward by an American scholar Lawrence Venuti in his book *The Translator's Invisibility* in 1995, and this term came directly from an academic thesis read out by a German scholar Schleier Marcher in 1813.

Foreignization is a source-culture-oriented translation which strives to translate the source language and culture into the target one in order to keep a kind of exotic flavor (Feng, Jianwen, 1993). Schuttleworth and Cowie have defined foreignization as a term used by Venuti to represent the type of translation in which a TT is produced which deliberately depart from target conventions by keeping something of the foreignness of the original(Schuttleworth & Cowies, 1997). While domestication refers to the translation which is oriented to the target culture and in which unusual expressions to the target culture are transmuted and changed into some familiar ones so as to make the translated text easy to be understood by the target readers. Schuttleworth and Cowie have defined domestication as a term adopted by Venuti to describe the translation strategy in which a lucid, fluent style is used in order to minimize the foreignness of the foreign text for TL readers (Schuttleworth & Cowies, 1997).

Venuti is the representative advocate of foreignization. He openly pronounced that the aim of foreignization is to develop a kind of translation theory and practice to resist the trend of the dominance of the target language, so as to give prominence to the difference between the original and the version in terms of language and culture (Venuti , L, 1995). While Nida is the representative advocate of domestication. He puts forward the notion of the most natural equivalent. Based on the perspective of society and culture, he puts the target reader into the first place. He thinks that the rendition in the version should be completely natural, that the behavioral mode in the source language should be assimilated into the target readers' cultural sphere (Eugene A. Nida & Charles R. Taber, 1993). And such a translational notion doesn't emphasize the concept that the target readers should accept the behavioral mode in the source language for the understanding of the source message.

B. Literal Translation and Free Translation

The controversy on foreignization and domestication can be regarded as the extension of the debate on free translation and literal translation. Literal translation concerns much about the issue of technical handling in language aspect, that is, how to keep the form of the source language without distorting its meaning. It is a translation that follows not only the content but also the form of the source language. Translators employing literal translation method have been willing to discard the formal elements of the target language and even the comprehensibility of the target language text for the sake of doing their best to keep the similarity in form of the source text. Nevertheless, literal translation is totally different from mechanical or dead translation. Free translation holds that different languages have different cultural connotations and expressing forms, and when the form hinders translation, free translation should be

adopted. Those who prefer free translation method have been more likely to pursue elegance and intelligibility of the version at the expense of the form of the source language.

C. The Relation between the Two Pairs of Translation Strategies and Methods

The two pairs of translation strategies have some points in common: literal translation and foreignization lay more emphasis on the linguistic and stylistic features of the original text, and the target text translated in these ways may not be very clear and coherent in language and the content may not be easy to understand for the target readers, so they may feel a bit strange when reading the translation; while free translation and domestication care more about the target audience, and because of the smooth sentences, the familiar expressions and cultural phenomena in the version, sometimes the target readers may not be aware of the fact that they are actually reading a translated text from another culture (Ye, Zinan, 1991).

However, this does not mean the two pairs are the same. There are some disparities between them. When a translator employs either literal translation method or free translation method, he focuses his attention mainly on the linguistic factors of the original text and tries his utmost to preserve the original meaning in the target text. But with the development of the translation studies, more and more translators and theorists have realized that translation is a far more complicated activity which is related to cultural, poetic, as well as economic factors. Therefore, foreignization and domestication is a pair of new translation strategies which are more intricate and inclusive than literal and free translation methods and which are mainly concerned about cultural factors in translation.

IV. EMPLOYMENT OF FOREIGNIZATION AND DOMESTICATION IN NOVEL TRANSLATION

A. Authors' Translative Intentions

Translators adhere to different principles according to different translative intentions. Take two English versions of *Hong Lou Meng* (*A Dream of Red Mansions*) which contains enormous cultural factors for example. Yang Xianyi and his wife Gladys Yang, generally employed foreignizing method in translating this classic Chinese novel in order to introduce Chinese culture to English readers as much as possible. They translated the title of the book as *A Dream of Red Mansions* which is generally regarded as the translated name of “红楼梦”.

While Hawkes, on the contrary, mainly adopted domesticating translation strategy so as to cater to the western readers' tastes and bring them the feeling of enjoyment through light and smooth reading. He translated the title of the novel as *The Story of the Stone* which is another name of *Hong Lou Meng* for the sake of avoiding “red” which is often associated with “blood and killing” in western culture. In this version, he translated “red” as “green” in many places, such as “怡红院” as “The House of Green Delight”, “怡红公子” as “Green Boy”. It is very hard to tell which version is better, since they are both successfully accepted by their readers respectively. However, personally, I prefer the version of Yang Xianyi and Gladys Yang's which is in keeping with the fashion of times, because nowadays westerners are increasingly desirous of knowing and learning more about China.

Another Example: 宝玉看了，心下自思道：“原来如此。但不知何为‘古今之情’，何为‘风月之债’？从今倒要领略领略。”宝玉只顾如此一想，不料早把些邪魔招入膏肓了。(Cao, Xueqin & Gao, E , 1987, P.34)

“Well, well,” thought Pao - yu, “I wonder what's meant by ‘passion from time immemorial’ and ‘debts of breeze and moonlight?’” Little did he know that by thinking in this way he had sum-monied an evil spirit into his inmost heart. (Yang, Xianyi & Gladys Yang, 2010)

Based on the original work' culture, Mr. Yang and his wife translated “风月之债” as “debts of breeze and moonlight” by employing foreignizing method, without any additional explanation or annotation. Most probably, such a version will make the target language readers bewildered. Since to the source language readers, such a Chinese allusive term as “风月之债” can inevitably arouse profound fancy about the romance between two sexes, yet to ordinary target language readers, the Chinese term “风月” only means the natural phenomenon, nothing associated with the deep implication can be inferred. Therefore, for avoiding the misunderstanding of the target language readers, certain explanation or annotation is necessary. E.g., in the English version, add a annotation: “风月” means “love affair” and “风月之债” refers to “love debts”.

B. Readers' Demands

Readers' demands can also greatly affect translators' translative methods when cultural communication between different countries and peoples are still at the early stages, when people are not very familiar with foreign cultures and languages, and are quite strange to large numbers of foreign notions and terms. Thus, if translators employ foreignization strategy too frequently when translating a literary work, the target-language readers may feel very strange to the translated version and may even have a misunderstanding of the source- language culture.

Fu Donghua, in his translation of *Gone with the Wind* (Mitchell, Margaret, 1979), mainly used domestication method. A case in point is that he adopted traditional Chinese family names for the naming of the leading characters in the novel. For example, he translated “Scarlett” as “郝思嘉”, and “Rhett” as “白瑞德”. In addition, he translated many place names with unique Chinese flavors. However, it doesn't mean that when translating the novel he completely abandoned foreignization, which faithfully expressed the information of the original work. Nowadays, the globalization of

economic trade is greatly pushing forward the mutual communication and merging between different countries and peoples. As a result, ways of cultural communication between them is becoming more and more varied and people are beginning to observe and accept foreign culture with an open rather than a narrow mind. Accordingly, in literature translation, some contents that need to be domesticated in the past can be completely foreignized today, which is really quite natural with the change of our society with each passing day.

C. Cultural Aura of Concrete Texts

In concrete context, translators' choosing of translative methods can also be greatly affected by the content of concrete texts. Take the translation of an exclamatory sentence in *Vanity Fair* by Thackery for example (Thackeray, William, 2000). In its Chinese version, “God bless you!” is translated by the translator Yang Bi as “求天保佑你们!”

In western countries where Christianity is prevailing, many words and expressions for everyday use are full of religious colors of Christianity. Yang Bi adopted domesticating method which seems to make readers feel intimate when reading. However, as far as I'm concerned, it would be better to choose foreignization strategy to translate the sentence as “求上帝保佑你们！”, mainly because of two reasons: first, readers would not feel difficult in understanding the sentence with the help of “bless”; second, it would help to introduce foreign culture to Chinese readers and stimulate them to explore more related knowledge.

Next, let's look at another translation of a proverb in *Hong Lou Meng (A Dream of Red Mansions)*.

Yang Xianyi and Gladys Yang adopted foreignizing translation to translate the proverb “谋事在人，成事在天” as “Man proposes, Heaven disposes” (Yang, Xianyi & Gladys Yang, 2010, P. 120) which is similar to the English idiom “Man proposes, God disposes”. Obviously, through association western readers can easily understand the meaning of the proverb and know more about Chinese culture through inference.

While in some other cases, if translators adopt foreignization to deal with cultural differences, it may cause misunderstanding or barriers in understanding of source-language culture, then domestication should be used. Take the translation of one sentence in one English novel for example.

I'm a selfish pig. (我是头自私自利的猪.)

The translator adopted foreignization, which is more likely to cause misunderstanding, since in western countries, “pig” is often associated with “dirty, greedy and selfish”, while in Chinese, “猪” in most cases means “stupid.” Therefore, it would be better to use domestication to translate the original English sentence as “我是个自私鬼。” In this way, the sentence can present the readers with a faithful image of the character who utters such a remark in the novel.

Thus, the choosing of the two methods can't be lumped together. Translators should made proper choice according to concrete situations.

V. ADVANTAGE AND DISADVANTAGE OF FOREIGNIZATION AND DOMESTICATION IN APPLICATION

According to the above analysis, foreignization and domestication both have their advantages in literature translation with regard to different times, readers' demands, translative intentions, concrete texts and so on. And, of course, their disadvantages also can't be denied. Domestication makes readers have a taste of the similarities between different cultures, at the same time makes translated texts smooth, clear and coherent so as to accord with target-language readers' reading and expressing habits (Zhu, Jianping, 2002). However, domesticated translations can also blot out characteristics of nations and peoples, which therefore inevitably causes distortions of original texts.

While foreignization tries to keep an exotic atmosphere for target-language readers, and makes them feel the difference between languages and cultures. We can find many successful cases of foreignization. “Kungfu” (功夫), “erhu”(二胡), “the Great Cultural Revolution”(文化大革命), “jiaozi”(饺子) are successful examples of foreignization of Chinese phrases, and “时间就是金钱。”(Time is money.), “酸葡萄”(sour grapes) “象牙塔”(ivory tower), “鳄鱼的眼泪”(crocodile's tears) are successful examples of foreignization of English phrases. It can be said that foreignization is of advantage to the communication and mergence of two different cultures and languages. However, foreignization is not always applicable because it may cause misunderstanding or barriers in understanding. For example, “红白喜事” can be best translated as “weddings and funerals” in a domestication way rather than “the red and white happy event”; while the translation of “I'm not Hamlet.” as “我不是哈姆雷特。” Sounds equivocal, and another Chinese version “我决不优柔寡断。” is explicit and to the point. Other praiseworthy translation examples through the employment of domestication method: Justice has long arms (天网恢恢，疏而不漏); The two friends are hand-in-glove with each other(这两位朋友情同手足) ; 不到黄河不死心(Refuse to give up until all hope is gone).

Many people only see the contradiction and opposition between foreignization and domestication, and put emphasis on their incompatibilities. They neglect the unity of opposition and compatibility of the two. In the process of literature translation, the choosing of the two is not fixed, and should be decided according to actual situations. The two methods should supplement and complement each other (Zhu, Jianping, 2002).

VI. CONCLUSION

Translation is an art of choosing. In the process of literature translation, translators always face the choosing of

strategies of foreignization and domestication. In view of the above analysis of the two methods in novel translation, it's not difficult to find that foreignization is the inevitable tendency in literature translation at the present time, since being faithful to the original works, keeping local conditions and customs of foreign countries, satisfying readers' expecting view is a must in the process of global cultural communication and mergence.

In the 21st century, foreignization will be the keynote in literature translation. Of course, as translators stick to holding foreignization as the main translative method, the supplementary role of domestication can't be neglected. Domestication, as another important strategy for translation, can make the original more intimate to readers and make up the inconvenience caused by too many difficult unfamiliar cultural factors in the original. Thus, domestication can better pass on the spirits of original works when foreignization is awkward in fluently expressing the contents of literary works. Therefore, translators should adopt foreignization as far as possible, and don't hesitate to use domestication when it is necessary. Only when translators properly choose foreignization and domestication and combine them appropriately, can they bring satisfactory translations to readers, and at the same time fulfill the duty of intercultural communication (Xu, Chongxin, 1991).

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Improving Iranian EFL Learners' Writing through Task-based Collaboration

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Abstract—A large body of research has examined the interaction of oral and written language in formal educational context. Language practitioners and researchers have also taken up the sociocultural approach to language learning and emphasized the need for composition teachers to promote a social atmosphere in classrooms through collaboration. Accordingly, the present study sought to extend the scope of collaborative writing studies to FL context. More specifically, it aimed to investigate the writing performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners in the *textbook evaluation* course which is one of the university courses for the students of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language). For this purpose, fifty seven female EFL learners participated in this study. It was carried out in two parallel *textbook evaluation* classes; namely, control and experimental groups to which students were randomly assigned. Students were supposed to evaluate eight series of ELT materials and write reports based on them. Students in the control group did the tasks individually; whereas students in the experimental group wrote collaboratively in small groups. Data collection was based on the pre-test, post-test design. The results of statistical analysis revealed that the students working in groups outperformed those writing individually based on such writing components as content, organization, grammar, and vocabulary.

Index Terms—individual writing, collaborative writing, writing reports

I. INTRODUCTION

It is generally believed that writing is an individual activity often followed by feedback; However from the social constructivist perspective of language learning, based on the work of Vygotsky (1978), learners' early attempts at writing are grounded in speech. Therefore, development of written language is best fostered by a supportive conversational environment. So, it seems that our understanding of writing including first language (L1), second language (L2), and foreign language (FL) has started to shift away from a completely individualistic perspective to a sociocultural one.

Researchers inspired by the sociocultural theory of language learning have been encouraged to investigate the role of language itself in the process of L2 or FL learning. Specifically, they have focused on oral interaction and how it is used in learning activities. The effects of spoken interaction within L2 writing classroom is a topic of growing interest among L2 writing researchers. Weissberg (2006) claims that social interaction provides an ideal context for mastering complex cognitive skills like writing, and these two should not be separated. In this post-process era of writing (Atkins, 2003, p.6) quality writing requires both cognitive and social skills.

According to Vygotsky (1978), scaffolding enables children to stretch their cognitive and language development beyond their current level towards their potential level of development. Research has shown that such scaffolding can also occur in L2/FL context among peers working in pairs or groups (Kim, 2008; Nassaji & Tian, 2010; Storch 2002; Swain, 2010; Swain & Lapkin, 2002; Weissberge, 2006; Shehadeh, 2011; Dobao, 2012; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009; Hubert, 2011). Collaborative writing (CW) provides learners with the opportunity to engage with language and test their hypothesis. The learner's attempt to solve language problems is referred to as "languaging" by Swain (2006, 2010). When learners work on their own, languaging is self-directed; but when learners work together languaging refers to the social construction of meaning through talk about language which may involve discussions of aspects of language itself. Languaging in the context of writing provides learners with the opportunity to focus on language problems (Swain, 2006).

Despite the growing interest in cross-modality research, to use Weissberg's terminology (1994), this field suffers from a series of shortcomings. One of the most important one is the fact that researchers and practitioners are still not sure if oral interaction in L2 writing classroom has any positive effects on writing product or process since research done so far revealed contradictory results in this regard. According to Wigglesworth and Storch (2012), much more research is required to develop our understanding of how collaborative writing activities and collaborative engagement with feedback can enhance language learning. On the other hand, most cross-modality research has focused on ESL students and ignored foreign language learners (Hubert, 2011).

The majority of foreign language majors, like EFL curricula, require students to complete at least one intermediate/advanced-level composition course. Courses like these usually consist of grammatical instruction, paragraph development and essay writing. They commonly follow an individualistic, instructor-centered approach in which students write their composition outside class, leaving the class time to explicit grammatical or rhetorical instruction. In order to extend the scope of these studies to FL context and provide more evidence on the effectiveness of CW, the present study tries to investigate the effect of small group task-based collaborative writing activities on Iranian EFL learners' writing quality.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A large body of research has examined the interaction of oral and written language in formal educational context based on Vygotskian notion of social interaction (1978). L2 practitioners and researchers have also taken up the interactionist approach and stressed the need for L2 composition teachers to promote a social atmosphere in the classroom. Cumming (1992) focused on the discourse organization of English as a second language (ESL) composition lessons. One of the routines followed in such classes in particular is "collectively constructing interpretations" in which teachers led open-ended discussions, promoting "interactive and responsive" talk among class participants. (p.25). For L2 learners, classroom talk takes on importance from both social interactionist and cognitive perspectives. According to Weissberg (1994), L2 writers may benefit from the use of talk to explore topics for composition, to encode ideas linguistically, and to become aware of aspects of writing process. Collaborative writing projects, peer editing groups, and conferencing have been suggested as ways of injecting oral interaction into the writing class (Mangelsdorf, 1989).

Despite the fact that ESL writing classroom has traditionally been a place of individual work supervised by an expert teacher, researchers applying sociocultural theory to the study of L2 learning maintain that learners can have a positive impact on each other's development because they can act as both novices and experts since no two learners have the same strength and weaknesses (Donato, 1994; Ohta, 2001; Storch, 2002). They can provide scaffolded assistance to each other, and by sharing different resources achieve a level of performance that is beyond their individual level of competence (Ohta, 2001). However, not all pair or group work is collaborative. Donato (2004, p. 287) argues that interaction is only collaborative under certain conditions:

- Participants must have developed social relations as a result of their joint work which should include a meaningful core activity;
- Participants must acknowledge themselves as apart of core activity in such a way that each individual has a role to play in achieving a larger goal;
- Participants must possess knowledge which can be shared with other participants in order to construct new knowledge through which group coherence can develop.

Studies that have used collaborative writing as a means to explore the effects of task variables on language output and language learning tend to have a pedagogical orientation examining the forms that would be focused on during different task conditions. A number of studies have investigated the effects of collaboration on writing product. For example, Storch and Wigglesworth (2007) compared writing performance on two tasks by learners working either in pairs or individually. They found a significance difference between the two groups in terms of accuracy but not on measures of fluency and complexity. In a related study on the same data, Wigglesworth and Storch (2009) examined the transcripts of learners' pair talk to identify the role collaboration and interaction played in composing sentences. They found that brainstorming of ideas took up the greatest proportion of time and included making notes about ideas. Revision with a focus on grammatical accuracy and lexical choice was also important as learners discussed their use of language.

Dobao (2012) investigated the performance of intermediate Spanish learners in a university context. There were three groups of learners working in groups, pairs or individually to complete a written task following a lesson reviewing past tense grammar. The interactions of groups and pair works were recorded, transcribed and analyzed for accuracy, fluency and complexity (syntactic and lexical). The results revealed that groups produced the most accurate texts followed by pairs and then individuals. The groups produced a larger number of LREs (language related episodes) than pairs. The results suggest that pooled knowledge act as an enabler in collaborative writing activities allowing learners to produce more accurate texts.

Reichelt (1999) has suggested that FL learners lack truly extrinsic motivation engaging in FL composition writing. Although writing assignments of university FL courses may provide a certain measure of extrinsic motivation, they are usually given when there is no clear audience or purpose for writing outside the FL classroom (p.195). In-class peer collaboration on writing projects may indeed help FL writers to develop a sense of audience which may help to fill this information gap in FL writing. Shehadeh (2011) extended the study of collaborative writing into the foreign language classroom. In this longitudinal study conducted over a 16-week semester based on a re-test posttest design, learners worked either individually or in pairs and were asked to complete a series of writing tasks on which they were given oral and written feedback. The results revealed improvement in content, organization and vocabulary but not in grammatical accuracy. As Shehadeh argues, this could be related to low-proficiency level of learners and the fact that they may have not the necessary language knowledge to help each other.

In another attempt to expand the scope of CW to FL context, Biria and Jafari (2013) investigated the impact of CW on the writing fluency of Iranian EFL learners at intermediate level. The study consisted of two phases: instruction and writing. In the instructional phase, paragraph development and essay writing were taught to students. Results revealed that there was a considerable improvement in the use of T-units and clauses produced by pairs; however, the fluency of written texts produced by both groups of individuals and pairs were not significantly different on measures of fluency. In the same context, Marzban and Sarjami (2014) studied the impact of collaborative negotiated feedback on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' writing and compared it with teacher-written feedback. Students were asked to participate in correction of errors. The gain scores of students on post test provided positive evidence in support of the efficacy of collaborative negotiated feedback.

So far, most socioculturally driven research on L2 or FL writing has focused on collaborative writing tasks performed in pairs or groups and compared them with individual writing tasks; however, the results are contradictory. Some provided positive evidence supporting the efficacy of CW, while others indicated little or no effect. It may be concluded that the efficacy of CW is influenced by other variables like context of learning whether L2 or FL; the nature of tasks; learners grouping, whether in pairs or small groups; proficiency level of participants; time restriction for performing tasks; the presence or absence of instruction on grammar and writing rhetorics; the nature of feedback, data collection procedures; and measuring scales. Another issue requiring discussion is that it cannot be expected that an activity taking place within a single task administration would necessarily have an immediate feedback on learners' abilities. Moreover according to Ellis (2003), the same task can result in very different kinds of activities when performed by different learners. Last but not least, all research done to date focused on learners' performance in writing classrooms whether in FL or L2 context. Obviously, writing is a necessary skill highly required in other academic courses which can provide more opportunities for learners to improve this skill. The utility of CW in such situations have been ignored.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The present study is an attempt to add more empirical evidence to our understanding of the effects of collaboration on writing performance of Iranian FL learners. In addition to extending the scope of CW studies to FL context, it focuses on an academic course which its immediate goal is not writing instruction. Specially, it focuses on the writing performance of learners in the *textbook evaluation* course which is one of the university courses for the students of TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language). Writing reports is one of the requirements of the course which seems to be a challenge for these learners. In other words, this study tries to find out whether the integration of collaborative writing tasks will improve the quality of writing in terms of content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics of writing. The research questions that guide the study are:

1. Do small group collaborative writing tasks help Iranian intermediate EFL learners to write more effectively?
2. Are there any differences between the reports produced by individuals and those written by groups?
3. Which aspects of writing are improved through CW?

It is hypothesized that collaboration will help FL learners to improve their writing performance more effectively. This hypothesis is based on two assumptions: a) the provision of immediate audience and interaction will help students to make their writing more accurate and comprehensible to the reader since they are provided with a more authentic reason to write; b) sharing their linguistic and non linguistic resources, groups are able to produce more accurate texts.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

Fifty seven female EFL learners participated in this study. They were juniors (3rd year students) at a large public university in Iran. Their field of study was TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language). They ranged in age from 20-26 years old. All participants shared the same L₁background, Persian. They have been admitted to university based on national university entrance examination. Based on the results of the OPT (Oxford Placement Test), they were at the intermediate level of proficiency in English. They were accustomed to teacher-centered instruction, memorization and individual work in their previous learning experiences. At the time of the study, they had enrolled in *Textbook Evaluation* course as part of the required courses to get their BA degree in TEFL. The study was carried out in fall semester of 2013. Participants were randomly assigned to two groups; namely, control and experimental. 29 students were in control group, and 28 in the experimental one which were divided into 7 groups of 4 students.

B. Materials

Six sets of materials were implemented in this study including the OPT, a textbook evaluation checklist, 8 series of ELT materials, students reports (pre-test and post-test writing tasks), an analytic writing scale for rating the reports, and the SPSS software for statistical analysis of the data. First of all, the OPT was utilized to find out the current proficiency level of learners. Secondly, students were provided with a checklist for textbook evaluation. It was designed by Daoud, A.M and Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). The checklist consisted of five sections: a) subject matter, b) vocabulary and structures, c) exercises, d) illustration, and e) physical make-up. Each of the five sections is composed of a series of

questions to be answered based on a 5-point scale ranging from totally lacking (0) to excellent (4). Thirdly, Students were supposed to evaluate 8 series of ELT materials including: 1. Local ELT materials taught at Iranian high schools, 2. Let's go, 3. Bravo, 4. Parade, 5. English Time, 6. Interchange, 7. Headway, and 8. English File series. Next, they were asked to write 8 reports respectively based on the textbook evaluation results of those ELT materials. Since this was a study with pre-test, post-test design, two sets of data were collected from control (no: 58) and experimental (no: 56) groups which yield a total number of 114 reports, 57 reports for pre-test and 57 for post-test. Then, samples of pre-test, and post-test were rated based on the analytic writing scale developed by Hedgcock and Leftkowitz (1992). The scale defines the following 5 components on a 0-100 point scale. There are four specified levels for each component (very poor, fair to poor, good to average, excellent to very good):

- Content: knowledge of subject; development of thesis; converge of topic; relevance of details; substance; quality of details (30 points).
- Organization: fluency of expression; clarity in the statement of ideas; support; organization of ideas; sequencing and development of ideas (20 points).
- Grammar: accurate use of sentence structures and constructions; accuracy and correctness in the use of agreement, number, tense, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions, negation (25 points).
- Vocabulary: range; accuracy of word/idiom choice; mastery of word forms; appropriateness of register, effectiveness in the transmission of meaning (20 points).
- Mechanics of writing: conventions of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraph indentation (5 points).

Finally, the statistical data analysis was carried out by SPSS software which will be fully elaborated in the data analysis section.

C. Procedures

The study was carried out in two parallel *textbook evaluation* classes (4hrs/week); namely, control and experimental groups to which students were randomly assigned. During the first half of the semester (8 sessions), students receive instruction on curriculum and syllabus design, materials development and textbook evaluation for implementation. During the next half of the semester (the remaining 8 sessions), students were supposed to analyze and evaluate 8 series of different ELT materials based on the evaluation checklist developed by Daoud, A. M. and Celce-Murcia, M. (1979) and write a report. The first and the last reports were related to pre-test and post-test. The instruction and writing prompts were exactly the same for both classes. Both classes were taught by the same female teacher. She held an MA in TEFL and has taught TEFL courses for 10 years. In both classes, students received oral and written feedback from the teacher on their final drafts. In addition, they were allowed to have oral conferences with the teacher in the process of wiring. Based on the OPT results, all students were at the intermediate level of proficiency.

There were 29 students in the control group. They were allocated 3 hours to do all the tasks individually during the class time. There were 28 students in the experimental group which were divided into seven groups of four. Since all of them were at intermediate level of proficiency, they were allowed to choose their peers themselves. It was believed that the friendly interpersonal relationships among them would enhance small group work which was a completely new experience for them. They were asked to perform all the tasks collaboratively during 4 hours of class time which includes analyzing and evaluating the textbooks, drafting, revising and writing the final reports. In order to increase the motivation for collaboration, the same score was assigned to all members of the group since they had to deliver one joint report.

Time duration for task performance was based on the number of activities which includes analyzing and evaluating the textbooks based on the checklist, preparing the first draft of the report, and revising it to write the final draft. Experimental group was allocated with more time. According to Storch (2005), they need more time to perform the tasks collaboratively.

This study was based on the pre-test, post-test design. For pre-test, students in both groups were asked to evaluate the local ELT materials which are taught at Iranian high schools: English Book1-3, and write a report based on that during 3 hours of class time. The collected data were rated blindly by two raters (none of whom was the researcher or the teacher) based on the writing scale developed by Hedgcock and Leftkowitz (1992). The researcher met with the instructor and the two raters, explained the purpose of the study and the rating scale. As piloting, the two raters independently rated two sample reports none of which were related to pre-test or post-test. All differences were discussed and resolved and a high level of agreement was reached. The inter-rater reliability for pre-test was established at .79. During six session, students in both groups have performed textbook evaluation tasks on Let's go, Bravo, Parade, English Time, Interchange and Headway series. Then the post-test was conducted with the same procedure. The students in both groups analyzed and evaluated the *English File* series and wrote their reports during 3 hours of class time. The data of post-test were rated blindly by the same two raters, and the inter-rater reliability for post was .82.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

As mentioned before, the present study aimed at investigating the effects of collaborative writing tasks on the writing quality of Iranian intermediate EFL learners in terms of content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics of

writing. In order to answer the research questions, two independent sample t-tests were carried out for pre-test and post-test respectively.

Table I shows descriptive statistics for pre-test. It shows mean value, standard deviation and standard error of mean for all writing components regarding control and experimental groups. Comparing the data in table I with the level specifications in the rating scale (see appendix A), it becomes clear that learners in both groups were at *fair to poor* level. The mean value for total score of the control group is 62.21, and it is 62.45 for experimental group. That is, students in both groups showed: limited knowledge and minimal thematic development(content); loose connection and sequencing of ideas (organization); significant problems in use of complex structures, frequent errors in agreement, number, tense, word order, and prepositions (grammar); limited range of vocabulary, inappropriate word choice, frequent translation-based problems (vocabulary); and frequent spelling punctuation, capitalization errors (mechanics).

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRE-TEST

Variables	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Content	Control	29	19.00	2.04	.38
	Experimental	28	19.10	2.14	.40
Organization	Control	29	12.93	2.51	.47
	Experimental	28	12.45	2.24	.42
Grammar	Control	29	13.86	2.24	.42
	Experimental	28	14.83	2.51	.47
Vocabulary	Control	29	12.93	1.86	.35
	Experimental	28	12.90	1.26	.23
Mechanics	Control	29	3.50	.64	.12
	Experimental	28	3.17	.66	.12
Total score	Control	29	62.21	7.07	1.34
	Experimental	28	62.45	7.11	1.32

Table II shows the results of independent samples t-tests for pre-test. As expected, there were no significant differences between the two groups regarding all writing components and also the total score on pre-test. The observed significance value (sig. 2-taled) for all writing components and the total score are greater than .05. Moreover, the Levene's Test for equality of variances shows no significant differences since the observed p values are greater than .05. Therefore, it can be safely assumed that equal variances exist.

TABLE II.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PRE-TEST

	Leven'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	
Content	.055	.816	-.187	55	.853	-.10	.55	-1.21	1.01		
Organization	.029	.866	.896	55	.374	.48	.54	-.59	1.55		
Grammar	.820	.369	-1.539	55	.130	-.97	.63	-2.23	.29		
Vocabulary	2.146	.149	.076	55	.940	3.20E-02	.42	-.81	.87		
Mechanics	.412	.524	1.906	55	.062	.33	.17	-.168E-02	.67		
Total score	.055	.816	-.125	55	.901	-.23	1.88	-4.00	3.53		

Students performed 6 writing tasks in both groups, and then the post-test was conducted. Table III shows descriptive statistics for post-test. It shows mean value, standard deviation and standard error of mean for all writing components regarding control and experimental groups. As it is clear, both groups improved in their writing ability (compare table I and II).

Comparing the results with level specifications of the rating scale, it is revealed that the control group (individuals) improved to the next level of writing that is called *good to average* (see appendix A) in all aspects of writing except grammar. That is students who wrote individually gained some knowledge of subject and the content of their reports was mostly related to the topic but lacked details (mean value for content= 22.50). Their reports on the post-test showed adequate fluency with clear main ideas; however, they were loosely organized and had limited supporting materials (mean value for organization= 15.57). Regarding the vocabulary aspect, their texts effectively transmitted meaning; however, they weren't free of word choice errors (mean value for vocabulary= 15.50). Occasional errors were observed in their use of mechanics of writing, but the errors did not interfere with meaning (mean value for organization= 4). Finally, their total scores developed from 62.21 (pre-test) to 73.21 (post-test). The only aspect of writing which did not improve was grammar (mean value for grammar= 15.71), it was still at *fair to poor* level.

The case was a little different considering the students who practiced collaborative writing in small groups, since their reports advanced to the *excellent to very good* level in terms of content ($M=27$) and organization ($M=18.03$). However, for grammar ($M=18.79$), vocabulary ($M=16.76$), mechanics of writing ($M=4.00$), and total score ($M=84.48$) their writing quality improved to *good to average* level based on the writing scale. In other words, their reports were knowledgeable, substantive, and relevant to the assigned topic with clearly stated and logically organized ideas. In terms of grammar, they used simple constructions effectively, but their production of complex structures was somehow

problematic. Their use of vocabulary was at an adequate range, but not free of word choice errors. Occasional errors were observed regarding mechanics of writing, but they did not interfere with meaning.

TABLE III.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POST-TEST

Variables	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Content	Control	29	22.50	2.98	.56
	Experimental	28	27	.86	.16
Organization	Control	29	15.57	2.27	.43
	Experimental	28	18.03	.94	.18
Grammar	Control	29	15.71	2.29	.43
	Experimental	28	18.79	2.64	.49
Vocabulary	Control	29	15.50	1.84	.35
	Experimental	28	16.76	1.77	.33
Mechanics	Control	29	4.00	.67	.13
	Experimental	28	4.00	.00	.00
Total score	Control	29	73.21	9.06	1.71
	Experimental	28	84.48	5.97	1.11

In order to answer the second research question, independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare the two groups on post-test. As it is presented in table IV, the results show statistically significant differences between the two groups considering the content ($p=.000$), organization ($p=.000$), grammar ($p=.000$), vocabulary ($p=.011$), and total scores ($p=.000$). There was no significant difference for mechanics of writing ($p=1.00$) at .05 level of significance. It seems that the experimental group outperformed the control group in all aspects except mechanics of writing.

TABLE IV.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR POST-TEST

	Leven'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	
Content	.820	.369	-7.637	55	.000	-4.40	.58	-5.55	-3.24
Organization	.029	.866	-5.387	55	.000	-2.46	.46	-3.38	-1.55
Grammar	.357	.552	-4.698	55	.000	-3.08	.66	-4.39	-1.77
Vocabulary	.412	.524	-2.638	55	.011	-1.26	.48	-2.21	-.30
Mechanics	.055	.816	.000	55	1.000	.00	.12	-.25	.25
Total score	.830	.385	-5.564	55	.000	-11.27	2.03	-15.33	-7.21

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Considering the research questions, results of statistical analysis showed that collaborative writing had an overall significant effect on improving the writing quality of Iranian FL students of TEFL; nevertheless this effect varied from one area to another that is the collaborative group outperformed the individual group in all components of writing except mechanics. In other words, the effect was significant in the areas of content, organization, grammar, and vocabulary but not mechanics of writing. With respect to mechanics of writing, a possible explanation is that there are a relatively limited number of rules and conventions in this regard which can be mastered more easily by students in both groups.

As mentioned in the previous section, quality of students' writing improved totally in both conditions (see table I and II) which is due to the nature of task-based process writing. Table III showed that students who practiced individual writing developed their writing quality regarding all components except grammar. However, this was not the case with collaborative writing group. Their progress was greater regarding the content and organization components. In these two areas, they advance two levels from *fair to poor* level to *excellent to very good* based on the rating scale. Another difference was that students in the collaborative group developed their level of grammar from *fair to poor* level to *good to average* level. This improvement was observed for the other two components (vocabulary and mechanics) as well. It can be concluded that collaborative writing had a greater effect on the following components of writing: content, organization, and grammar.

Results of this study are in line with social constructivist perspective of learning which claims that CW would improve the quality of students' writing. That is collaboration in all steps of writing including generating ideas, planning, drafting, and revising helped students to share and pool their sources of knowledge to the effect that their writing proficiency was statistically at a higher level in post-test. In other words, CW leads to learning (that is writing to learn). As it was mentioned before, in this study students did not receive any explicit instruction on grammar or composition writing since this research was conducted in a *textbook evaluation* classroom which is an academic course for the students of TEFL. It can be concluded that providing learners with authentic writing tasks and immediate audience will lead to proficiency improvement even when writing is not the focus of the study.

Results of this study are compatible with those of Shehadeh (2011) regarding the efficacy of CW in terms of improvement in the areas of content, organization, vocabulary; however, the two studies are contradictory regarding the grammar component. This may be due to the fact that grouping patterns were different in these two studies. In this study CW tasks were performed in groups of four students, while they were performed in pairs in the study done by Shehadeh. In another study done by Jafari and Biria (2013), no significant difference was observed between individual and collaborative (pair work) writing conditions in terms of fluency. But Marzban and Sarjami's (2014) findings revealed the effectiveness of collaborative corrective feedback in which students were working in groups of five. This was also the case for the research done by Dobao (2012) in that learners who worked in groups produced more accurate texts. So, it seems that for intermediate EFL learners, small group collaboration is probably more effective than pair work.

Textbook developers, foreign language learners, and teachers may benefit from the findings of the present study in the following ways: this research provides further empirical evidence on the efficacy of CW for FL writing classrooms and also other academic courses which require writing tasks. Specifically, CW can be used as a pedagogical tool to encourage more classroom interaction among learners where they are accustomed to individual work. This can create a positive social atmosphere in FL classrooms with a sense of immediate audience which can increase students' motivation to participate in writing tasks more effectively. Therefore, CW is not limited to the writing course but it is possible to apply this activity in other academic courses to help students improve their writing skill through authentic tasks.

This study is not without limitation. If the oral interaction of group members were recorded, it would be possible to find out the main focus of learners' talk during CW tasks. Also it would be possible to investigate whether use of L1 has any effects on task fulfillment of FL learners.

APPENDIX A. RATING SCALE

	Score Criteria
Content	27–30 Excellent to very good: knowledgeable; substantive, thorough development of thesis; relevant to topic assigned 22–26 Good to average: some knowledge of subject; adequate range; limited thematic development; mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail 17–21 Fair to poor: limited knowledge of subject; minimal substance; poor thematic development 13–16 Very poor: shows little or no knowledge of subject; inadequate quantity; not relevant, or not enough to rate
Organization	18–20 Excellent to very good: fluent expression; clear statement of ideas; solid support; clear organization; logical and cohesive sequencing 14–17 Good to average: adequate fluency; main ideas clear but loosely organized; supporting material limited; sequencing logical but incomplete 10–13 Fair to poor: low fluency; ideas not well connected; logical sequencing and development lacking 7–9 Very poor: ideas not communicated; organization lacking, or not enough to rate
Grammar	22–25 Excellent to very good: accurate use of relatively complex structures; few errors in agreement, number, tense, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions 18–21 Good to average: simple constructions used effectively; some problems in use of complex constructions; errors in agreement, number, tense, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions 11–17 Fair to poor: significant defects in use of complex constructions; frequent errors in agreement, number, tense, negation, word order, articles, pronouns, prepositions; fragments and deletions; lack of accuracy interferes with meaning 5–10 Very poor: no mastery of simple sentence construction; text dominated by errors; does not communicate, or not enough to rate
Vocabulary	18–20 Excellent to very good: complex range; accurate word/idiom choice; mastery of word forms; appropriate register 14–17 Good to average: adequate range; errors of word/idiom choice; effective transmission of meaning 10–13 Fair to poor: limited range; frequent word/idiom errors; inappropriate choice, usage; meaning not effectively communicated 7–9 Very poor: translation-based errors; little knowledge of target language vocabulary, or not enough to rate
Mechanics	5 Excellent to very good: masters conventions of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraph indentation, etc. 4 Good to average: occasional errors in spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraph indentation, etc., which do not interfere with meaning 3 Fair to poor: frequent spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing errors; meaning disrupted by formal problems 2 Very poor: no mastery of conventions due to frequency of mechanical errors, or not enough to rate

Source: Hedgcock, J., & Lefkowitz, N. (1992). Collaborative oral/aural revision in foreign language writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 1(3), 275–276. Reproduced with permission of the authors.

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Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

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